3 0516 02265 954

ST. THOMAS
LIBRARY
COLLEGE
WITHDRAWN
UST
Libraries

THE NEW LARNED HISTORY

FOR READY REFERENCE READING AND RESEARCH

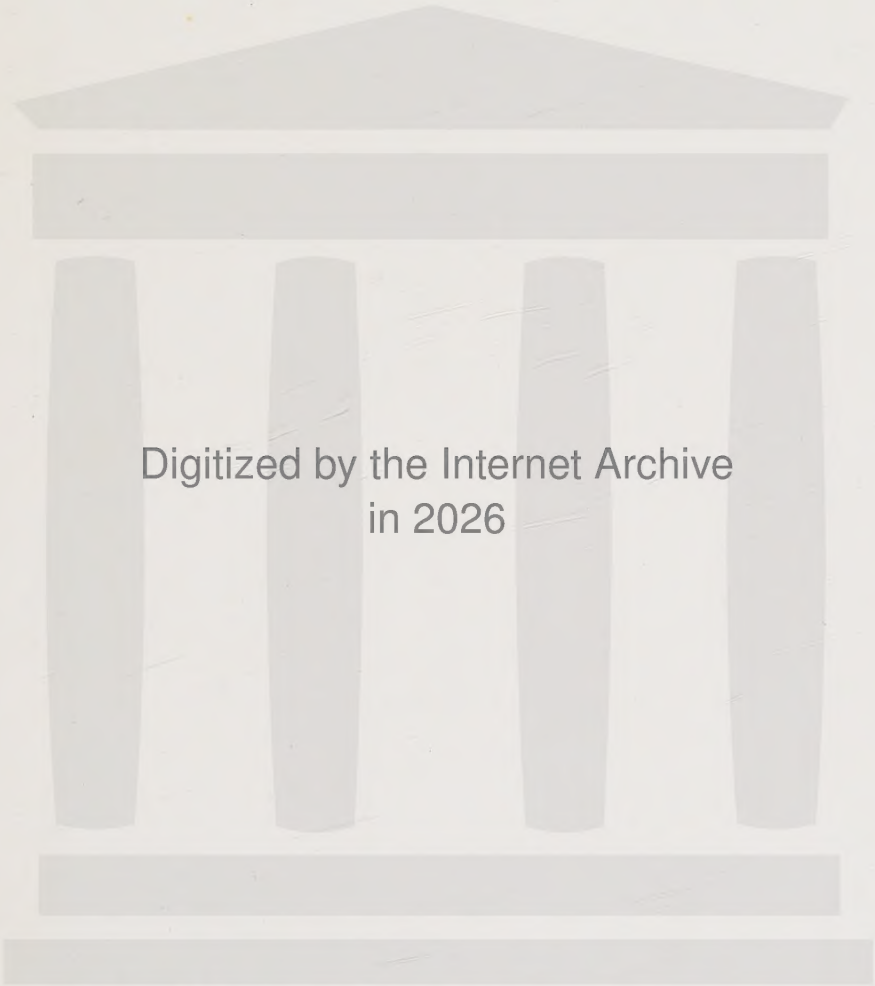
VOLUME VI

Original Edition—5 volumes *1893–4*
Second Edition—original edition revised, with supplemental volume *1901*
Third Edition—as second, with second supplemental volume *1910*
Complete Revision—12 volumes *1922–4*

THE NEW LEARNED HISTORY

FOR READY REFERENCE
READING AND RESEARCH

VOLUME VI


Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2026

https://archive.org/details/newlarnedhistory0006jnla

OTTO KURTH

THE NEW LARNED HISTORY

FOR READY REFERENCE READING AND RESEARCH

THE ACTUAL WORDS OF THE WORLD'S BEST HISTORIANS BIOGRAPHERS AND SPECIALISTS

A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF HISTORY FOR ALL USES, EXTENDING TO ALL COUNTRIES AND ALL SUBJECTS AND REPRESENTING THE BETTER AND NEWER LITERATURE OF HISTORY

BASED ON THE WORK OF THE LATE

J. N. LARNED, A.M.

THOROUGHLY REVISED, ENLARGED AND BROUGHT UP TO DATE

DONALD D. SMITH, PH.D.
EDITOR-IN-CHIEF

CHARLES SEYMOUR, PH.D.
AUGUSTUS H. SHEARER, PH.D. DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D.
ASSOCIATE EDITORS

WITH A LARGE NUMBER OF TEXT ILLUSTRATIONS, MAPS AND CHARTS
MANY OF THEM FULL-PAGE INSERTS IN DUOTONE, AND FRONTISPIECES IN COLOR; ALSO NUMEROUS DOUBLE AND SINGLE-PAGE HISTORICAL AND OTHER MAPS IN COLOR, FROM ORIGINAL STUDIES AND DRAWINGS

IN 12 VOLUMES

VOL. VI. — INVE TO LYRI

VIEW OF JERUSALEM FROM THE MOUNT OF OLIVES

In the left center, behind the walls, is the Temple of Solomon. The dome in the center locates the Mosque of Omar. The Garden of Gethsemane is shown in the foreground.

Painted by Otto Kurth

SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS
C. A. NICHOLS PUBLISHING COMPANY
BUSINESS FOUNDED 1857

VIEW OF JERUSALEM FROM THE MOUNT OF OLIVES

In the left center behind the walls is the Temple of Solomon. The dome in the center locates the Mosque of Omar. The Garden of Gethsemane is shown in the foreground.

Painted by Otto Kuehn

THE NEW LARNED HISTORY

FOR READY REFERENCE READING AND RESEARCH

THE ACTUAL WORDS OF THE WORLD'S BEST HISTORIANS BIOGRAPHERS AND SPECIALISTS

A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF HISTORY FOR ALL USES, EXTENDING TO ALL COUNTRIES AND SUBJECTS AND REPRESENTING THE BETTER AND NEWER LITERATURE OF HISTORY

BASED ON THE WORK OF THE LATE

J. N. LARNED, A.M.

NOW COMPLETELY REVISED, ENLARGED AND BROUGHT UP TO DATE

DONALD E. SMITH, PH.D.
EDITOR-IN-CHIEF

CHARLES SEYMOUR, PH.D.
AUGUSTUS H. SHEARER, PH.D. DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D.
ASSOCIATE EDITORS

WITH A LARGE NUMBER OF TEXT ILLUSTRATIONS, MAPS AND CHARTS

MANY OF THEM FULL-PAGE INSERTS IN DUOTONE, AND FRONTISPIECES IN COLOR; ALSO NUMEROUS DOUBLE AND SINGLE-PAGE HISTORICAL AND OTHER MAPS IN COLOR, FROM ORIGINAL STUDIES AND DRAWINGS

IN 12 VOLUMES

VOL. VI. — INVE TO LYKI

SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS
C. A. NICHOLS PUBLISHING COMPANY
BUSINESS FOUNDED 1851

Copyright, 1894, 1901, 1910,
By J. N. LARNED

Copyright, 1913,
By S. J. LARNED
(Above copyrights have been assigned to the publishers.)

Copyright, 1923,
By C. A. NICHOLS PUBLISHING COMPANY

All rights reserved

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

LIST OF MAPS IN VOLUME VI

1. IRELAND FROM 1172 TO 1923 . . . . . See IRELAND: 1691

2. IRELAND (colored) . . . . . See IRELAND

[EDITOR'S NOTE: Map of modern Ireland, showing the historic provinces of Ulster, Leinster, Munster, Connaught, and Meath (later included in Leinster). The red line in Ulster incloses the region carried by the Unionists in the election of 1918.]

3. ITALY IN THE 7TH CENTURY, AND IN 1492 . . . . . See ITALY: 1492–1494

4. ITALY FROM 1815 TO 1859, AND IN 1861 . . . . . See ITALY: 1859–1861

5. UNIFICATION OF ITALY, 1859–1919 (colored) . . . . . See ITALY

6. RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR . . . . . See JAPAN: 1902–1905

7. JAPAN (colored) . . . . . See JAPAN

[EDITOR'S NOTE: This is not a map of the entire Japanese empire—for which the reader is referred to the map of Asia—but shows the principal islands, or Japan proper, and the neighboring possessions on the mainland, such as Chosen, formerly Korea. The red line inclosing southern Manchuria indicates roughly the territory within the Japanese sphere of influence, while the area on the Laotung peninsula colored green shows the former Russian lease around Port Arthur.]

8. COMMUNICATIONS AND COMMERCIAL LANGUAGES OF AMERICA (colored) See LATIN AMERICA

9. SOUTH AMERICA (colored) . . . . . See LATIN AMERICA

ILLUSTRATIONS IN VOLUME VI

COLORED FRONTISPIECE

JERUSALEM FROM THE MOUNT OF OLIVES

INSERTS IN DUOTONE

NOTED INVENTORS . . . . . *See* Inventions
MEETING OF DAIL EIREANN, 1921 . . . . . *See* Ireland
FAMOUS ITALIAN WRITERS . . . . . *See* Italian Literature
MEETING OF VICTOR EMMANUEL AND GARIBALDI AT CAIANELLO, Oct. 26, 1860 . . . . . *See* Italy
WARRIORS OF OLD JAPAN . . . . . *See* Japan
RETREAT OF THE RUSSIANS AFTER THE BATTLE OF MUKDEN . . . . . *See* Japan
CHRIST BEFORE PILATE . . . . . *See* Jesus Christ
THE JEWS BEING CARRIED INTO BABYLONIAN CAPTIVITY . . . . . *See* Jews
LATIN WRITERS . . . . . *See* Latin Literature

TEXT CUTS

CHINESE WATER CLOCK . . *See* Inventions: Ancient and Medieval: Measurements: Time and Space
IMPROVED GREEK CLEPSYDRA . . *See* Inventions: Ancient and Medieval: Measurements: Time and Space
ANTIQUE WATER CLOCK . . *See* Inventions: Ancient and Medieval: Measurements: Time and Space
EARLY EGYPTIAN IMPLEMENTS . . . *See* Inventions: Ancient and Medieval: Early Industrial Processes
ANCIENT EGYPTIAN LOOM . . . . *See* Inventions: Ancient and Medieval: Early Industrial Processes
EARLY TYPES OF LAMPS . . . . . *See* Inventions: Ancient and Medieval: Artificial Light
HARGREAVES' SPINNING JENNY . . . . . *See* Inventions: 18th Century: Industry
WHITNEY'S COTTON GIN . . . . . *See* Inventions: 18th Century: Industry
CRISTOFORI'S PIANO, 1720 . . . . . *See* Inventions: 18th Century: Piano
SIEMENS REGENERATIVE PUDDLING FURNACE . . . . . *See* Inventions: 19th Century: Industry
GIANT FURNACES, MANCHESTER, ENGLAND . . . . . *See* Inventions: 19th Century: Industry
OVERSHOT WATER WHEEL OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY . . . . *See* Inventions: 19th Century: Power
FIRST HOWE SEWING MACHINE. . . . . *See* Inventions: 19th Century: Sewing Machine
MCCORMICK REAPER, 1845 . . . . . *See* Inventions: 19th Century: Reaper
CROSS OF KELLS . . . . . *See* Ireland: 5th–9th Centuries
BRIAN BORU ON THE PLAIN OF CLONTARF . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1014
MUCKROSS ABBEY. . . . . *See* Ireland: 12th–14th Centuries
BLARNEY CASTLE . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1413–1467
GRIANON OF AILEACH . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1559–1603
BATTLE OF THE BOYNE . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1689
IRISH PARLIAMENT OF 1790, CALLED "GRATTAN'S PARLIAMENT" . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1793–1798
HENRY GRATTAN, DANIEL O'CONNELL, AND ROBERT EMMET . . . . . *See* Ireland; 1811–1829
CHARLES STEWART PARNELL . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1873–1879
SIR HORACE PLUNKETT . . . . . *See* Ireland: 20th Century
ARTHUR GRIFFITH. . . . . *See* Ireland: 1905–1916

ILLUSTRATIONS IN VOLUME VI

JOHN EDWARD REDMOND . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1898 (March 6)
EDWARD DE VALERA . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1921
MICHAEL COLLINS . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1922
TIMOTHY MICHAEL HEALY . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1922
WILLIAM COSGRAVE . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1922
FOUR COURTS, DUBLIN . . . . . *See* Ireland: 1922–1923
VINCENZO GIOBERTI . . . . . *See* Italian Literature: 1827–1872
FREDERICK II HOLDING COURT AT PALERMO . . . . . *See* Italy: 1183–1250
SICILIAN VESPERS . . . . . *See* Italy (Southern): 1282–1300
NICCOLO MACHIAVELLI . . . . . *See* Italy: 1494–1527
GONZALO DE CORDOVA . . . . . *See* Italy: 1501–1504
GIUSEPPE MAZZINI . . . . . *See* Italy: 1831–1848
POPE PIUS IX . . . . . *See* Italy: 1831–1848
COUNT CAVOUR . . . . . *See* Italy: 1856–1859
GIUSEPPE GARIBALDI . . . . . *See* Italy: 1859–1861
VICTOR EMMANUEL II . . . . . *See* Italy: 1862–1866
GENEALOGY OF HOUSE OF SAVOY . . . . . *See* Italy: 1862–1866
FRANCESCO CRISPI . . . . . *See* Italy: 1870–1871
GIOVANNI GIOLITTI . . . . . *See* Italy: 1909–1911
BENITO MUSSOLINI . . . . . *See* Italy: 1922
JIMMU TENNO . . . . . *See* Japan: B.C. 7th–A.D. 5th Centuries
MILITARY OFFICIAL IN COURT DRESS . . . . . *See* Japan: 550–708
MICHIZANE . . . . . *See* Japan: 833–1050
KIYOMORI . . . . . *See* Japan: 1159–1199
MINAMOTO YORITOMO . . . . . *See* Japan: 1159–1199
SAINT FRANCIS XAVIER . . . . . *See* Japan: 1542–1593
TOYOTOMI HIDEYOSHI . . . . . *See* Japan: 1549–1605
IYEYASU TOKUGAWA . . . . . *See* Japan: 1549–1605
SOLDIERS OF THE TOKUGAWA PERIOD . . . . . *See* Japan: 1641–1853
COMMODORE PERRY . . . . . *See* Japan: 1797–1854
TOWNSEND HARRIS . . . . . *See* Japan: 1857–1862
PRINCE KEIKI TOKUGAWA . . . . . *See* Japan: 1863–1868
EMPEROR MUTSUHITO . . . . . *See* Japan: 1868–1894
PRINCE ITO . . . . . *See* Japan: 1868–1894
PRINCE YAMAGATA . . . . . *See* Japan: 1894–1912
MARQUIS SAIONJI . . . . . *See* Japan: 1894–1912
GENERAL NOZU, ADMIRAL TOGO, AND GENERAL OKU . . . . . *See* Japan: 1902–1905
COUNT NOGI, MARQUIS OYAMA, AND GENERAL KUROKI . . . . . *See* Japan: 1902–1905
COUNT OKUMA . . . . . *See* Japan: 1905–1922
MALE COURT DANCER . . . . . *See* Japan: 1918–1921
BARON KOMURA, TAKASHI HARA AND PRINCE KATSURA . . . . . *See* Japan: 1918–1921
SCULPTURED WALL OF THE BOROBUDUR TEMPLE, JAVA . . . . . *See* Java
FOUNDING OF THE SOCIETY OF JESUS . . . . . *See* Jesuits: 1540–1556
LOYOLA . . . . . *See* Jesuits: 1540–1556
CLEMENT XIV . . . . . *See* Jesuits: 1769–1871
HOLY OF THE HOLIES OF THE TEMPLE OF JERUSALEM . . . . . *See* Jews: Religion and the Prophets
PLAN OF THE TEMPLE OF SOLOMON . . . . . *See* Jews: Religion and the Prophets
MOSES . . . . . *See* Jews: Early Hebrew History
PENTATEUCH ROLL . . . . . *See* Jews: Exodus
SEDER, OR FEAST OF THE PASSOVER . . . . . *See* Jews: 18th–19th Centuries

German Jew of the Early 16th Century . . . . . *See* Jews: Germany
The Great Synagogue at Warsaw, Poland . . . . . *See* Jews: Poland
Baron Maurice de Hirsch . . . . . *See* Jews: Zionism
Moses Mendelssohn . . . . . *See* Jews: Language and Literature
Solomon J. Rabinowitz . . . . . *See* Jews: Language and Literature
Nikola Pashitch . . . . . *See* Jugo-Slavia: 1920–1921
Alexander I . . . . . *See* Jugo-Slavia: 1921
Daniel Boone Leading Colonists for Kentucky, 1773 . . . . . *See* Kentucky: 1765–1778
Korean Types . . . . . *See* Korea
Image of a War God . . . . . *See* Korea
Prehistoric Lake Dwelling . . . . . *See* Lake Dwellings
Restoration of the Library at Louvain . . . . . *See* Libraries: Modern: Belgium
Reading Room of the British Museum . . . . . *See* Libraries: Modern: England
Corridor of the Vatican Library . . . . . *See* Libraries: Modern: Italy
Library of Congress, Washington . . . . . *See* Libraries: Modern: United States
One of the Main Reading Rooms of the New York Public Library *See* Libraries: Modern: United States
Aerial View of London . . . . . *See* London
Contemporary Plan of London of 1570 . . . . . *See* London: 1666
Evolution of Longbow and Crossbow . . . . . *See* Longbow
Genealogy of Later House of Lorraine . . . . . *See* Lorraine
The Louvre Museum . . . . . *See* Louvre

THE NEW LARNED HISTORY

FOR READY REFERENCE, READING AND RESEARCH

VOLUME VI

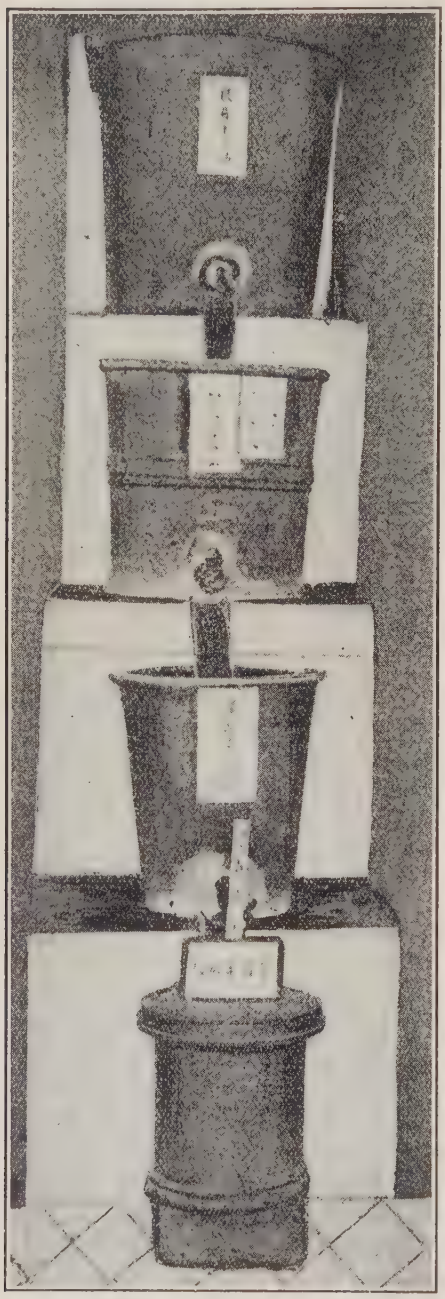
INVENTIONS

ANCIENT AND MEDIEVAL

Introduction.—"Man is sometimes distinguished as a tool-using animal. . . . [His] superiority as a tool-user . . . ultimately secured his position over the beasts of the world and enabled him to construct our material civilization. . . . His first tool might have been a stone. . . . A peaceful use of stones as agricultural tools may or may not have preceded their use as weapons. . . . Later some man may have broken a stone by throwing it against a rock, hoping to find among the pieces one suited to his needs [for digging, etc.]. In some such way there developed the idea of using tools and of forming them. Of course, it is only a small step from breaking the stone as just described and chipping off edges of the selected stone so as to form it more nearly to the desired shape. But this step may not have been taken for centuries. . . . Between the discovery of the method of conserving fire and its production by a simple machine many thousands of years must have intervened. A primitive method is that of rubbing a sharp stick back and forth in a groove cut in a block of wood. . . . This simple device is not, however, a machine. It is merely a special tool for rubbing and a block to be rubbed. When primitive man arranged a combination where the rubbing tool was actuated by another part of the device, which part in turn was controlled by the operator, then he had a machine. . . . [This] is of course a development of an earlier form . . . where a pointed stick or drill is twisted by the operator's hands. . . . From this primitive design we can obtain a concept of a machine as a device in which a motion communicated to one part results in a different motion of a second part."—J. Mills, *Realities of modern science, pp.* 1, 4-8.—"Probably one of the most important steps ever taken by primitive man in his unconscious efforts to escape from savagery was the discovery of the wheel. The fact that rolling produced less friction than sliding was but dimly recognised: the mechanical principle involved was perhaps but vaguely distinguished, . . . [but the fact must soon have been grasped] that here was a contrivance that would facilitate locomotion and increase man's power over his surroundings. . . . This fortunate discoverer, together with him who first produced fire, were the forerunners of the engineers and manufacturers, the scientific discoverers and inventors of to-day. The wheel made it easy to move huge weights and to cover great distances, and when it was applied to spinning it transferred part of the burden of providing clothing from the animal to the vegetable kingdom. Rude skins gave place to finely woven fabrics, and the tiller of the soil vied with the hunter and the shepherd in covering man's nakedness. At first the wheel was driven by manual toil or by the use of beasts, but when, after many centuries, wind and water were used, man saw opening up a wider vista which promised speed of production and more leisure to him who could harness the natural elements to his service. Was there joy when the first wheel turned in the wind, or a mad clapping of hands when one of these rough contrivances first creaked beneath the force of a mountain stream?—We shall never know. [The time is too far back to permit of anything beyond imagination upon the subject.]"—E. Cressy, *Discoveries and inventions of the twentieth century, pp.* 1-2.

Measurements: Time and space.—"The measurement of small portions of *time* was a very practical problem from the beginning. The first attempt to solve the problem consisted in observing shadows cast by the sun. The changing shadow of the human form was doubtless the first clock. . . . Observations of this kind led to the shadow clock or sun-dial. . . . Sun-dials have been used from the beginning of time and they have not yet passed out of use. They may still be seen in a few public places, but they are retained rather as curiosities than as real timekeepers. For the sun-dial is not a good timekeeper for three reasons: (1) it will not tell the time at night; (2) it fails in the daytime when the sun is not shining; (3) it can never be used inside of a house. The sun-dial can hardly be called an invention; it is rather an observation. There were, however, inventions for measuring time in the earliest period of man's history. Among the oldest of these was the fire-clock, which measured time by the burning away of a stick or a candle. The Pacific islanders still use a clock of this kind. 'On the midrib of the long palm-leaf they skewer a number of the oily nuts of a candle-nut-tree and light the upper one.' As the nuts burn off, one after another, they mark the passage of equal portions of time. . . . Fire-clocks of one kind or another have been used among primitive people in nearly all parts of the globe, and their use has continued far into civilized times. Alfred the Great (900) is said to have measured time in the following way: 'He procured as much wax as weighed seventy-two pennyweights, which he commanded to be made into six candles, each twelve inches in length with the divisions of inches distinctly marked upon it. These being lighted one after another, regularly burnt four hours each, at the rate of an inch for every twenty minutes. Thus the six candles lasted twenty-four hours.' . . . If we could step on board a Malay proa we should see floating in a bucket of water

a cocoanut shell having a small perforation through which the water by slow degrees finds its way into the interior. This orifice is so perforated that the shell will fill and sink in an hour, when the man on watch calls the time and sets it to



© Brown and Dawson, Stamford, Conn.

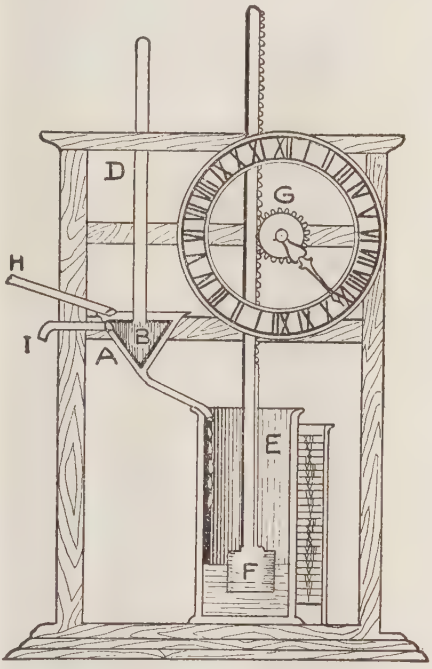
CHINESE WATER CLOCK

(Built over 1300 years ago)

float again. This sinking cocoanut shell, the first form of the water-clock, is the clock from which has been developed the timepiece of to-day. With it, therefore, the story of the clock really begins. In Northern India the cocoanut shell is replaced by a copper bowl. At the moment the sinking occurs the attendant announces the hour by striking upon the bowl. The second step in the development of the water-clock was made in China several thousand years ago. In the earlier Chinese clock the water, instead of finding its way into the vessel from the outside, was placed inside and allowed to trickle out through a hole in the bottom and fall into a vessel below. In the lower vessel was a float which rose with the water. To the float was attached an indicator which pointed out the hours as the water rose. By this arrangement, when the upper vessel was full, the water, by reason of greater pressure, ran out faster at first than at any other time. The indicator, therefore, at first rose faster than it ought, and after a while did not rise as fast as it ought to. After centuries of experience with the two-vessel arrangement, a third vessel was [placed above so that] . . . as fast as water flowed from the middle vessel it was replaced by a stream flowing from the one above it . . . and the water flowed into the lowest vessel at a uniform rate. Finally a fourth vessel was brought into use. The Chinese water-clock has been running in the city of Canton for . . . six hundred years. Every afternoon at five, since 1321, the lowest jar has been emptied into the uppermost one and the clock thus wound up for another day. To follow the further development of the water-clock we must pass from China to Greece. In their early history the Greeks had nothing better than the sun-dial with which to measure time. About the middle of the fifth century B.C. there arose at Athens a need for a better timepiece [for use in the public assembly and in the courts of law]. . . . The sun-dial would not answer, for the sun did not always shine, even in sunny Greece; so the idea of the water-clock was borrowed. A certain amount of water was placed in an amphora (urn), in the bottom of which was a small hole through which the water might slowly flow. When the amphora was empty the speaker had to stop talking. The Greeks called the water-clock a *clepsydra,* which means 'the water steals away.' The orator whose time was limited by a certain amount of water would keep his eye on the clepsydra, just as a speaker in our time keeps his eye on the clock. . . . At first the Greeks used a simple form of the clepsydra, but they gradually adopted the improvements made by the Chinese, and finally added others. The great Plato is said to have turned his attention to commonplace things long enough to invent a clepsydra that would announce the hour by playing the flute. However this may have been, there was in use in the Greek world, about 300 B.C., a clepsydra something like . . . a clock. As the water drops into the cylinder *E* the float *F* rises and turns *G,* which carries the hour hand around. Inside of the funnel *A* is a cone *B* which can be raised or lowered by the bar *D.* In this way the dropping of the water is regulated. Water runs to the funnel through *H,* and when the funnel is full the superfluous water runs off through the pipe *I,* and thus the depth of the water in the funnel remains the same and the pressure does not change. . . . When the hand in this old clock has indicated twelve hours it begins to count over again, just as it does on our clocks to-day. . . . If we pass from Greece to Rome, . . . we find that the Romans were slow to introduce new methods of timekeeping. The first public sun-dial in Rome was constructed about 200 B.C. . . . The water-clock was brought into Rome a little later than the sun-dial, and was used as a time-check upon speakers in

the law courts, just as it had been in Athens. When the Romans first began to use the clepsydra it was already a very good clock. Whether it received any great improvements at their hands is not certain. Improvements must have been made somewhere, for early in the Middle Ages we find clepsydras in forms more highly developed than they were in ancient times. In the ninth century the Emperor Charlemagne received as gift from the King of Persia a most interesting timepiece which was worked by water. 'The dial was composed of twelve small doors which represented the divisions of the hours; each door opened at the hour it was intended to represent, and out of it came the same number of little balls, which fell, one by one at equal distances of time, on a brass drum. It might be told by the eye what hour it was by the number of doors that were open; and by the ear by the number of balls that fell. When it was twelve o'clock, twelve horsemen in miniature issued forth at the same time, and, marching round the dial, shut all the doors.' Less wonderful than the clock of the emperor, but more useful, as an object of study, is the medieval clepsydra. This looks more than ever like the clock we are accustomed to see. It has weights as well as wheels. As the float rises with the water it allows the weight to descend and turns the spindle on the end of which is the hand which marks the hours. This is partly a water-clock and partly a weight-clock. The weight in its descent turns the spindle; the water regulates the rate at which the weight may descend.

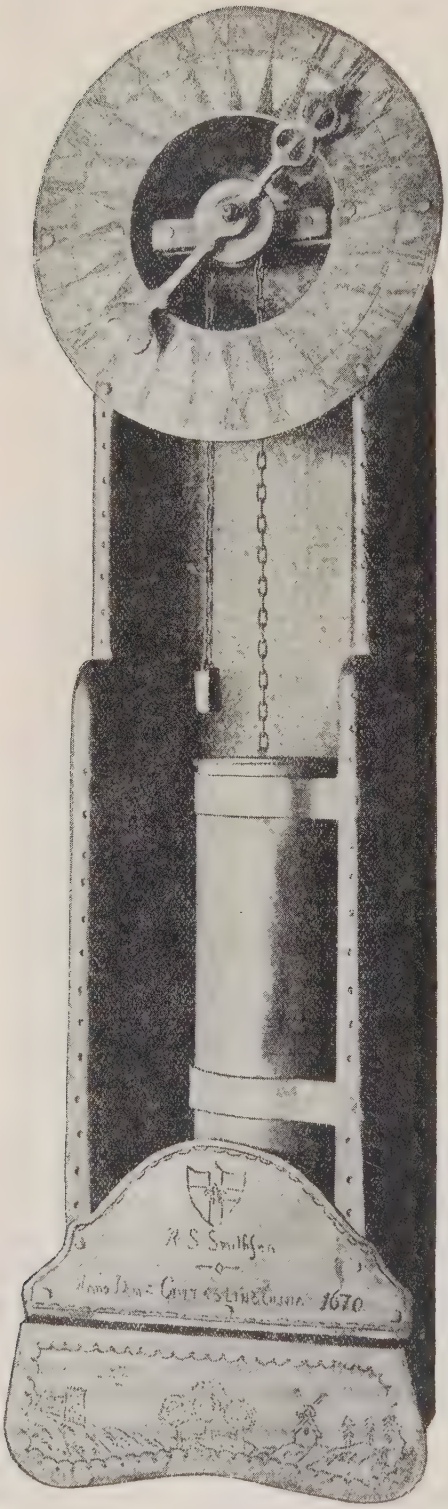
"The water-clock just described led easily and directly to the weight-clock. Clockmakers in the Middle Ages for centuries tried with more or less success to make clocks that would run by means of weights. In 1370, Henry De Vick, a German, succeeded in solving the problem. De Vick was brought to Paris to make a clock for the tower of the king's palace, and he made one that has become famous. In a somewhat improved form it can still be seen in Paris in the Palais de Justice. Let us remove the face of this celebrated timepiece and take a look at its works. It had a striking part, and a timekeeping part, each distinct from the other. . . . The weight, of 500 pounds, is wound up by a crank (the key). [There is also an] . . . hour hand. [If the weight] is allowed to descend, it is easily seen how the whole system of wheels will be moved—and that very rapidly. But if something does not prevent, . . . [the weight] will descend faster and faster, the hour-hand will run faster and faster and the clock will run down at once. If the clock is to run at a uniform rate and for any length of time, the power of the weight must escape gradually. In the clepsydra the descent of the weight was controlled by the size of the stream of flowing water. De Vick invented a substitute for the stream of flowing water. . . . Fixed to the upper part of the [post] . . . is a beam or balance, at the ends of which are two small weights, and projecting from the posts in different directions are two pallets or lips. Now, as the top of the wheel turns toward you, one of its teeth catches the pallet and turns the post a part of the way round toward you. Just as the tooth escapes a tooth at the bottom of . . . [the wheel] (moving from you) catches the pallet and checks the revolving post and turns it from you. Thus as [the wheel] . . . turns, it gives a to-and-fro motion to the post and, consequently, a to-and-fro motion to the balance. . . . [The wheel] is called the *escapement* because the power of the descending weight gradually *escapes* from its teeth. In the clepsydra the trickling of *water* regulated the descent of the weight; in De Vick's clock the trickling of power or force from the escapement regulated the descent of the weight. The invention of this escapement is the greatest event in the history of the clock. De Vick's invention led rapidly to the excellent timepieces of today, to both our watches and our clocks. After the appearance of the weight-clock, the water-clock gradually fell into disuse, and all the ingenuity of the clockmaker was bestowed upon weights and wheels and escapements and balances. A century of experimenting resulted in a clock without a weight. In this timekeeper is recognized the beginnings of the modern watch. The uncoiling of a spring drove the machinery. Instead of the balancing beam with its weights as in De Vick's clock, a *balance wheel* is used. The escapement is the same as in the first weight-clock. The busy and delicately-hung little balance wheel



IMPROVED GREEK CLEPSYDRA

in your watch is a growth from De Vick's clumsy balance beam. The spring-clock would run in any position. Because it could be carried about it led almost at once to the watch. Many places claim the distinction of having made the first watch, but seems that the honor belongs to the city of Nuremberg. 'Nuremberg eggs,' as the first portable clocks were called were made as early as 1470. The first watches were large, uncouth affairs, resembling small table clocks but by the end of the sixteenth century small watches with works of brass and cases of gold or silver were manufactured."—S. E. Forman, *Stories of useful inventions, pp.* 188-200.

For *space* measurement, "the oldest known standard of length, the cubit, was the distance between the point of a man's elbow and the tip of his middle finger. In Egypt the ordinary cubit was 18.24 inches, and the royal cubit, 20.67 inches. A royal cubit in hard wood, perfectly preserved, was discovered among the ruins of Memphis early in the nineteenth century. It bears the date of the

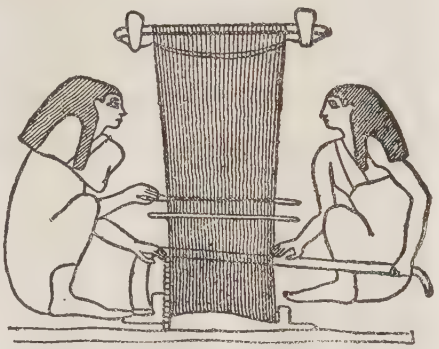


AN ANTIQUE WATER CLOCK

reign of Horus, who is believed to have become King of Egypt about 1657 B. C. The Greeks adopted a foot, equal to two-thirds of the ordinary Egyptian cubit, as their standard of length. This measure, 12.16 inches, was introduced into Italy, where it was divided into twelfths or inches according to the Roman duodecimal system, thence to find its way throughout Europe. Units equally important with the cubit were from of old derived from the finger and the fingers joined. The breadth of the forefinger at the middle part of its first joint became the *digit;* four digits were taken as a *palm,* or hand-breadth, used to this day in measuring horses. Another ancient unit, not yet obsolete, the *pace,* is forty digits; while the *fathom,* still employed, is ninety-six digits, as spaced by the extended arms from the finger tips. The cubit is twenty-four digits, and the foot is sixteen digits. Thus centuries ago were laid the foundations of the measurement of space as an art. A definite part of the human body was adopted as a standard of length, and copied on rods of wood and slabs of stone. Divisors and multiples, in whole numbers, were derived from that standard for convenience in measuring lines comparatively long or short."—G. Iles, *Inventors at work, pp.* 209-210.

Early industrial processes: Weaving.—Making of copper, bronze, zinc and brass, glass, iron and steel, rope, pottery, paper.—"The earliest practical weaver on record is the spider and it may be that man learned his first lesson in weaving from this skilled workman; or the beautiful nest of the weaver-bird may have given to human beings the first hints in the weaving art. Whoever may have been his teacher, it is certain that man learned how to weave in the earliest stages of existence. It is thought that his first effort in this direction consisted in making cages for animals and weirs (traps) for catching fish by interlacing vines or canes or slender boughs. The next step was taken when women began to make baskets and cradles and mats by interlacing long slender strips of wood. Basket weaving led to cloth weaving, and this led to the loom. The simplest and oldest form of the loom consisted of a single stick (yarn beam) of wood about four feet long, . . . just a straight stick of wood and nothing more. From the stick the threads which run lengthwise in the cloth were suspended. These threads are known as the *warp.* The threads which run breadthwise in the cloth are known as the *weft* or *woof.*"—S. E. Forman, *Stories of useful inventions, pp.* 110, 112.—"The greatest step that was ever made in advance in the whole art of . . . spinning was when some untutored savage invented twist, or thought of what to us is the very elementary idea of twisting two or more fibres or filaments together. . . . With so much accomplished we have the whole basis of spinning. . . . This is modern spinning, which differs from the primitive system only by this fact of continuous twisting of fibres round each other."—J. Nasmith, *Students' cotton spinning, pp.* 6-7.—The next invention of importance was the spindle and distaff, which enabled one person to do the work of twisting. The spindle, at first probably a simple cleft stick, was used by placing in the cleft some of the fibre which was twirled with one hand to make the twist, while more fibre was added as required from the material held in the other hand. When the loosely hanging spindle reached the ground, the yarn was wound upon it, and the process repeated. The distaff was a short staff, shaped to hold the material to be spun. These primitive implements were used to spin unbelievably fine yarn such as that used to

weave the gossamer fabrics made by the Indian people. The invention of spinning not only gave better material for weaving, but the spindle on which the yarn was wound provided an easier means of carrying the thread across. "There is no evidence to show that the 'fine linen' of Egypt or the famous textiles of Greece and Rome were woven in a less simple manner. Frames of various sizes for stretching the warp upon were certainly used, and the warps often consisted of a great number of fine threads. Rollers also were added to the loom, enabling the weaver to make long lengths of cloth, but the actual methods of weaving appear to have been as stated. There is, in use amongst some primitive tribes of to-day, a contrivance for bringing forward the back threads of the warp all together or in sections, instead of picking them up separately on the fingers as above described. This is sometimes called a headle-rod. It is a rather obvious improvement, and, where the threads are very fine and numerous, would save a great deal of time. It may have been used in ancient Egypt and Greece, but there is no evidence to prove it. This appliance is a strong rod, a little longer than the warp is wide. It is suspended in front of the loom a little below the cross-rods. Each back thread of the warp is enclosed by a loop which passes between the front threads and is fastened to the rod. . . . When this appliance is fitted to a loom the first opening is made by means of the shed-stick as already described. The second opening is made by the weaver giving the headle-rod a vigorous pull forward, and into the opening thus made the flat shed-stick is carefully thrust. When quite through the warp it is turned edgeways, and effectually clears the opening for the passing of the weft. It is impossible to say how early in the history of weaving two most important steps in its development were made. These steps were (1) placing the warp horizontally; (2) arranging an automatic motion by which both the necessary openings or sheds can be made with equal speed and certainty. There is little doubt that it was in China that these improvements were first made. From that country they spread to India and the East generally. There are in existence very ancient representations of Chinese and Indian horizontal looms with such automatic arrangements. Moreover, the fine silk webs of China and India, so much valued in ancient Greece and Rome, could hardly have been made in the simple manner described above. . . . It is impossible to say at what period the important improvement in the apparatus of the loom was made, which consists in lengthening the short, heavy, independent comb, by which the weft had hitherto been beaten together, and attaching it to the loom itself, enclosed in a heavy swinging frame. . . . It led, however, to a great advance in the weaving process, when the idea occurred of hanging the long comb loose in the loom, in order that it might be used, not only for keeping the warp threads evenly distributed, but also for beating the weft together."—L. Hooper, *Hand-loom weaving, pp.* 85-87, 95.—"With the discovery of metals, and notably the application of copper and its alloys in Neolithic times, we have one of the great turning points, if not the greatest, in the history of human development, the first-birth of the germs of that civilisation and culture to which we have attained at the present day. . . . The order in which the metals were discovered was not the same for every region, as their ores are very capriciously distributed in the world, and it is extremely probable, if not absolutely certain, that the metals which occur native, *i.e.*, those which occur as metals in nature, must have been first known to the men inhabiting the localities in which they occurred. . . . Copper . . . we only find in use to a very limited extent, as it was not well suited for the construction of weapons or useful implements. On the other hand, its alloy with tin afforded a metal [bronze] which in many physical properties could only be surpassed by iron or steel. According to the views of several ancient writers, Lucretius and Poseidonius, so momentous a discovery as that of metals contained in ores must needs have been brought about by . . . [a conflagration which consumed the] forests which covered the outcrop of metalliferous veins, reducing the metals and bringing them to the notice of man, but there are no grounds for such inference. The discovery of metals other than 'native' had no such poetic origin. . . . [It] had its origin in the domestic fires of the Neolithic age. The extraction of the common metals from their ores does not require the elaborate furnaces and complicated processes of our own days, as pieces of ore, either copper carbonate or oxide, cassiterite, cerusite, or mixtures of these, and even iron oxides which by

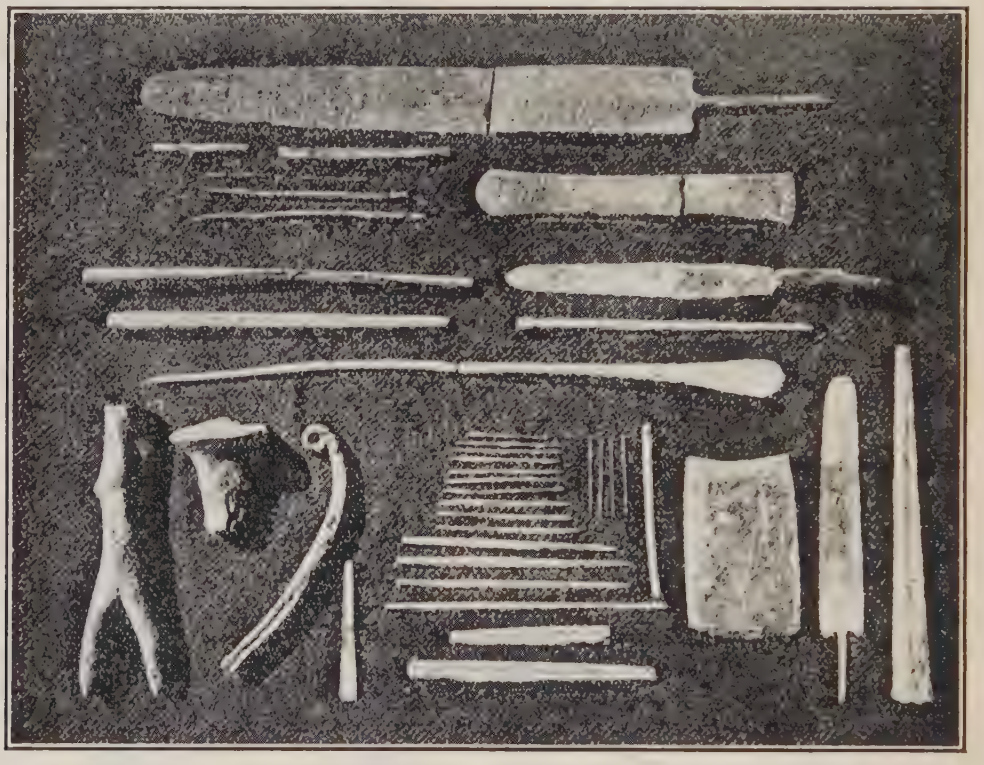


ANCIENT EGYPTIAN LOOM

chance formed part of the ring of stones enclosing the domestic fire, and became accidentally embedded in its embers, would become reduced to metal. The camp fire was, in fact, the first metallurgical furnace, and from it, by successive modifications, the huge furnaces of the present day have been gradually evolved. . . . In Japan the furnace for smelting copper, tin, and lead ores, a mere hole in the ground, which was in universal use there up to 1858, and is still extensively employed, is as simple and rude as that of the men of the Bronze age. [Such primitive furnaces were found in Derbyshire, England, in the seventeenth century.] The alloys of copper and tin during the early Metal age, and even somewhat later, were obtained not by melting together copper and metallic tin, but by the reduction of oxidised copper ores containing tin-stone, or of copper ores to which tin-stone was added. . . . The shape and structure of the lumps of copper which have been found in the founders' hoards of the Bronze age afford valuable evidence as to the size of the rude smelting furnaces, the method of smelting, and the manner in which the metal was removed from the hearth. . . . They show that the furnace was simply a small shallow hole or hearth scooped in the ground, about 10 or 12 in. in diameter. . . . A small charcoal fire was first made in the hearth, and when this was burning freely a layer of ore was spread over it, and upon this a layer of charcoal, then alternate layers of ore

and charcoal were added in sufficient quantity to yield a cake of copper. . . . [The earliest bronze alloys must have been accidentally made by the use of copper ores which contained cassiterite.] Even in the later period of the Bronze age, when the alloys were made by smelting the copper ore with cassiterite, alloys of definite composition can only have been accidentally obtained. Further, it is very questionable whether the metal tin was ever [intentionally] employed in making the alloys until the Iron age was well advanced, as this metal has never been found in the founders' hoards. . . . A curious feature of the alloys of which the early weapons were made in Hungary is the presence of antimony as an important constituent instead of tin. This doubtless arose from the alloys having been prepared by smelting the antimonial copper ores which occur in that country. Axes made of these alloys would be fairly serviceable on account of the hardness produced by antimony in copper. We hence find them in use, with antimony largely replacing tin, until late in the Bronze age. The difficulties the earliest men had to contend with were extremely great, for it is self-evident that alloys of definite composition could not be ensured by the early practice of smelting mixtures of ores. It would seem, therefore, that when we find weapons or implements of suitable composition for their intended use, some physical tests must have been applied to the furnace product before it had been used for their manufacture. . . .

"Practically all copper celts were cast in open moulds. . . . The remains of . . . [the] appliances which have been found show clearly that the metal from the smelting operation was remelted in crucibles and poured from them into moulds of clay or stone. . . . Implements and weapons of bronze, unlike those of copper, were always cast in closed moulds. . . . In casting swords and daggers of bronze the moulds must have been of clay and been heated to dull redness at the time when the metal was poured in—a method of casting which is still practised in Japan—as by no other means could such perfect castings of their thin blades have been obtained. The castings generally were hammered at the cutting edges, and it is to this hammering, and to it only, that the hardness of the cutting edges of both copper and bronze weapons is due, and not to any method of tempering. . . . Ordinary bronze of to-day can be made as hard as any, in fact, harder than most, of prehistoric times, by simple hammering alone."—*Copper and its alloys in early times* (*Nature, Mar.* 28, 1912).—"A rod of metal found by Dr. Flinders Petrie at Meydum, and estimated to belong to a period about 3700 B.C., was found to contain 89.8 per cent. of copper and 9.1 per cent. of tin, together with small quantities of impurities. . . . It is curious that the proportion of tin to copper is very nearly the same as that of modern bronze. Some battle-axes and other objects from the deposits, which Schliemann dated at about 1200 B.C., and which he identified with Troy, were found to consist of copper and tin, the tin varying from 3.8 to 8.6 per cent.; whereas the objects found in the earlier deposits were of copper. The oldest relic which can be dated with any accuracy is a sceptre of Pepi I. (6th dynasty), which is almost pure copper. All the available evidence seems to prove that a copper age preceded the bronze age. . . .



EARLY EGYPTIAN IMPLEMENTS
(Copper knives, needles, borers, and other tools)

Bronzes have been found in Egypt dating from very early times. In Greece bronzes were very rare in Homeric times (900 B.C.), and the Greek and Trojan heroes (1194-1184) used copper for their armour, swords, knives, and spear-heads. . . . The presence of zinc in bronze was also probably the result of accident, due to the introduction of zinc ore into the furnace charge. An Etruscan bronze, dated the fifth century B.C., was found to contain 0.73 per cent. of zinc. Early Japanese bronzes have also been found to contain appreciable quantities of zinc as well as lead."—E. F. Law, *Alloys and their industrial applications, pp.* 105-107.—"Among the earliest specimens of the metal which have been found in Greece are some copper nails which were obtained by Dr. Schliemann at Orchomenos, a city in Bœotia, which was in a state of decay in the time of Homer. They belong to that remote period in Mediterranean civilisation to which the name Mycenæan has been applied. . . . There is abundant evidence to show that Egypt was the first in the field in artistic bronze casting. When it first began it is difficult to say, but objects of at least as early as 3000 B.C. are in existence. Even in the early examples great technical skill is displayed. The most ancient Greek bronzes are solid castings, whereas in Egypt they are light and hollow. . . . Bronze was in extensive use in Nineveh about 1000 B.C. for vessels and utensils of many kinds, and curiously was sometimes employed for those which we should now make of more precious metals. The Greek copper alloys of a later period, many examples of which are found in the coins of about the fourth century B.C., are true bronzes consisting of copper and tin, with lead or zinc only as impurities and not intentionally added. A curious feature in them is the presence of nickel varying from traces up to 0.5 per cent. . . . The Macedonian alloys more particularly are the best of the ancient bronzes. . . . [The] siege of Corinth, . . . occurred in 146 B.C. but the excellence of Corinthian bronze had been recognised long before. . . .

"With the fall of Greece and the rise of the supremacy of Rome we enter an important period in the history of copper and its alloys. In Spain and in Britain we find copper-smelting being vigorously carried on by the Romans, and in Rome and the chief seats of the empire a further extension of the use of bronze, not only for statues and other objects of arts, but for vessels of all kinds, furniture, and other articles of domestic life. . . . According to Pliny, . . . the copper obtained by smelting was brittle and useless, and in order to obtain malleable metal from it, it was mixed with lead and melted several times, and the oftener the operation was repeated the better was the quality of the copper. . . . The earliest Roman alloys which have come down to us are copper, lead, tin, alloys of the fifth century B.C. Their chief peculiarity is their very large content of lead, namely, from about 19 to 25 per cent., the tin being about 7 per cent. They were worthless for practical purposes, but formed the alloy of which the large coin of the republic—which weighed from 8 to 11 ozs.—the 'As,' was cast. . . . The copper-tin-lead bronzes appear also to have been used by the Romans for engineering and industrial purposes. An interesting example of this use is afforded by the broken shaft of a water-wheel which was found in the lower Roman workings of the north lode of the Rio Tinto mine. The water-wheel was probably built in the first century of our era, as coins of the time of Vespasian (70 to 81 A.D.) were found near it. The bronze used for statues by the Romans also always contains lead in considerable proportions, as much as 6 to 12 per cent. being often present. In this they were doubtless influenced by Greek practice, the lead being added to the bronze to increase its fusibility and more especially its fluidity when molten. . . . Zinc as a distinct metal was unknown in early times; in fact, as late as the sixteenth century it was not known in Europe; but there are strong reasons for the belief that the Chinese were acquainted with it as metal at least several centuries earlier. . . . In Greek alloys zinc is never found as an intentional addition, but only as an impurity, about 1 to 2 per cent. or less. . . . In Roman times it first appears in the coins of the republic as an impurity; as an intentional addition, however, it only begins in the time of Augustus (20 B.C. to 14 A.D.), when brass was made for the first time in the world's history. One of the earliest examples is a coin of 20 B.C., which contains 17.31 per cent. of zinc. The Romans were the first makers of brass. Although they were unacquainted with the essential constituent zinc, yet they had discovered that by melting copper together with a certain ore (calamine), a yellow alloy of a more golden colour than bronze could be obtained. . . . The method employed by the Romans in making this alloy from copper and calamine was a very simple one. . . . The calamine was ground and mixed in suitable proportions with charcoal and copper in granules or small fragments. This mixture was placed in a crucible, and was very carefully heated for some time to a temperature sufficient to reduce the zinc in the ore to the metallic state, but not to melt the copper. The zinc being volatile, its vapour permeated the fragments of copper, converting them into brass. The temperature was then raised, when the brass melted, and was poured out of the crucible into moulds. This process was so effective that, until a comparatively recent period, all brass was made in Europe by the ancient process, and even until a few years before 1861 it was thus made at Pemberton's Works in Birmingham. . . . In the eleventh century great care was bestowed on the purification of the copper intended to be used in the manufacture of calamine brass for objects of art, more especially for the removal of lead, as it had been found that brass contaminated with that metal could not be satisfactorily gilt. . . . With the disappearance of the calamine brass, one of the last links in the chain connecting the modern metallurgy of copper and its alloys with antiquity is broken. . . . [However] it must not be overlooked that the principles on which copper-refining is based were carried out in practice in the time of Pliny."—*Copper and its alloys in early times* (*Nature, Mar.* 28, 1912).—See also EUROPE: Prehistoric period: Bronze Age; Iron Age; Stone Age.

ALSO IN: *Engineer, Jan.,* 1912.

"The origin of glass is lost in antiquity. Pliny, indeed, ascribes its discovery to certain Phœnician mariners who, being shipwrecked upon a sandy shore, used a block of the natron which formed their cargo to support a pot . . . [over their fire]. The heat fused the sand with the natron, and lo! the glass was discovered in the ashes. Since, however, Pliny's authority was Rumour, and since, also, such a phenomenon is a physical impossibility . . . it is possible that Rumour in Pliny's day had a no greater reputation for reliability than in the twentieth century. But the story, . . . [at least] serves to show at how early an age in the world's history glass was known. It is more

than probable that the place of its origin was Ancient Egypt. . . . At any rate articles of glass have been discovered in tombs of the fifth and sixth dynasties—some 3300 years before Christ. This, the earliest known glass, is generally opaque, and is chiefly used to form small articles of ornament, such as beads for necklaces, etc. . . . At a later date glass was extensively made in Alexandria, the sand in the vicinity being of exceptional purity and so, suitable for its manufacture. The city speedily became celebrated for the beauty of its output, and articles of Alexandrian glass were largely exported to Greece and to Rome, where also, in the space of a few years, glass-houses were established; and to Constantinople, which was, in time, to become famous for the manufacture of coloured glass and of the Mosaics so dear to the Oriental taste. The Greeks do not appear to have developed the art of glass-making at a very early age, but specimens of glass have been found in Grecian tombs, and, in the Golden Age of Ancient Greece, when art and literature reached their zenith under Pericles, glass was certainly employed for purposes of architectural decoration. In Rome, however, the art of glass manufacture found a congenial home and was developed to a high pitch of excellence."—J. S. Lewis, *Old glass and how to collect it, pp.* 1-3.—"In the early history of glass making . . . the first invention . . . recorded was that of the blowpipe, during the second or third century before Christ. This blowpipe was imported by the Egyptians from Asia Minor. At the time when the Romans conquered Egypt, they brought the blowpipe home with them as one of the trophies of war. From those early days to this time comparatively slow advancement was made in the process of glass making, with reference to blown glass in particular. An example of a bottle found in an Egyptian tomb and brought from Egypt by the late Wm. Franzen, of Milwaukee, was presented by his son to the author. This specimen clearly shows the same method of manufacture as do the bottles of early American factories up to 1840."—W. S. Walbridge, *American bottles, old and new, p.* 66.—"So widespread was . . . [the use of glass in Rome] that it is a truism to say that in Rome of two thousand years ago glass was employed for a greater number of purposes—domestic, architectural, and ornamental—than it is to-day, even though the glazing of windows was in its infancy and the use of the material for optical purposes was scarcely known. In effect, coloured and ornamental glass held much the same place in the Roman household that china and earthenware do among us to-day. Glass was used for pavements and for the external covering of walls. The Roman glass-workers were particularly happy in their combination of colours, both by fusing together threads of various colours, or by fusing masses, so as to imitate onyx, porphyry, serpentine, and other ornamental stones. . . . [It is believed by some that the famous Portland vase, now at the British Museum, is of Roman manufacture.] The art, thus brought to such perfection in Rome, naturally spread throughout Italy and the Roman colonies in France, Spain, Germany, and Britain. Probably workmen from the Italian cities also established the first furnaces among the lagoons of Venice, and so laid the foundation of what were to be the finest glass manufactories in the world. At the end of the thirteenth century a guild of glass-workers was formed. These sequestered their craft upon the island of Murano, and there cultivated it with an increasing skill that in a brief space made Venetian glass the marvel of the civilised world. . . . Meanwhile, other European nations had taken their cue from Venice, and glass-houses sprang up in various parts of the Continent, particularly in France and in Bohemia; the latter, indeed, speedily became the great rival of Venice. In England, . . . glass was made during the Roman occupation. Under the Saxons, glass-workers were imported from the Continent, but to judge from the number and variety of the specimens found in Anglo-Saxon tombs, it is probable that it was also manufactured to an equal extent at home."—J. S. Lewis, *Old glass and how to collect it, pp.* 4-6.

"The most ancient method for the extraction of iron from its ores and adapting it to the use of man originated, without doubt, in the East; and India was most probably the seat of this primitive manufacturing process. . . . Large deposits of easily reducible ores occur in many of the hilly districts of India; and the Hindoos have always been notable workers in iron. The extraction of the metal was, however, almost entirely carried on by hill tribes of low caste; and it is difficult to conceive of any simpler smelting process than that still in operation among them—a process which, with very little modification, has been in existence for several thousand years. . . . This [primitive] smelting furnace may be described as a circular shaft built of refractory stone, and daubed over with clay to make it airtight; or it is made entirely of fireclay plastered inside a frame of stakes driven into the ground to act as a support for the clay until it sets. . . . The Assyrians and Egyptians, and probably the Jews, obtained their iron from India at a very early period; later the Greeks and Romans received supplies of the metal from the Chalybes, a tribe living and working on the south coast of the Black Sea. As the process migrated westward it was improved by the greater energy of the Western races. The Etruscans mined the hæmatite ore of Elba, and extracted the metal by a process similar to that still in use in some remote districts of the Pyrenees."—J. H. Stansbie, *Iron and steel, pp.* 51-55.—"How man first learned to separate iron from the ore we do not know. Perhaps a bolt of lightning was sent from heaven to melt the rock; or a forest fire may have furnished the needful heat; or a campfire built over some ore may have melted out the iron. We know that iron was well known to nearly all peoples in . . . [early] ages. . . . A small piece of iron was found beneath one of the pyramids of Egypt. It had been placed there about six thousand years ago and had been saved from rust by the dry climate of that country. There is evidence that iron was well known to the Assyrians, Chaldeans, and Babylonians, peoples who lived hundreds of years before the time of Christ. The writings of the ancient Greeks mention iron as a rare and precious metal. Alexander the Great took plunder of iron from India when he conquered the princes of that country. . . . The people of Spain were famous iron makers even before Roman times. When Cæsar invaded England he found the natives using iron weapons. Leif Ericson and his bold Vikings brought iron-headed spears and other implements of that metal when they visited America in the tenth century. This was the first iron in use on our continent. . . . But though the use of iron was so widespread, it was considered by the ancients as a rare and precious metal. . . . The great cost of iron was not due to the scarcity of ore, but to the difficulty in smelting it. The iron workers of ancient days made iron in a hole

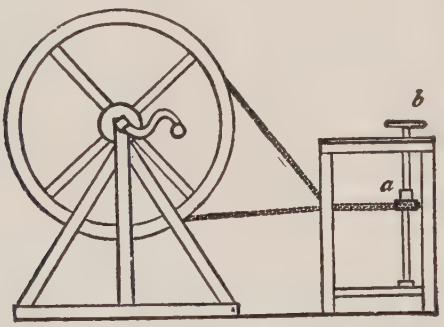
in the ground. This hole was dug in a hilltop. A tunnel was then dug through the side of the hill to the bottom of the fire hole. The wind rushing through the tunnel gave the required draught, but the furnace could only be used on days when the wind blew. . . . In very early ages a rude sort of bellows was invented, made of goatskins and worked by hand. Finally the Catalan forge was made and used at Catalonia, Spain. It was much like an ordinary blacksmith forge. A small spot was enclosed by a wall three or four feet high [built of Sandstone blocks; the front is of iron plates]. Into this enclosure iron ore and charcoal were thrown. The fire was started and made to burn by a draught forced in at the bottom by a bellows . . . [which] was worked either by hand or by water power. The Catalan forge was the standard method of making iron during the Middle Ages. Experiments recently made show that iron could not now be made by these old methods for less than one thousand dollars a ton."—E. McKane, *Stories of coal and iron, pp.* 24-26.

"The oldest written direct information now known on the employment and working of steel is the Biblical passage in I Samuel xiii, 19-22. 'Now there was no smith found throughout all the land of Israel: for the Philistines said, Lest the Hebrews make them swords or spears: But all the Israelites went down to the Philistines, to sharpen every man his share, and his coulter, and his axe, and his mattock. Yet they had a file for the mattocks, and for the coulters, and for the forks, and for the axes, and to sharpen the goads. . . . The implements mentioned above, according to my conception, can not possibly mean anything other than those of steel. And so also very probably in the following Biblical passages in Joshua xvii, 16 and 18, [Judges i, 19, and iv, 3;] by 'chariots of iron' we should understand 'chariots of steel:' . . . In short, the reference to the scythe chariots of the Canaanites introduces us at once into a period of a highly developed steel industry. . . . It is certain that the iron-workers who could turn out steel scythes at least one meter long, and of a corresponding width, had attained a state of excellency which presupposes the existence of the art of iron-working for a long space of time."—W. Belck, *Discoverers of the art of iron manufacture* (*Smithsonian Institution Report for 1911, pp.* 508, 509).—"It is quite certain that steel implements must have been used . . . in the construction of certain of the very earliest ancient monuments known to us; for tools of soft iron could not have cut and carved the very hard rocks of which they were constructed. In connection with the building of the pyramids (date fixed at about three thousand B.C.) Herodotus speaks of the immense sums of money which must have been spent for the 'iron' with which the builders worked; and in the Great Pyramid there was found a fragment of an iron tool which must be at least five thousand years old, containing a small percentage of carbon. There is good reason for believing also that the working of steel as well as of iron was known to and practiced by the early Greeks and others, perhaps as far back as ten centuries B.C. . . . As to the method making of the common steels of antiquity, little is certainly known. The iron to be converted into steel appears to have been made in a sort of crude catalan forge; and as iron has a strong affinity for carbon, it is probable that in forging iron which . . . [by long contact with the fuel] had taken up some carbon, it would be found somewhat harder and stiffer than common iron, and on that account more suitable for tools. Among the very ancient Egyptians, it is said, pieces of meteoric iron were heated in close contact with the fuel and kept at a high temperature, just below the melting point, for a long time. . . . [Observation and experience had taught these ancient artisans the virtue of hardness bestowed by the fire, and which science has taught the modern iron master lies in the absorption of carbon in the process known as cementation.] From the earliest times the quality of steels varied greatly. The celebrated wootz steels of India, and Damascus made at the Syrian city of the same name, and later at Toledo, in Spain, were examples of superior steels susceptible of extraordinary tempering. They both, however, were crucible steels, and the latter is also said to have contained strong traces of tungsten, nickel, manganese, and similar elements important in the new high-speed steels. . . . Wootz is a steel of high quality, the manufacture of which reaches back to very ancient times. Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, describes it as nearly as 350 B.C. or thereabouts, and tells us how it was made. Other ancient writers in the subsequent centuries likewise make mention of it. This steel still is (or at any rate until recently was) fabricated by some of the remote mountain peoples in the north of India. . . . [It] has been used almost exclusively for swords as far back as tradition runs; and it has been said of Wootz blades, as also of Damascus, that when properly tempered and skillfully handled they would cleave a bar of iron without losing edge. . . . Recent archæological discoveries indicate that a kind of crucible steel was known to and made by the Chinese probably many centuries before the Indian product."—O. M. Becker, *High-speed steel, pp.* 1-2.—See also ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Minoan Age: B.C. 1200-750.

The process of rope making has been known from very early times, and among all primitive peoples. Indeed, it may be that the first step toward the process of spinning, if not of weaving, was the discovery that grass or fiber could be twisted into a strong cord or rope, to take the place of thongs cut from the skins of animals. Of the primitive peoples known in modern times, almost all had a knowledge of rope making when they were discovered, and the people of North and South America and of the Pacific were especially expert in the manufacture of beautiful rope, made from the fiber of a variety of plants. In ancient days, the Egyptians were certainly skilful in the making of rope in the fourth century B.C., for ropes have been found in tombs which probably date back to 3,500 B.C. The ropes which upheld the famous bridge of boats over the Hellespont, by which Xerxes and his army crossed in 480 B.C., are said to have been enormous cables twenty-six inches in circumference. There were six of these cables to each bridge, and as the strait is seven-eighths of a mile wide, an idea may be formed of their great length. It is said that two of each set were made of flax and four of papyrus. The cordage in Hiero's galley, it is said, was made of hemp.

The art of making pottery has been well nigh universal from very early times. Whether bowls or shallow vessels were shaped by hollowing balls or blocks of hardened clay; whether basket work was used as a primitive mold; or whether ropes of clay were coiled into the desired shape, almost every primitive tribe or nation invented, or learned from its neighbors some mode of making pots of clay. At first the pots were sun dried, and it is of

course impossible to say when the knowledge of hardening by fire was learned. This knowledge is also so universal that it is probable its discovery was made by accident in many places. Gradually it was learned that some clays were more plastic than others; that the addition of sand made a harder ware; that removal of stone fragments made a smoother product, and by degrees a marvelous amount of skill was attained. What country or age produced the genius who first thought of moving the flat stone or block of wood on which he worked, in order to facilitate the molding of his bowl or vase we do not know. Indeed it is generally believed that this discovery was also made independently by widely separated races, and that it was made at a rather late date. But, however this may be, the primitive inventor, or inventors of the first crude beginning of the potters' wheel founded one of the greatest industries the world has known. The next great step was to cut down the molding block to a flat table or disc, and mount it on a pivot. Later, the spindle was lengthened and set on a larger wheel or disc, so that the throwing wheel could be rotated by the foot, and it is this wheel that is pictured on the later Egyptian tombs. From early times,



POTTER'S WHEEL

a, Shaft. *b*, Stone wheel. *c*, Turning wheel.

large pieces have been made in sections, joined together, and smoothed on the turning wheel, or by hand tools. Kilns for firing were probably also invented in very early times, and may have originated from the furnaces used to smelt minerals. "By making use of the fairly plastic deposits of the overflow of the Nile the Egyptians in very ancient times manufactured bricks of rough earth and fired them as soon as they had discerned the property clay possesses of hardening under the influence of heat. . . . According to Mariette Bey, there are found in the tombs of the Memphite period (5000-3000 B.C.) vases of terra-cotta which were intended to contain provisions for the deceased. Also, on the walls of the tombs of the Beni-Hassan pictures have been discovered portraying scenes from the life of Egyptian potters, modelling vases and firing them in an oven, at a time corresponding to the Theban Period (3000-1700 B.C.). To this period is also attributed the discovery of glazes and the manufacture of the first pieces of earthenware found in the pyramid of Saggarah. Between 1700 B.C. and 500 B.C. the art of earthenware manufacture acquired a rare perfection, as is shown by the decorations of the temple of Tell-el-Yadouai built by Rameses III. Whether the Chaldeans and Assyrians had borrowed their processes from the Egyptians, or whether they themselves had discovered these is not certain, but it is known that after having for a long time used crude bricks in their buildings they erected the palaces of Crœsus at Sardis, of Mausolus at Halicarnassus, and of Attalus at Tralles in beautiful, red, fired bricks. . . . The Persians, successors to the Assyrians, carried the manufacture of monumental earthenware to a high degree of perfection. The body employed by the ancient Persians was extremely silicious, having the appearance of a piece of soft stone. . . . The Greeks are important because of the perfection of form they were able to give to their pottery, and the Romans because they were the creators of the industry of fired wares for the purposes of construction, and because Southern Italy was the country from which originated 'Campanian' ware, which will always remain the most perfect model of pottery in fired body. In addition to the admirable purity of form, the Greek potters used fairly fine clays, probably washed and fired at a rather high temperature, which gave a special hardness and fineness. They either polished the surfaces before firing, in order to give a kind of 'finish' to the fired pottery, or used the process of decoration known as 'slipping,' which consists in putting on to the body ornamentation made by means of another body of a different colour. Later, they covered the fire bodies with a lustre glaze which by its strongly alkaline composition determined the vitrification of the surface. These lustres were coloured red by oxide of iron, or dark brown by a mixture of the oxides of iron and manganese. The art of faience was introduced into Europe from Persia by the Arabs and Moors after it had been ignored by all the classic nations and the Middle Ages. Towards the eleventh century when the Arabs were superseded by the Moors, a new kind of manufacture appeared in Spain which was distinguished from the Persian wares chiefly by the metallic lustre of the glaze. The manufacture of the celebrated Hispano-Moresque faience, wall tilings, dishes and vases, frequently having great purity of form, became concentrated in the Island of Majorca, at Malaga, and at Manises, near Valencia. The celebrated vases which adorn the Alhambra at Granada, and are considered masterpieces of Moorish ceramic art, were probably manufactured at Malaga about 1320. . . . Up to the fifteenth century the only glaze known was of a plumbiferous nature. Its transparency allowed the yellowish or red colouring of the body to be seen. The origin of its use is unknown, but it is generally admitted that it was known to the Egyptians, Greeks and Romans, and though little used by them was handed down to the thirteenth century, when it became more largely employed."—E. Bourry, *Treatise on ceramic industries, pp.* 8-10.—See also ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Neolithic Age; Minoan Age: B.C. 3000-2200; B.C. 2200-1600; B.C. 1200-750; HELLENISM: Science and invention.

"The Chinese are now generally credited with the art of making paper of the kind most familiar to us, that is from fibrous material first reduced to the condition of pulp. Materials such as strips of bark, leaves, and papyrus cannot of course be included in a definition like this, which one writer has condensed into the phrase 'Paper is an aqueous deposit of vegetable fibre.' A.D. 105.—The earliest reference to the manufacture of paper is to be found in the Chinese Encyclopædia, wherein it is stated that Ts'ai-Lun, a native of Kuei-yang, entered the service of the Emperor Ho-Ti in A.D. 75, and devoting his leisure hours to study, suggested the use of silk and ink as a substitute for the bamboo tablet and stylus. Subsequently he succeeded in making paper from bark, tow, old linen, and fish nets (A.D. 105). He was created

marquis in A.D. 114 for his long years of service and his ability. A.D. 704.—It has been commonly asserted that raw cotton, or cotton wool, was first used by the Arabs at this date for the manufacture of paper, they having learnt the art from certain Chinese prisoners captured at the occupation of Samarkand by the Arabs. The complete conquest of Samarkand does not, however, seem to have taken place until A.D. 751, and there is little doubt that this date should be accepted for the introduction of the art of paper-making among the Arabs. . . . In 1877 a great quantity of ancient manuscripts was found at El-Faijum, in Egypt, comprising about 100,000 documents in ten languages, extending from B.C. 1400 to A.D. 1300, many of which were written on paper. The documents were closely examined in 1894 by these experts, at the request of the owner, the Archduke Rainer of Austria. . . . The earliest dated paper was a letter A.D. 874, but two documents, which from other reasons could be identified as belonging to A.D. 792, proved that at the end of the eighth century the Arabs understood the art of making linen paper on network moulds, and further that they added starch for the purpose of sizing and loading the paper. . . . In medieval times paper was known as Charta bombycina, and sometimes as Charta Damascena, the latter from its place of origin. . . . 'The oldest of the Eastern Turkestani papers, dating from the fourth and fifth centuries A.D., are made of a mixture of raw fibres of the bast of various dicotyledonous plants. From these fibres the half-stuff for the paper was made by means of a rude mechanical process. . . . Similar papers, made of a mixture of raw fibres, are also found belonging to the fifth, sixth, and seventh centuries. But in this period there also occur papers which are made of a mixture of rudely pounded rags and of raw fibres extracted by maceration. . . . In the same period papers make their appearance in which special methods are used to render them capable of being written on, viz., coating with gypsum and sizing with starch or with a gelatine extracted from lichen. . . . In the seventh and eighth centuries both kinds of papers are of equal frequency, those made of the raw fibre of various dicotyledonous plants and those made of a mixture of rags and raw fibres. In this period the method of extracting the raw fibre is found to improve from a rude stamping to maceration; but that of preparing the rags remains a rude stamping. . . . The previous researches of Professor Karabacek and the author had shown that the invention of rag paper was not made in Europe by Germans or Italians about the turn of the fourteenth century, but that the Arabs knew its preparation as early as the end of the eighth century. The present researches now further show that the beginnings of the preparation of rag paper can be traced to the Chinese in the fifth or fourth centuries, or even earlier. . . . [But] it was the Arabs who, having been initiated into the art by the Chinese, improved the method of preparing it, and carried it to that stage of perfection in which it was received from them by the civilised peoples of Europe in the mediæval ages. . . . The author has shown that the process of sizing the paper with starch in order to improve it was already known to the Arabs in the eighth century. In the fourteenth century the knowledge of it was lost, animal glue being substituted in the place of starch, till finally in the nineteenth century, along with the introduction of paper machines, the old process was resuscitated. But the invention of it was due to the Chinese. The oldest Eastern Turkestani paper which is sized with starch belongs to the eighth century. . . . The Chinese were not only the inventors of felted paper and the imitators of rag paper . . . but they must also be credited with being the forerunners of the modern method of preparing "cellulose paper." For their very ancient practice of extracting the fibre from the bark and other parts of plants by means of maceration is in principle identical with the modern method of extracting "cellulose" by means of certain chemical processes.' . . . The introduction of the art into Europe seems to have taken place early in the eleventh century, when the Moors manufactured paper at Toledo. . . . [and the] industry of paper-making passed through Spain into Italy, France, and the Netherlands. In 1189 paper was being manufactured at Hainault, in France, and the industry rapidly spread all over the Continent. In 1390 Ulman Stromer established a mill at Nuremberg, in Germany, employing a great number of men, who were obliged to take an oath that they would not teach anyone the art of paper-making or make paper on their own account. In the sixteenth century the Dutch endeavoured to protect their industry by making the exportation of moulds for paper-making an offence punishable by death. . . . The actual period at which the manufacture of paper was first started in England is somewhat uncertain. The first mention of any paper-maker is found in Wynkyn de Worde's 'De Proprietatibus Rerum,' printed by Caxton in 1495. . . . In 1588 a paper mill was erected by Sir John Spielman, a German, who obtained a licence from Queen Elizabeth 'for the sole gathering for ten years of all rags, etc., necessary for the making of paper.' . . . The industry made but little progress for some time after Spielman's death, and up till 1670 the supplies of paper were obtained almost entirely from France."—R. W. Sindall, *Manufacture of paper,* 5-6, 8-9, 11-13.—See also BOOKS: Writing materials; PRINTING AND THE PRESS: Before 14th century.

Gutenberg printing press.—Invention of movable type. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: Before 14th century; 1430-1456.

Artificial light: Torch, candle, and lamp.—"The firefly or lightning-bug which we see so often in the summer nights was in the earliest time brought into service and made to shed its light for man. Fireflies were imprisoned in a rude box—in the shell of a cocoanut, perhaps, or in a gourd—and the light of their bodies was allowed to shoot out through the numerous holes made in the box. We must not despise the light given out by these tiny creatures. 'In the mountains of Tijuca,' says a traveler, 'I have read the finest print by the light of one of these natural lamps (fireflies) placed under a common glass tumbler, and with distinctness I could tell the hour of the night and discern the very small figures which marked the seconds of a little Swiss watch.' Although fireflies have been used here and there by primitive folk, they could hardly have been the first lamp. Man's battle with darkness really began with the torch, which was lighted at the fire in the cave or in the wigwam and kept burning for purposes of illumination. A burning stick was the first lamp. The first improvement in the torch was made when slivers or splinters of resinus or oily wood were tied together and burned. We may regard this as a lamp which is all wick. This invention resulted in a fuller and clearer light, and one that would burn longer than the single stick. A further improvement came when a long piece of wax or fatty substance was wrapped about with leaves. This was something like a candle, only the wick (the leaves) was outside, and the oily substance

which fed the wick was in the center. In the course of time it was discovered that it was better to smear the grease on the outside of the stick, or on the outside of whatever was to be burned; that is, that it was better to have the wick inside. Torches were then made of rope coated with resin or fat, or of sticks or splinters smeared with grease; here the stick resembled the wick of the candle as we know it to-day, and the coating of fat corresponding to the tallow or paraffin. Rude candles made of oiled rope or of sticks smeared with fat were invented in primitive times, and they continued to be used for thousands of years after men were civilized. In the dark ages . . . soon as men discovered that the melted fat of animals would burn easily—and that was certainly very long ago—they invented in a rude form the lamp from which the lamp of to-day has been evolved. The cavity of a shell or of a stone, or of the skull of an animal, was filled with melted fat or oil, and a wick of flax or other fibrous material was laid upon the edge of the vessel. The oil or grease passed up the wick by capillary action, and when the end of the wick was lighted it continued to burn as long as there were both oil and wick. This was the earliest lamp. As man became more civilized, instead of a hollow stone or a skull, an earthen saucer or bowl was used. Around

LAMPS

1, Shell lamp. 2, Early Greek lamp. 3, Early Hebrew lamp. 4, Etruscan bronze lamp. 5, Tin Betty, 1632. 6, Cast iron fat lamp, 1700. 7, Fat lamp, brass dish, iron upright, 1680. 8, Tin upright Franklin burner, whale-oil, 1750. 9, Tin lard-oil lamp with reflector, 1830. 10, Tin lard-oil lamp, 1840. 11, Glass camphene lamp, 1848. 12, Glass whale-oil lamp, 1760.

torch-makers began to wrap the central stick, first flax or hemp, and then place around this a thick layer of fat. This torch gave a very good light, but about the time of Alfred the Great (900 A.D.) another step was taken: the central stick was left out altogether, and the thick layer of fat or wax was placed directly around the wick of twisted cotton. . . . The torch had developed into the candle. The candles of to-day are made of better material than those of the olden time, and they are much cheaper; yet in principle they do not differ from the candles of a thousand years ago. "I have given the development of the candle first because its forerunner, the torch, was first used for lighting. But it must not be forgotten that along with the torch there was used, almost from the beginning, another kind of lamp. Almost as the edge of the bowl a gutter or spout was made for holding the wick. In the lamp of the ancient Greeks and Romans the reservoir which held the oil was closed, although in the center there was a hole through which the oil might be poured. Sometimes one of these lamps would have several spouts or nozzles. The more wicks a lamp had, of course, the more light it would give. There is in the museum at Cortona, in Italy, an ancient lamp which has sixteen nozzles. This interesting relic was used in a pagan temple in Etruria more than twenty-five hundred years ago. Lamps . . . were used among the civilized peoples of the ancient world and continued to be used through the Middle Ages far into modern times. . . . The candle was in every way better than the ancient lamps, and after the invention of wax tapers—candles

made of wax—in the thirteenth century, lamps were no longer used by those who could afford to buy tapers. For ordinary purposes and ordinary people, however, the lamp continued to do service, but it was not improved."—S. E. Forman, *Stories of useful inventions, pp.* 28-33.

Use of steam. See STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Development of steam engines up to Watt's time.

Early hand-guns.—Muskets. See RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: Origin of small arms.

Wind instruments.—Organ.—"The organ (ougab) mentioned in Genesis (chap. iv., *v.* 21) certainly little resembled the modern instrument of that name, although it may be regarded as furnishing the first hint. It was probably a series of reeds, of unequal length and thickness, joined together; being nearly identical with the pipe of Pan among the Greeks [from which all modern wind instruments have originated], or that simple instrument called a mouth-organ, which is still in common use. . . . The Greek and Latin shepherds made this primitive instrument of strong reeds, or some other suitable material. It originally consisted of seven or eight reeds of progressive lengths, fastened together with wax. The number was afterwards extended to ten or twelve. The syrinx, or pipe of Pan, by its form and arrangement, may be regarded as the first kind of organ building; for it consisted of a number of pipes placed together in ranks, according to their succession of tones, and sounded by wind."—E. J. Hopkins and E. F. Rimbault, *Organ, its history and construction, pp.* 2-3.—"About B.C. 284 to 246 there lived at Alexandria, under Ptolemy Euergetes, a . . . [barber] named Ctesibius, who . . . observed that the counterweight of a movable mirror, . . . produced a musical sound by the force with which it drove the air out of the tube in which it moved. Experimenting with the principle thus noticed, he succeeded in making a machine consisting of a hollow vase inverted, with an opening on the top, to which was attached a trumpet, and, on water being pumped into the vase the air was driven forcibly through the trumpet, producing a very powerful sound. . . . The idea of supplying a forced current of air to a single trumpet was enlarged by Ctesibius's pupil, Hero. . . . [He] developed from Ctesibius's trumpet, [an instrument] in which the air was conveyed from the vase to a row of pipes, arranged in the order of a musical scale, any one of which could be caused to sound at will. Since the water was the motive power, Hero or others named the instrument the Hydraulos, or . . . Hydraulus, and this was the predecessor of our organ. Hero describes perforated metal sliders under each pipe, which must be kept well oiled, and which, on being pushed in by the finger, admit the air to the respective pipes. The slider is returned to its place by a horn spring on the removal of the finger. A century and a half later Vitruvius, a famous Roman engineer, gave a further description of this instrument, showing that by this time it had a keyboard, and that the horn springs were replaced by metal ones; that it had several rows of pipes answering to the modern 'stops'; that each row stood over a separate channel, to which wind was admitted by a valve which could be opened or closed at the will of the performer. . . . The popularity of the hydraulus continued for many centuries. Claudian, a poet of Alexandria, who flourished about A.D. 379, praises the organist, who, . . . 'by his wandering fingers, causes the innumerable voices which spring from the multitude of bronze pipes to sound; and who, with a beam like lever, can rouse the struggling waters to song.' The reference to the multitude of pipes and the lever, or bellows handle, as large as a beam, points to a very elaborate instrument. . . . The compass of the hydraulus must have embraced about three octaves in the first century of our era, if we accept the view adopted by Gevaert, that one instrument was capable of 'performing all the modes mentioned by Anonymous.' [The introduction of harmony brought about a new improvement in the organ.] If it was possible to play two melodies at once with the two hands, always at an interval of a fourth or fifth, it was equally possible to give two pipes to each key, one at a fourth or fifth above the other; or three pipes, one at a fifth, the other at an octave above the first; and the number could be increased *ad libitum*. The new invention was called locatio, or mixture, from the mixing of sounds. . . . The organ required two organists, each of whom managed his own 'alphabet.' [There were no stops, and the "full organ" had to be used.]—C. F. A. Williams, *Story of the organ, pp.* 2-3, 7-8.—"The close of the eleventh century forms an era in the history of organ-building, when an organ is said to have been erected in the cathedral at Magdeburg, with a *key-board* consisting of *sixteen* keys. . . . In the course of the fourteenth century they set about improving the clumsy clavier or key-board. In particular, they made neater keys, increased their number . . . to the extent of nearly three octaves, and so reduced their fall and breadth that they no longer required to be struck down by the fist [or elbows]. . . . In 1359 or 1361 Nicholas Faber, a priest, built the great organ in the cathedral at Halberstadt. It had fourteen diatonic and eight chromatic keys. . . . This is the earliest *authentic* account of an organ provided with the semitones of the scale."—E. J. Hopkins and E. F. Rimbault, *Organ, its history and construction, pp.* 33, 45.—"The organ appears to have been at first placed in the neighborhood of the choir, but when increased in size, it was removed to the west end of the church. But when the main organ . . . was enlarged, a new invention came into use, called in Italian Ninfale, in other languages Portative [or Regal]. This was a small organ, of which representations are found in many ancient manuscripts; it was hung round the player's neck, who worked the bellows with one hand and played on the keys with the fingers of the other—for the keys were small enough to be played with the fingers. . . . Another form of organ [larger than the portative] which became universal in the Middle Ages was the Positive, so called because [although movable] it was 'placed' in a certain position to be played. . . . In course of time it became incorporated into the organ proper, and provided with its own keyboard; in England it took the name of Choir organ, while retaining its name Positiv and Positif in Germany and France respectively. . . . The organ proper, used to accompany the congregation, continued for many centuries in a very primitive condition. . . . Stops were not introduced till the end of the fifteenth century, and the organs were increased in size by adding innumerable pipes behind the chief row, which was in front and answered to our Open Diapason. . . . During the early years of the fifteenth century the 'Spring box' was invented in the Netherlands. . . . Shortly afterwards the slider action was invented, or rather rediscovered, for it had been used in the hydraulic organs. . . . In addition to the invention of registers, the series of pipes called Principal, or Prestant, or . . . Open diapason, was given a separate keyboard, the locatio or mixture being acted on by a second clavier . . . [the pedal clavier was also added]. . . . By 1499 Heinrich Crantz had erected an or-

gan in Brunswick with keys so reduced in size that an octave was only larger by one key than the present octave; and the semitones, . . . were placed between the naturals, and coloured black. We may take it, then, that our organ keyboard took its present dimensions and form, after many experiments, about the beginning of the sixteenth; while the keyboards of positives had for centuries been assimilated to those of the clavichord and spinet."—C. F. A. Williams, *Story of the organ, pp.* 38, 40-41, 45-47, 53.—See also Music: Primitive: First music; Peru; Mexico; Ancient: B.C. 2852-478; also Folk music and nationalism: Celtic: Scotland.

Stringed instruments, forerunners of the piano.—"Several instruments of the ancients have been mentioned to which the pianoforte owes its origin. . . . One—an Egyptian harp—was found in an ancient tomb at Thebes, and when the catgut strings upon it were touched the harp still emitted sounds. . . . Amongst ancient stringed instruments, the harp, lute, and lyre are probably of the greatest antiquity, but which of these can claim priority of invention it is impossible to discover with certainty. The harps, which were much used in ancient Egypt and Assyria, varied greatly in size and shape. . . . One of these harps has thirteen strings, but wants the fore-piece of the frame opposite to the longest string. The back part is the sounding-board, composed of four thin pieces of wood joined together in form of a cone—that is, growing wider towards the bottom; so that as the length of the string increases, the square of the corresponding space in the sounding-board, in which the sound was to undulate, always increases in proportion. . . . The lute or cithara, which is perhaps even more than the harp the immediate ancestor of the pianoforte, was much used in Hindostan, China, Egypt, and Assyria. . . . Perhaps the dulcimer, even more than the harp and lyre, was the immediate ancestor of the pianoforte. It was played with the plectrum for *striking*, both by the Egyptians and Assyrians, and, later, by the Hebrews and Persians. The strings in this instrument passed completely over the sounding-board, and were of varying lengths."—E. Brinsmead, *History of the pianoforte, pp.* 68-70, 73, 77.—See also Music: Ancient: B.C. 4000-525; B.C. 3000-7th century; B.C. 2000-A.D. 1200.—"The clavichord, especially in the earlier models, shows its descent from the monochord, or pitch carrier with one string. Virdung, as long ago as 1511, said he never could learn who, by putting keys to a monochord, had invented the clavichord, or who, on account of those keys, first gave the name 'clavicordium.'. . . It has been supposed Pythagoras found the monochord in Egypt, where the principle of the stopped string upon a finger-board had been known, as the monuments testify, ages before his time, and it may have been also known in Babylonia. After Pythagoras the monochord became in Greece, where polychord instruments had prevailed, and in Europe generally, the canon or rule for the measurement of intervals, and continued to be so employed up to the eleventh century and later of our era. It became subsequently transformed into a polychord with four strings, to facilitate the melodic division of the Gregorian tones, the Plain-song of the Church as used in the Ritual. Such an instrument would be a set of monochords, and in course of time, by adding more strings and a keyboard, the clavichord was invented. We do not know within a hundred years or more when this change happened, but the clavichord, being a development of the monochord, long bore the same name—indeed, up to the end of the sixteenth century."—A. J. Hipkins, *Description and history of the pianoforte and of the older keyboard stringed instruments, pp.* 57-58.—"The Cithara of the Middle Ages was a poor thing enough, in the form of a large P, with ten strings in the oval part; but it had movable pegs, and could be easily tuned. . . . But the Psaltery was a great stride forward. This instrument was an arrangement of strings on a box. Here we have the principle of the sounding-board,—a thing of vital moment to the piano, and one upon which the utmost care is bestowed by all the great makers. Whoever first thought of stretching strings on a box may also be said to have half invented the guitar and the violin. No single subsequent thought has been so fruitful of consequences as this in the improvement of stringed instruments. . . . [About the year 1200 the psaltery or dulcimer was a harp-shaped box, eighteen to thirty-six feet long, on which were stretched a large number of strings], which the player struck with a stick or a long-handled hammer. This instrument was a signal advance toward the grand piano. It was a piano, without its machinery. The next thing, obviously, must have been to contrive a method of striking the strings with certainty and evenness; and, accordingly, we find indications of a keyed instrument after the year 1300, called the Clavicytherium, or keyed cithara. The . . . [use] of keys permitted the strings to be covered over, and therefore the strings of the clavicytherium were enclosed in a box, instead of being stretched on a box. The first keys were merely long levers with a nub at the end of them, mounted on a pivot, which the player canted up at the strings on the see-saw principle."—J. Parton, *Triumphs of enterprise, ingenuity and public spirit, pp.* 325-327.—The clavicytherium was introduced "by the Italians, and soon imitated in Belgium and Germany. The introduction of this instrument was probably due to the want felt by composers of some instrument which would give, however imperfectly, the effect of an orchestra. . . . It was at first in an upright position, and Sir John Hawkins says that it was brought out as a new invention long afterwards under the name of the 'upright harpsichord.' Subsequently this clavicytherium, or keyed cithara, was placed upon supports in a horizontal position. Another instrument, deriving its name from employing the key (*clavis*), was the clavichord, which was in use before, or at the same time as the clavicytherium, from which it differed, however, both in construction and in the manner of producing the tone, the strings being of wire, and set in motion by striking and pressing instead of the twanging of the leather plectrum."—E. Brinsmead, *History of the pianoforte, p.* 85.

Drum in ancient Mexico. See Music: Primitive: Mexico.

Compass.—"It is perhaps impossible to ascertain the epoch when the polarity of the magnet was first known in Europe. The common opinion which ascribes its discovery to a citizen of Amalfi in the 14th century, is undoubtedly erroneous. Guiot de Provins, a French poet who lived about the year 1200, or, at the latest, under St. Louis, describes it in the most unequivocal language. James de Vitry, a bishop in Palestine, before the middle of the 13th century, and Guido Guinizzelli, an Italian poet of the same time, are equally explicit. The French, as well as Italians, claim the discovery as their own; but whether it were due to either of these nations, or rather learned from their intercourse with the Saracens, is not easily to be ascertained. . . . It is a singular circumstance, and only to be explained by the obstinacy with which men are apt to reject improvements, that the mag-

netic needle was not generally adopted in navigation till very long after the discovery of its properties, and even after their peculiar importance had been perceived. The writers of the 13th century, who mention the polarity of the needle, mention also its use in navigation; yet Capmany has found no distinct proof of its employment till 1403, and does not believe that it was frequently on board Mediterranean ships at the latter part of the preceding age."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages, ch. 9, pt. 2, with note.*—"Both Chaucer, the English, and Barbour, the Scottish, poet, allude familiarly to the compass in the latter part of the 14th century."—G. L. Craik, *History of British commerce, v. 1, p.* 138.—"We have no certain information of the directive tendency of the natural magnet being known earlier than the middle or end of the 11th century (in Europe, of course). . . . That it was known at this date and its practical value recognized, is shown by a passage from an Icelandic historian, quoted by Hanstien in his treatise of Terrestrial Magnetism. In this extract an expedition from Norway to Iceland in the year 868 is described; and it is stated that three ravens were taken as guides, for, adds the historian, 'in those times seamen had no loadstone in the northern countries.' This history was written about the year A.D. 1068, and the allusion I have quoted obviously shows that the author was aware of natural magnets having been employed as a compass. At the same time it fixes a limit of the discovery in northern countries. We find no mention of artificial magnets being so employed till about a century later."—W. Thompson (R. F. Burton, *Ultima Thule, v. 1, p.* 312).

16TH-17TH CENTURIES

Industry: Manufacture of iron.—Glass.—"After the decline in the iron maker's art [in Europe], which accompanied the general lapse of knowledge during the mediæval period, the iron industry first revived in the lower Rhine Valley, where, in the latter part of the mediæval period, the Germans had an improved form of the Catalan furnace, which they had built to a height of ten to sixteen feet, and called the *stückofen.* It was sometimes called the wolf oven, so named because the metal resulting from its operation was called a wolf. This furnace had an output in its best form of 100 or 150 tons in the year, and represents the final form of the Catalan forge in Europe. [The melting point of pure iron (1600° C) could not be attained by any of these primitive furnaces, consequently the product was removed in a pasty state and worked to remove impurity.] The next stage was merely the enlargement of this German *stückofen* to a greater height. It was rechristened the blow oven, and the greater heat of its flame succeeded in melting the iron and making it flow so that it could be cast. This improvement may properly be said to have resulted in the blast furnace, first used in Belgium, about 1340. . . . This device was improved and perfected during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries by the Germans, Belgians, and the French. Strange to say, it was nearly two centuries before it was widely introduced into Europe, not being known in Saxony until 1550, although it was used in England a century earlier. By 1550 in central Germany its bellows were worked by cams upon the axles of water wheels, which also operated heavy hammers for the purification of the metal. By 1680 a blast furnace in the Forest of Dean, England, was described as being thirty feet in height, operating continuously for months, and making cast iron, which was described under the names of sows and pigs. Pig iron is the crude product of the blast furnace, and bears its bucolic name because the molten iron is allowed to run from the furnace, over a floor of sand, in which are impressions into which the iron is permitted to run and cool in any shape desired. The most convenient shape is the one by which little side depressions lead off from a main trench in the same way that cross streets leave a main avenue. These depressions on the casting floor are separated by very narrow sand banks, causing the main channel and the side channel when cast into iron to considerably resemble a family of infant swine feeding; hence the name pig iron."—R. J. Smith, *Beginning of modern iron, pp.* 24-26.

"The art of **glass-cutting** in Europe dates back to the middle of the sixteenth century, when it was extensively practised on the Continent, particularly in Bohemia. The earliest examples were probably imitated from the rock-crystal cups of ancient Greece and Rome. There is no doubt that in both these countries the art was practised for the ornamentation of the famous crystallinum, whilst some vessels were undoubtedly cut out of the solid block. . . . In the seventeenth century the whole process (of glass making) was revolutionised by the introduction of a large proportion of oxide of lead, making what is technically known as 'flint' glass—a glass much more brilliant than any other, a quality due partly to its transparency and partly to its increased refractive power, which renders it specially fitted for 'cutting'—a process which enhances its beauty by increasing the number of ways in which the light rays falling on the glass are dispersed. . . . All this time the art of glass-making on the Continent had been developing. In particular, the Venetian workers at Murano had perfected the art of colouring and enamelling glass. . . . Flint glass derives its name from the fact that in England the silica, which is the main constituent of all glass, was procured from flints which were calcined and pulverised. Being highly refractive it is extensively employed in the manufacture of optical instruments—telescopes, microscopes, etc. Quartz and fine sand are now used in the place of flints. The glass is soft, and hence easily scratched and dulled. . . . Flint glass was known in quite early times."—J. S. Lewis, *Old glass and how to collect it, pp.* 19, 7, 14.

Diving bell.—"It is certain . . . that men began very early to contrive means for supplying divers with air under the water, and of thereby enabling them to remain under it much longer. For this purpose the diving-bell, *campana urinatoria,* was invented. Those who had no idea of this machine, might have easily have been led to it by the following experiment. If a drinking-glass inverted be immersed in water, in such a manner that the surface of the water may rise equally around the edge of the glass, it will be found that the glass does not become filled with water, even when pressed down to the greatest depth; for where there is air no other body can enter, and by the above precaution the air cannot be expelled by the water. In like manner, if a bell of metal be constructed under which the diver can stand on a stool suspended from it so that the edge of the bell may reach to about his knee, the upper part of his body will be secured from water, and he can, even at the bottom of the sea, breathe the air enclosed in the bell. The invention of this bell is generally assigned to the sixteenth century. . . . We read, however, that even in the time of Aristotle divers used a kind of kettle to enable them to continue longer under

water; but the manner in which it was employed is not clearly described. The oldest information we have respecting the use of the diving-bell in Europe is that of John Taisnier, quoted by Schott. The former, who was born at Hainault in 1509, had a place at court under Charles V, whom he attended on his voyage to Africa. He relates in what manner he saw at Toledo, in the presence of the emperor and several thousand spectators, two Greeks let themselves down under water, in a large inverted kettle, with a burning light, and rise up again without being wet. It appears that this art was then new to the emperor and the Spaniards, and that the Greeks were induced to make the experiment in order to prove the possibility of it. After this period the use of the diving-bell seems to have become still better known. It is described more than once in the works of Lord Bacon, who explains its effects, and remarks that it was invented to facilitate labour under the water. In the latter part of the seventeenth century the diving-bell was sometimes employed in great undertakings. When the English, in the year 1588, dispersed the Spanish fleet called the Invincible Armada, part of the ships went to the bottom near the Isle of Mull, on the western coast of Scotland; and some of these, according to the account of the Spanish prisoners, contained great riches. This information excited, from time to time, the avarice of speculators, and gave rise to several attempts to procure part of the lost treasure. In the year 1665, a person was so fortunate as to bring up some cannon, which, however, were not sufficient to defray the expenses. . . . In the year 1617, Francis Kessler gave a description of his water-armour, intended also for diving, but which cannot really be used for that purpose. In the year 1671, Witsen taught, in a better manner than any of his predecessors, the construction and use of the diving-bell; but he is much mistaken when he says that it was invented at Amsterdam. In 1679 appeared, for the first time, Borelli's well-known work De Motu Animalium, in which he not only described the diving-bell but also proposed another, the impracticability of which was shown by James Bernoulli. When Sturm published his Collegium Curiosum, in 1678, he proposed some hints for the improvement of this machine, on which remarks were made in the Journal des Scavans (Jan. 1678)."—J. Beckman and W. Johnston, *History of inventions, pp.* 113-115, 118.

Time measurement: Pendulum clock.—"The last important step in the development of the clock was taken when the pendulum was brought into use. The history of the pendulum will always include a story told by Galileo. This great astronomer, the story runs, while worshiping in the cathedral at Pisa one day, found the service dull, and began to observe the swinging of the lamps which were suspended from the ceiling. Using his pulse as a timekeeper he learned that where the chains were of the same length the lamp swayed to and fro in equal length of time, whether they traveled through a short space or a long space. This observation set the philosopher to experimenting with pendulums of different lengths. Among the many things he learned one of the most important was this: a pendulum thirty-nine inches in length will make one vibration in just one second of time. Now, if the pendulum could only be kept swinging and its vibrations counted it would serve as a clock. Galileo, of course, saw this, and he caused to be made a machine for keeping the pendulum in motion but he did not make a clock; he did not connect his pendulum with the works of a clock. This, however, was done about the middle of the seventeenth century, although it is somewhat difficult to tell who was the first to do it. The honor is claimed by an Englishman, a Frenchman, and a Dutchman. The truth is, clockmakers throughout Europe were trying at the same time to make the best of the discoveries of Galileo, and several of them about the same time constructed clocks with pendulums. The one who seems to have succeeded first was Christian Huygens, a Dutch astronomer, who, in 1656, constructed a clock, the motions of which were regulated by the swinging of a pendulum. The weight was attached to a cord passing over a pulley and gave motion to all the wheels, as in De Vick's clock. [See above: Ancient and medieval: measurements.] Like De Vick's clock also Huygen's clock had its escapement wheel acting upon two pallets. In the Dutchman's clock, however, the escapement, instead of turning a balance beam to and fro, acted upon the pendulum, giving it enough motion to keep it from stopping."—S. E. Forman, *Stories of useful inventions, pp.* 200-202.

Instruments: Telescope. — Microscope. — Barometer.—"There is no other instrument or machine of human invention so recondite in its theory and so startling in its results as the **telescope.** . . . The invention of the telescope is a matter open to much controversy. Many lay it at the door of Roger Bacon, for in his 'Opus Majus,' he gives a rather interesting description of the phenomena depending on the refraction of light by lenses. However, the invention was doubtless accomplished in Holland, for in April or May 1609 a rumor spread through Europe, and finally reached Venice where Galileo happened to be visiting a friend, that a Dutchman named Hans or John Lippershey had presented to Prince Maurice of Nassau, an optical instrument which possessed the property of causing distant objects to appear nearer to the observer. This telescope, made by himself, Lippershey had had in his possession since October 1608. Galileo, upon hearing the confirmation of the rumor set himself to work on the subject, and on the first night after his return to Padua, found, in the doctrines of refraction, the principle for which he sought. He then procured two spectacle-glasses, both plane on one side, while the other side of the first was convex, and the other side of the second was concave. After placing one lens at either side of a leaden tube a few inches long, he found upon applying his eye to the concave lens, that objects appeared larger and closer to him. The magnification power of this telescope was only three diameters. After the completion of his first instrument, Galileo set to work to increase its magnifying power, with the result that he made one with a power of eight diameters which was succeeded by another with thirty, by means of which he succeeded in discovering the satellites of Jupiter, the mountains of the moon, and other celestial objects. The astronomical telescope with its two convex lenses was first explained by Kepler in his *Catoptrics* in 1611. Christopher Scheiner, however, was the first to construct this form of telescope, which he describes in his Rosa Ursina (1630). Kepler's telescope came into general use in the middle of the 17th century due to the fact that its field of view was far greater than that of the Galilean telescope. Huygens constructed the first powerful telescope of this type, with a focal length of twelve feet. From this point onward, telescopes of greater and greater focal length were made, until they became so long, as to be difficult to use and unwieldy to handle. [These were all refracting telescopes.] The greatest advance came with the invention of the reflecting telescope. An

Italian Jesuit, Father Zucchi (1616-1652) is reported to be the first to make use of an eye lens with which to view the image produced by a concave mirror, but the first reflecting telescope is attributed to James Gregory (1663). In 1669 Sir Isaac Newton announced his reflecting telescope, in which the light travelled the entire length of the tube, at the lower end of which it struck a concave reflector which sent it back as a cone of rays to the focus, where it was magnified by the eyepiece.

"It was Huygens, together with Malvasia and Auzout, who first applied the micrometer to the telescope, although the inventor of the first micrometer was William Gascoigne, of Yorkshire, about 1636."—H. S. Williams, *History of science, v. 2, p. 254.*—See also SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance: 16th century.—"Just as the telescope reveals the infinity of the great world above and around us, so does the **microscope** reveal the infinity of the little world around, about, and within us. Its origin, like the telescope, is hidden in the dim distance of the past, but it is believed to antedate the telescope. Probably the dewdrop on a leaf constituted the first microscope. The magnifying power of glass balls was known to the Chinese, Japanese, Assyrians and Egyptians, and a lens made of rock crystal was found among the ruins of Nineveh. The microscope is either single or compound. In the single the object is viewed directly. In the compound two or more lenses are so arranged that the image formed by one is magnified by the others, and viewed as if it were the object itself. The single microscope cannot be claimed by any inventor. The double or compound microscope was invented by Farncelli in 1624, and it was in that century that the first important applications were made for scientific investigation. Most of the investigations were made, however, by the single microscope, and the names of Borelli, Malpighi, Lieberkuhn, Hooke, Leeuwenhoek, Swammerden, Lyonnet, Hewson and Ellis were conspicuous as the fathers of microscopy."—E. W. Byrn, *Progress of invention in the nineteenth century, pp. 290-291.*—See also MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th-18th centuries: Introduction of the microscope in medicine.—The inability of the engineers of Cosimo de' Medici to raise water higher than thirty-two feet by means of a suction pump is considered the fundamental cause which led to the discovery of the **barometer**. Golibo was applied to and he explained it by saying that the "abhorrence of Nature" was limited to 32 feet and asked his disciple Evangelista Torricelli to investigate the subject. He experimented with mercury and found that the mercury would not rise to a height greater than thirty inches. From this he drew the conclusion that a column of water thirty-one feet high and one of mercury thirty inches high exerted the same pressure upon the same base, and that the force which counterbalanced them must in both cases be the same. In 1645 he published his conclusion that the weight of the air was the cause of the rise of the water to a height of 31 feet, and of mercury to 30 inches. To establish his conclusion he filled a tube more than three feet long, and open at one end only, with mercury, and then placed it in an open vessel of mercury, with the open end of the tube dipping below the surface of the mercury. Upon removing the finger which had been placed to close the open mouth of the tube, the mercury in the tube was found to sink until it stood at about twenty-eight inches above the mercury in the vessel. This constituted the first constructed barometer. In 1646, unaware of Torricelli's explanation Pascal made a series of experiments similar to those made by Torricelli the previous year and obtained precisely the same results. The following year, when he became acquainted with the Torricellian explanation, he assumed that the mercury in the tubes was suspended by the weight or the pressure of the air, and suggested that the column of mercury would fall, if taken to the summit of a high mountain. The experiment was tried, readings being taken at the summit and base of the mountain of Puy de Dome, in Auvergne. The result was found to be as predicted by Pascal; at the base the mercury stood twenty-six and a quarter inches (French) while at the summit it was only twenty-three and a sixth inches. Following this, Pascal inferred that changes in weather would occasion differences in barometer reading, according as to whether it was cold, hot, dry, or moist. From 1649 to 1651 observations were made at Stockholm, Paris, and Clermont to test the veracity of this opinion. From these observations it generally appeared that the mercury rose in cold, cloudy and damp weather, and fell when the weather was hot and dry, and during periods of rain and snow. The modern barometer is not unlike that, first constructed by Torricelli, consisting of a small cup filled with mercury into which there dips a large tube closed at one end. A scale is arranged on an outer metal tube which encloses the glass.

Camera obscura invented in the middle of the 16th century. See below: 18th century: Photography.

Evolution of violin. See MUSIC: Modern: 1607-1737.

Vehicle brakes.—"Knowing that the ancients traveled extensively, and that the great empires of history moved large armies over the then known world, accompanied by trains of baggage wagons and war machines, it is natural to suppose that the necessity for retarding those vehicles must have been plainly manifested. But as a matter of fact, the first suggestion of this necessity by the use of a practical mechanism designed for the purpose does not appear to have been more than 250 to 300 years ago. . . . [Primitive vehicles] were of such construction that the natural resistance to rotation of their wheels was quite sufficient to bring them to a stop upon ordinary roads; and in cases of steep grades it was always easy to chain a log or stone to the back of the wagon [to check its speed]. . . . A remarkable adherence to one basic combination of elemental parts, of the same general character and function, is to be observed in even the earliest types of brake apparatus. . . . It is easy to see that the revolving wheels and axles offer the convenient and practical opportunity required, and, consequently, it is not surprising to find that practically all brake devices, no matter how widely diversified in details, have one feature in common. This consists of a block or brake shoe, as it is called, so located that it may be pressed against the wheel tread with more or less force as may be necessary. This develops a frictional force or pull between the relatively stationary shoe and the revolving wheel which, so long as it does not exceed the 'adhesion' of the wheel to the rail or roadway on which it rolls, tends to retard and finally stop the motion of the wheel and thereby of the vehicle itself. . . . About the year 1630 an enterprising mine owner at Newcastle-on-Tyne, finding the roads between his mine and the river so bad as to seriously interfere with the hauling of coal, conceived the idea of laying wooden rails in the roads and running his cars thereon. The tractive effort of these cars was thereby so much increased that the necessity of some contrivance to check their speed was at once apparent and brought

out simple forms of brakes. One of these forms consisted of a metal-tipped beam which was fastened to the frame of the car in such a way as to scrape along in the ground at the side of the track. Another form was a simple lever pivoted to the side near the center of the car, and ordinarily held up by a chain, which, when desired for use, could be liberated and pressed by hand or foot against the top of the wheel. Many other simple devices of like nature were adopted by such rail or tram-roads as then existed, which require mention only to point out that all made use of a block or shoe forced against the tread of the wheel either directly, or through the medium of some simple combination of rods and levers, whereby the strength of the man applying the brake might be augmented or multiplied."—W. V. Turner, *History of a great invention* (*Scientific American Supplement, Apr.* 8, 1911).

Introduction of flint-lock muskets. See RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: Origin of small arms.

Steam engines.—Experiments of Balsco de Garay, Solomon de Caus, Brancas, Worcester, Morland, Denis Papin, and Savery. See STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Development of steam engines up to Watt's time.

18TH CENTURY

Artificial light: Chimney lamps.—Gaslight.—Strange as it may seem, no improvement was made in lamps until very modern times. Well into the eighteenth century a shallow bowl, containing vegetable or mineral oil, in which a small piece of wick, or even rag, floated and burned was still in use. "Late in the eighteenth century the improvement came. In 1783 a man named Argand, a Swiss physician residing in London, invented a lamp that was far better than any that had ever been made before. What did Argand do for the lamp? Examine an ordinary lamp in which coal-oil is burned. The *chimney* protects the flame from sudden gusts of wind and also creates a draft of air, just as the fire-chimney creates a draft. Argand's lamp [which was originally made to burn sperm or colya oil] was the first to have a chimney. Look below the chimney and you will see open passages through which air may pass upward and find its way to the wick. Notice further that as this draft of air passes upward it is so directed that, when the lamp is burning, an extra quantity of air plays directly upon the wick. Before Argand, the wick received no supply of air. Now notice—and this is very important—that the wick of our modern lamp is flat or circular, but thin. The air in abundance plays upon both sides of the thin wick, and burns it without making smoke. Smoke is simply half-burned particles (soot) of a burning substance. The particles pass off half-burned because enough air has not been supplied. Now Argand, by making the wick thin and by causing plenty of air to rush into the flame, caused all the wick to be burned and thereby caused it to burn with a white flame. After the invention of Argand, the art of lamp-making improved by leaps and by bounds. More progress was made in twenty years after 1783 than had been made in twenty centuries before. New burners were invented, new and better oils were used, and better wicks made. But all the new kinds of lamps were patterned after the Argand. . . . Soon after Argand invented his lamp, William Murdock, a Scottish inventor, showed the world a new way of lighting a house. It had long been known that fat or coal, when heated, gives off a vapor or gas which burns with a bright light. Indeed, it is *always* a gas that burns, and not a hard substance. In the candle or in the lamp the flame heats the oil which comes up to it through the wick and thus causes the oil to give off a gas. It is this gas that burns and gives the light. Now Murdock, in 1797, put this principle to a good use. He heated coal in a large vessel, and allowed the gas which was driven off to pass through mains and tubes to different parts of his house. Wherever he wanted a light he let the gas escape at the end of the tube in a small jet and lighted it. Here was a lamp without a wick. Murdock soon extended his gaspipes to his factories, and lighted them with gas."—S. E. Forman, *Stories of useful inventions, pp.* 34-36.

Franklin's identification of electricity with lightning.—Discoveries of Galvani and Volta. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1745-1747; 1784-1800.

First suggestion of electric telegraph. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Telegraph: 1753-1874.

Improved diving bell.—While many improvements in the diving bell were suggested, none "carried their researches further for this purpose than Dr. Halley, and Triewald, a Swede. The bell which Edmund Halley, secretary to the Royal Society, caused to be made, [and which he described in 1717] was three feet broad at the top, five feet at the bottom, and eight feet in height; forming a cavity of sixty-three cubic feet. It was covered with lead; and was so heavy that it sunk to the bottom, even when entirely empty. Around the lower edge, weights were disposed in such a manner that it should always sink in a perpendicular direction, and never remain in an oblique position. In the top was fixed a piece of strong glass to admit the light from above, and likewise a valve to give a passage to the air corrupted by the breath. . . . Other improvements were made so that the bell could be continually supplied with fresh air in such abundance, that Halley, and four other persons, remained under water, at the depth of ten fathoms, an hour and a half, without suffering the least injury, and could, with equal security, have continued longer, or even as long as they might have wished. . . . Another improvement of the diving-bell was effected by . . . Triewald, a Swede, in 1732. His bell, which was much smaller and more commodious, was made of copper, tinned in the inside. On the top there were panes of glass, which, for the greater security, were fixed in a frame of the same metal. The stool below was placed in such a manner, that the head only of the diver, when he stood upon it, rose above the surface of the water in the bell. . . . Triewald arranged his apparatus so that when the diver had breathed as long as possible in the upper air, he found at the side of the bell a spiral pipe, through which he could draw in the lower cool air which was over the surface of the water. To the upper end of this copper pipe was affixed a pliable leather one, with an ivory mouth-piece, . . . [through which the diver could] inspire fresh air, in whatever position his body might be. In 1776, Mr. Spalding of Edinburgh made some improvements in Dr. Halley's diving-bell, for which he was rewarded by the Society of Arts. His diving-bell was made of wood, and was so light, that, with the divers and the weights attached to its rim, it would not sink; the weight necessary to counteract its buoyancy being added in the form of a large balance-weight, suspended from its centre by a rope. . . . By letting the weight down to the bottom, the divers could, as it were, anchor the bell at any required level, or prevent its further descent. . . . Mr. John Farey, junior, made an improve-

ment in Spalding's apparatus. The upper chamber of the diving-bell is very strong and air-tight, without any openings for the admission of water. Two pumps are fixed in the partition, by which air may be forced into the upper chamber, whenever, during a pause in the descent, the lower chamber of the cavity of the bell is replenished with air. By this means, the upper chamber is made a reservoir of condensed air, from which the bell may be replenished with air, when it is desired to increase its buoyancy, by forcing out the water from the lower part. . . . Smeaton first employed the diving-bell in civil engineering operations in repairing the foundations of Hexham bridge in 1779. The bell was made of wood, and was supplied with air by means of a forcing-pump; . . . the river being shallow, the top of the bell was not covered with water. In 1788 he used a cast-iron one in repairing Ramsgate harbour; a forcing-pump in a boat supplied air through a flexible tube. . . . [Afterwards it was] frequently used by Rennie and others in submarine operations. . . . In addition to the various forms of diving-bell, different water- and air-tight dresses have been invented to enable divers to remain in the water and perform various operations. Thus, Dr. Halley invented a leaden cap which covered the diver's head; it had glass before it, and contained as much air as was sufficient for two minutes, and had affixed to it a thick pliable pipe, with the other end fastened to the bell, and which, at the cap, was furnished with a valve to convey fresh air to the diver from the bell. This pipe, which the diver was obliged to wind round his arm, served him also as a guide to find his way back to the bell. . . . M. Klingert . . . invented a similar . . . apparatus, and described it in a pamphlet published at Breslau in 1798. The armour was made of tin-plate, in the form of a cylinder, with a round end to enclose the head and body; also a leather jacket with short sleeves, and a pair of water-tight drawers of the same, buttoned on the metal part, where they joined, and were made tight by brass hoops. Two distinct flexible pipes terminated in the helmet, and rose to the surface of the water; one was for inhaling, and terminated in an ivory mouthpiece, the other was for the escape of foul air. The body was kept down by weights. Another method of supply air to the apparatus was used by Mr. Tonkin in 1804. This consisted in the application of a bellows or pump, until the elastic force of the air was equal to the pressure of the water, the foul air being allowed to escape into the water through a valve, or conducted to the surface by a pipe."—J. Beckman and W. Johnston, *History of inventions, pp.* 118-123.

Industry: Iron and steel.—Paper.—Weaving.—Loom.—Spinning jenny.—Cotton gin.—The Catalan bellows and primitive open hearths proved inadequate as the demand for iron increased, and were gradually developed into blast furnaces of the German and Walloon type. In 1750 water power came into use, for propulsion of the bellows, which at this time began to be made of wood. Taller stacks permitted greater production, and in 1788 fifteen and a half tons a week were produced as against eight tons a week, the output, in 1645, of the Lynn furnace, one of the best in the seventeenth century. "Charcoal was an expensive fuel, and, moreover, there was an insufficient supply because of the great destruction of forests necessary for its production. Naturally the thing to do was to substitute coal, which was plentiful. But the sulphur of the coal spoiled the iron. This proved to be a great barrier until 1783 when Henry Cort of England succeeded in making wrought iron in a new type of furnace wherein the iron was refined in one compartment while the fuel was made to furnish its heat from another; i.e., the fuel and the metal were not in contact and the refined metal did not suffer from the sulphur content of the coal. . . . In the one hundred and thirty-three years that have elapsed since it was designed, his furnace has been changed only in certain details, and but two important changes have been made in his process—the use of an iron bottom instead of the sand bed by S. B. Rogers in 1804 and the introduction of 'pig boiling' by Joseph Hall in 1830. Cort's process is known as 'dry puddling' and his trouble was the excessive loss of iron, due to his use of the sand bottom and the absence of a proper cinder. The loss was said to have been from 50% to 70% of the iron charged; i.e., it took about 2 tons of pig iron to make one ton of wrought iron. Because of the great demand for iron and the fact that he was using such a cheap fuel, coal, his process at that time was a success financially. But Cort did not stop here. He saw the desirability of a quicker and more economical method of reducing the 'blooms' or balls of iron into bars or other finished shapes than the hammering process up to that time used. He accomplished this by the use of power driven rolls, . . . These two inventions of Cort's were epoch making, though of the two the more important one was the invention of the rolls from which has developed the modern rolling mill."—L. W. Spring, *Non-technical chats on iron and steel, pp.* 95-96.

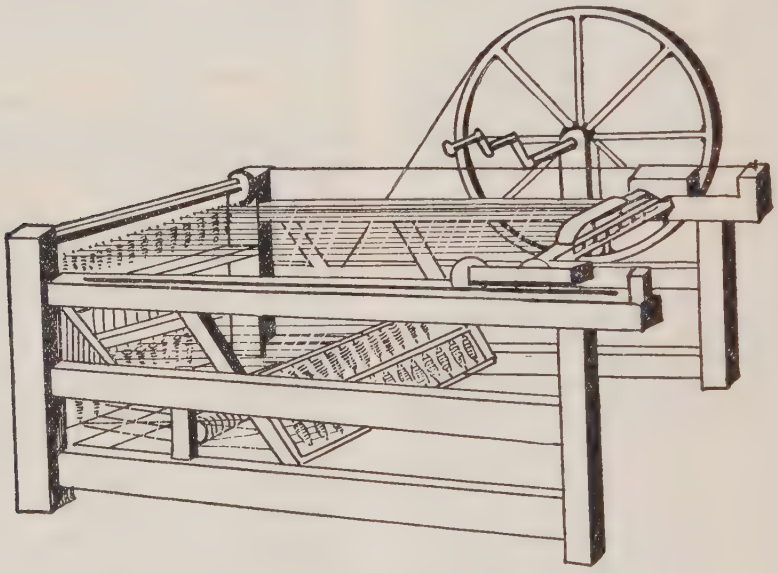
Cort's puddling furnace "introduced quite a new feature into the refining of iron, for up to that time the metal to be refined and the fuel used to develop the necessary heat were mixed together in the same hearth, hence only a pure fuel, such as charcoal, could be used. But in Cort's method the refining furnace is divided into three parts: (1) the grate in which the fuel is burnt; (2) the bed or hearth upon which the refining is carried on; and (3) the chimney for creating the necessary draught. In such a furnace, which belongs to the well-known reverberatory type, the chimney is at one end of the bed and the grate at the other; so that the flame and products of combustion from the grate must pass over the bed to reach the chimney, and by having a low and properly formed roof, materials placed on the bed can be raised to a high temperature without coming into contact with the fuel. . . . According to Prof. Gowland, furnaces based upon this principle were used for copper smelting as early as 1583, so that the form of furnace was well known in Cort's time."—J. W. Stansbie, *Iron and steel, p.* 119.

"The method of the very ancient steel makers, . . . was [generally speaking] essentially the same as that commonly in use up to comparatively modern times. The bar to be carbonized was heated in close contact with . . . [the fuel]. In later times this was done in a sort of double muffle furnace, and the cementation or carbonization was more even and complete. Steels thus made however, were found to be only skin deep, so to speak; for since the carbon merely soaked in and combined with the iron nearest to it, evidently the central portion was less completely carbonized than the exterior. . . . This steel is not dense and uniform enough for fine tools. It was known for many centuries, however, that hammering (and later rolling) so as to 'work' it thoroughly, greatly improved the quality and usefulness for tool making of such 'cementation' steels. An improvement upon this method was that of breaking the bars into lengths, bundling them, and then welding to-

gether [into "shear steel." Double shear steel was made by repeating the process. But no amount of forging could eliminate the inequalities of carbonization until toward the middle of the eighteenth century a man named Huntsman (1740) melted his steel down again in a crucible, in order to make its texture uniform. This "cast," or "crucible" steel is still known by the trade name of crucible steel.]"—O. M. Becker, *High speed steel, p.* 7.—"Rolling iron and steel, in lieu of forging with the hammer is a modern process. To ensure the production of gold or silver coins of equal weights, the blanks from which they are pressed must be cut from sheets of metal of very regular thickness. To ensure this regularity Brulier, a Frenchman, in 1553, passed the sheet of metal between a pair of plain rolls. The invention of grooved rolls has usually been ascribed to the Englishman, Henry Cort, the inventor of the puddling process, who took out a patent for their use in the year 1783, but Mr. W. F. Durfee, in a most interesting account of early rolling mills, states that in the *Transactions of the Académie des Sciences for 1728* is described a remarkable reversing rolling mill, for rolling lead into sheets. . . . Mr. Durfee further quotes from a work by Christopher Polhem, who died in 1751, in which there is a description of the rolling of sections, as commonly practised in Sweden in his days. . . . In the early days of iron manufacture, before the method of using rolls for the purpose was devised, all plates and bars were . . . shaped out by the hammer and anvil, hand hammers being first employed and then tilt hammers driven by water wheels. Indeed to this day, the best Sheffield tool steel is all drawn down into bars by steam hammers."—F. W. Harbord and J. W. Hall, *Metallurgy of steel, v.* 2, *p.* 600.

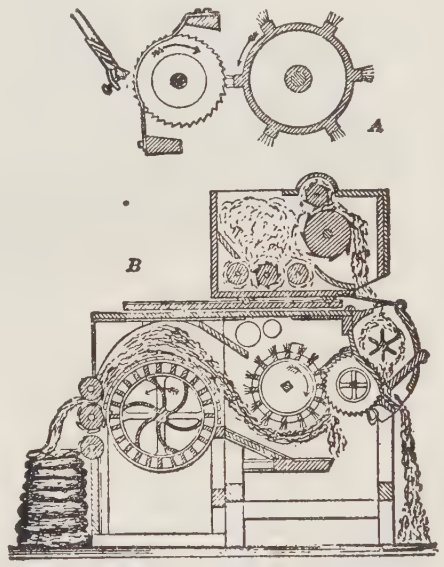
Also in: M. Keir, *Manufacturing interests in America, pp.* 118, 131-132.

"Improvements in the art [of paper making] were slow until 1760, when Whatman, whose name has since become famous in connection with paper, commenced operations at Maidstone. Meantime the methods by which the rags were converted into paper were exceedingly slow and clumsy, so that the output of finished paper was very small. . . . The most rapid development of the industry appears to have taken place in Holland, . . . [and] invention of the 'Hollander,' a simple yet ingenious [beating] engine which is deservedly known by the name of the country in which it first originated, gave a tremendous impetus to the art of papermaking, as by its means the quantity of material which could be treated in twenty-four hours was greatly increased. Unfortunately the date of the invention of this important machine has not been definitely traced. The earliest mention of it seems to occur in Sturm's 'Vollstandige Mühlen Baukunst,' published in 1718. It was in extensive use at Saardam in 1697, so that the invention is at least some years previous to 1690."—R. W. Sindall, *Manufacture of paper, pp.* 15-16.—Up to this time paper was made in a hand mould; but in the last years of the century an invention was made, by Nicholas Louis Robert, a Frenchman, which revolutionized the paper industry. The machine, however, was perfected in the nineteenth century, and properly belongs to that period. "Before 1755, all papers were made on a laid mould, woven wire moulds not being invented until that year, when they were introduced by Baskerville, the English printer. . . . Later inventions and improvements in the making of paper include the discovery of chlorine, in 1774, by Scheele, the bleaching action of chlorine gas, in 1785, by Berthellot (a Frenchman), soda-ash, by Leblanc, in 1791, and the introduction of bleaching powder, by Tennant of Glasgow, in 1800. In 1807, Moritz Illig, the son of a German clock-maker, introduced resin for the sizing of paper pulp."—H. A. Maddox, *Paper, p.* 13.—"It is hardly possible to realise that until the middle of the eighteenth century wind and water were the only means of obtaining power from the prodigal forces of Nature. Clothing, tools, weapons had been made, houses and ships had been built, and international trade had arisen, by hand labour and a few relatively unimportant waterfalls. The ruins along the narrow valleys east and west of the Pennine Chain indicate the birthplaces of the British textile industries, where once fitful streams drove the looms that wove the



HARGREAVES' SPINNING JENNY

fabrics for which Lancashire and Yorkshire have become famous."—E. Cressy, *Discoveries and inventions of the twentieth century, p.* 21.—"The year 1733 is a most important date in the development of the loom for in that year John Kay, a practical loommaker of Lancashire, England, invented the flying shuttle and thus did more for the loom than any man whom we can distinguish by name. To appreciate the great service of Kay we must recall how the shuttle was operated before his time. You remember it was thrown through the shed by one of the weaver's hands and caught and returned by the other hand. Sometimes it was caught and returned by a boy. This was at best a slow process and unless the weaver had an assistant to return the shuttle only narrow pieces could be woven. The common width of cloth, three-fourths of a yard, had its origin in necessity. The weaver's arms were not long enough to weave a wider piece. 'The essence of Kay's invention was that the shuttle was thrown from side to side by a mechanical device instead of being passed from hand to hand. One hand only was required for the shuttle while the other was left free to beat up the cloth (with the batten) after each throw, and the shuttle would fly across wide cloth as well as narrow.' . . . The profits of Kay's invention were stolen, his house was destroyed by a mob and he himself was driven to a foreign country where he died in poverty. Yet he deserves high rank among the benefactors of mankind, for the flying shuttle doubled the power of the loom and improved the quality of the cloth woven. Kay's invention was the first step in a great industrial revolution. The increased power of the loom called for more yarn than the old spinning wheel could supply."—S. E. Forman, *Stories of useful inventions, pp.* 117-119.—As the demand for cotton goods grew "the need arose for some method of drawing out the carded fleece at a regular rate which was independent of human skill. Hence was originated the system of drawing by rollers, with which the name of Arkwright is ordinarily associated, but which undoubtedly, found its originator in John Wyatt, of Birmingham, about the year 1738. Immediately following this was the invention of a method of carding cotton by a revolving cylinder, by Lewis Paul, of Birmingham, in 1748. . . . A few years after the invention by Paul, a machine constructed on this principle was introduced into Lancashire, and was adopted by Mr. Peel, the grandfather of Sir Robert Peel. He, however, employed Hargreaves to construct a machine in which more than one cylinder was used, and the rotation of these in contact carded the cotton."—J. Nasmith, *Students' cotton spinning, pp.* 12, 15.—"In 1770 James Hargreaves patented the spinning jenny, a frame with a number of spindles side by side, by which many threads could be spun at once instead of only one, as in the old, one-thread, distaff or spinning wheel. In 1771 Arkwright operated successfully in a mill a patent spinning machine which, because actuated by water power, was known as the 'water-frame.' [Later, in 1779, Crompton combined the spinning jenny and the water mill in a machine known as the spinning "mule."]"—W. J. Sedgwick and H. W. Tyler, *Short history of science, p.* 441.—"The next step was the provision of mechanical means for [carding]. . . . The apron feed was invented in 1772 by one John Lees, of Manchester, and shortly after Arkwright devised a method of forming the cotton into a lap to feed it, and the doffer to remove it. Therefore, at this early date, 1774, we have got evidence of the existence of a machine which possessed the essentials of to-day—a continuous feed, a continuous carding surface, and a continuous stripper. . . . In 1769 Arkwright's spinning machine saw the light, and, in addition to the rollers, it consisted of spindles driven by bands and having flyers upon their upper ends by which the yarn was twisted. The spindles had bobbins mounted upon them—in short, this machine was the progenitor and predecessor of the throstle or fly spinning frame which was so long in extensive employment."—J. Nasmith, *Students' cotton spinning, p.* 16.—"With the inventions just described facilities arose for the manufacture of cotton as well as woolen, but the supply of raw cotton was limited, chiefly because of the difficulty of separating the staple (fibres) from the seeds upon which they are borne. Cotton had for centuries been grown and manufactured in India, the fibres being separated from the seeds by a rude hand machine known as a *churka,* used by the Chinese and Hindus. By this it was impossible to clean cotton rapidly. The invention therefore in 1793



WHITNEY'S COTTON GIN
(Cross section, showing process)

by Eli Whitney of Connecticut of the saw cotton-gin which enormously facilitated this separation was one of the most important inventions ever made. This consisted in a series of saws revolving between the interstices of an iron bed upon which the cotton was so placed as to be drawn through while the seeds were left behind. The value of the saw gin was instantly recognized and the output of cotton in America was rapidly and immensely increased by its use."—W. J. Sedgwick and H. W. Tyler, *Short history of science, p.* 441.—See also INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: England: Inventions in textile industry; U. S. A.: 1793: Whitney's cotton gin.

Instruments: Improved telescope.—Gyroscope.—In 1720 John Hadley improved the Newtonian reflecting *telescope.* His instrument had a magnifying power of 125. In 1789 Herschel completed his forty foot telescope having a diameter of four feet. It weighed nearly 2118 pounds. The most celebrated of the reflecting telescopes was built by Lord Rosse in 1842. This instrument had a mirror which measured six feet, but is famous only for its size. The telescope was practically

useless to astronomers, although it had been the means of adding new satellites to the solar system, until the discovery of the achromatic telescope. It is generally regarded that Chester Moor Hall discovered this new instrument, although many regard John Dolland of London as the inventor. Hall, in 1733 constructed telescopes whose lenses being made of flint and crown glass, corrected the chromatic and diminished the spherical aberration. The discovery of this telescope Hall did not communicate to the world. In a trial at Westminster concerning the patent for making achromatic telescopes granted to John Dolland: Hall was admitted to have been the first inventor, but Lord Mansfield ruled that "it was not the person who locked his invention in his escritoire that ought to profit from such invention, but he who brought it forth for the benefit of the public." It was in 1758 that John Dolland independently discovered the achromatic telescope after several years of research.

"Let it be understood once for all that a gyroscope is merely a body whirling about an axis. A top such as every child plays with is a gyroscope; a hoop such as every child rolls is a gyroscope; the wheels of bicycles, carriages, or railway-cars are gyroscopes; and the earth itself, whirling about its axis, is a gyroscope. . . . The idea of giving steadiness to such instruments as telescopes and compasses on shipboard with the aid of gyroscopes originated half a century ago, and was put into fairly successful operation by Professor Piazzi Smyth (in 1856). More than a century earlier than that (in 1744), an effort was made to aid the navigator, by the use of a spinning-top with a polished upper surface, to give an artificial horizon at sea, that observations might be made when the actual horizon was hidden by clouds or fog. The inventor himself, Serson by name, was sent out by the British Admiralty to test the apparatus, and was lost in the wreck of the ship *Victory*. His top seemed not to have commended itself, . . . but it has been in use more or less ever since, particularly among French navigators."—H. S. Williams, *Every-day science, v. 7, pp.* 196, 217.

Measurement: Metric system.—In 1791 France appointed a committee consisting of "Lagrange, Laplace, Borda, Monge, and Condorcet, five illustrious members of the French Academy, to choose a natural constant from which a unit of measurement might be derived, that constant to serve for comparison or reference at need. They chose the world itself to yield the unit sought, and set on foot an expedition to ascertain the length of a quadrant, or quarter-circle of the earth, from the equator to the north pole, taking an arc of the meridian from Dunkirk to Barcelona, nearly nine and one-half degrees, as part of the required curve. When the quadrant had been measured, with absolute precision, as it was believed, its ten-millionth the actual horizon was hidden by clouds or fog. part, the *metre,* was adopted as the new standard of length. As the science and art of measurement have since advanced, it has been found that the measured quadrant is about 1472.5 metres longer than as reported in 1799 by the commissioners. Furthermore, the form of the earth is now known to be by no means the same when one quadrant is compared with another; and even a specific quadrant may vary from age to age both in contour and length as the planet shrinks in cooling, becomes abraded by wind and rain, rises or falls with earthquakes, or bends under mountains of ice and snow in its polar zones. All this has led to the judicious conclusion that there is no advantage in adopting a quadrant instead of a conventional unit, such as a particular rod of metal, preserved as a standard for comparison in the custody of authorities national or international. What gives the metric system pre-eminence is the simplicity and uniformity of its decimal system of notation. . . . The metre is organically related to all measures of length, surface, capacity, solidity, and weight. A cubic centimetre of water, taken as it melts in a vacuum, at 4° C., the temperature of maximum density, is the *gram* from which other weights are derived; this *gram* of water becomes a measure of capacity, the millilitre, duly linked with other similar measures. Surfaces are measured in square metres, solids in cubic metres. Simple prefixes are: deci-, one-tenth; centi-, one-hundredth; milli-, one-thousandth; deka-, multiplies a unit by ten; hecto-, by one hundred; kilo-, by one thousand; and myria-, by ten thousand. As long ago as 1660 Mouton, a Jesuit teacher of Lyons, proposed a metric system which should be unalterable because derived from the globe itself. Watt, the great improver of the steam engine, in a letter of November 14th, 1783, suggested a metric system in all respects such as the French commissioners eight years later decided to adopt. The nautical mile of 2029 yards has the honor of being the first standard based upon the dimensions of the globe. It was supposed to measure one-sixtieth part of a degree on the equator; the supposition was somewhat in error. Lord Kelvin, a master in the art of measurement, an inventor of electrical measuring instruments of the highest precision, as president of the British Association for the Advancement of Science in 1871, said: Accurate and minute measurement seems, to the non-scientific imagination, a less lofty and dignified work than looking for something new. But nearly all the grandest discoveries of science have been but the rewards of accurate measurement and patient, long-continued labor in the minute sifting of numerical results. The popular idea of Newton's grand discovery is that the theory of gravitation flashed upon his mind, and so the discovery was made. It was by a long train of mathematical calculation, founded on results accumulated through prodigious toil of practical astronomers, that Newton first demonstrated the forces urging the planets towards the sun, determined the magnitude of those forces, and discovered that a force following the same law of variation which distance urges the moon towards the earth. Then first, we may suppose, came to him the idea of the universality of gravitation; but when he attempted to compare the magnitude of the force on the moon with the magnitude of the force of gravitation of a heavy body of equal mass at the earth's surface, he did not find the agreement which the law he was discovering required. Not for years after would he publish his discovery as made. It is recounted that, being present at a meeting of the Royal Society, he heard a paper read, describing a geodesic measurement by Picard, which led to a serious correction of the previously accepted estimate of the earth's radius. This was what Newton required; he went home with the result, and commenced his calculations, but felt so much agitated that he handed over the arithmetical work to a friend; then [only] (and not when sitting in a garden he saw an apple fall) did he ascertain that gravitation keeps the moon in her orbit. Faraday's discovery of specific inductive capacity, which inaugurated the new philosophy, tending to discard action at a distance, was the result of minute and accurate measurement of electric forces. Joule's discovery of a thermo-dynamic law, through the regions of electro-chemistry, electro-magnetism, and elasticity of

gases was based on a delicacy of thermometry which seemed impossible to some of the most distinguished chemists of the day. Andrews' discovery of the continuity between the gaseous and the liquid states was worked out by many years of laborious and minute measurement of phenomena scarcely sensible to the naked eye.' It is with these examples before them that investigators take the trouble to weigh a mass in a vacuum, to watch the index of a balance through a telescope at a distance of twelve feet, or use an interferometer to space out an inch into a million parts. Their one desire is to arrive at truth as nearly as they can, to bring grounds of disagreement to the vanishing point, and ensure exactness in all the computations based on their work."—G. Iles, *Inventors at work, pp.* 210-212.

Automobile: Early experiments in France, England and America. See AUTOMOBILES: 1678-1803; 1780-1824.

Submarines of Bushnell and Fulton.—Hand-power propulsion. See SUBMARINES: 1624-1815.

Balloons and dirigibles.—Early experiments. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1783-1784.

Steam engines.—Experiments of Newcomen and Cawley.—Watt's improvements. See STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Development of steam engines up to Watt's time; Watt's improvements.

Steamboat.—Beginnings of steam navigation for ocean transportation.—Robert Fulton's steamboat and its influence on national development. See STEAM NAVIGATION: Beginnings; COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1770-1921; U. S. A.: 1793: Whitney's cotton-gin.

Organ.—"Organs of two manuals were sometimes called double organs. . . . When there was a third manual it acted on the 'Echo' organ. The pipes of this organ, which were always small, were placed in a closed box, with the result that they sounded as if they were at a distance. . . . In 1712 Abraham Jordan [in England] fitted the front of the echo box with a sliding shutter, which, being opened or closed by a rope attached to a pedal, gave a kind of *crescendo* and *diminuendo* effect. This invention, . . . marks an important epoch in the history of the organ. . . . In 1787 and 1788 Green built two organs with horizontal bellows, in which a square reservoir rose horizontally when wind was pumped in from the feeder. . . . Previous to this all organs had been provided with diagonal bellows, the upper plate of which was hinged on one side."—C. F. A. Williams, *Story of the organ, pp.* 138, 142.

CRISTOFORI'S PIANO, 1720
Metropolitan Museum, New York

Piano.—"Down to the end of the sixteenth century, though the strings were multiplied, the name monochord was still used, and though the range of the instrument had reached twenty-four

notes, the strings were still tuned in unison. Gradually, however, the strings for the acuter tones were shortened by a bridge placed diagonally across the sound-board, this contrivance being borrowed, it is said, from another keyed instrument, called the clavicymbal which was, in effect, a triangular system of strings to which a mechanical device had been applied which plucked or snapped the strings, somewhat in imitation of a harp player. . . . Two hundred years ago [in the early eighteenth century] the perfection of instruments of the clavier class—that is, instruments with strings played upon by manipulation of keys—was thought to have been reached. . . . Imperfect and weak as it was, the clavichord had yet the capacity in some degree to augment and diminish the tone at the will of the player. . . . Attempts at improvement seem to have been directed to the jacks. . . . The principle, however, always remained the same, and the defect [of the instrument, which was fundamental] was never remedied: the jacks twanged the strings, and twanged them with uniform loudness."—H. E. Krehbiel, *Pianoforte and its music, pp.* 17-22.—"The instrument which gradually superseded the clavichord in England was the virginal. It was an improvement upon the clavicytherium, to which it was very similar, brass wire being substituted for the catgut strings. . . . The English spinet was similar to the virginal except in its shape, which was nearly that of the harp laid horizontally, supposing the clavier or keyboard to be placed on the outside of the trunk or sounding-board. . . . Handel's favourite harpsichord-maker was Hans Ruckers, who in 1585 was the inventor of the third string tuned to the octave, and who extended the compass to nearly five octaves. Besides Ruckers and his family, the principal harpsichord-makers were Geronimo, of Florence, Coushetti and Tabel. Merlin changed the octave stop to a third unison about the year 1770, which rendered the instrument equally powerful and less likely to get out of tune, the octave stop being affected by the least change of temperature."—E. Brinsmead, *History of the pianoforte, pp.* 91, 94-95, 103, 109.—The piano was actually invented early in the eighteenth century. The invention has been claimed for at least three persons; but the honor for having first worked it out is generally awarded to Cristofori. "In England the invention is claimed for Father Wood, an English Monk at Rome, who manufactured a pianoforte in 1711, and sold it to Samuel Crisp, Esq., the author of 'Virginia,' from whom it was purchased by Fulke Greville, Esq. . . . The best authenticated is that of the Italians; for, in 1711, Bartolomeo Cristofori, sometimes called Cristofali, a native of Padua, had already manufactured three pianos."—*Ibid., p.* 109. —Other authorities claim independent invention by two or more makers. "The three men to whom I have left the honor of being independent inventors of the pianoforte are the Italian, Bartolommeo Cristofori; the Frenchman, Marius, and the German, Christopher Gottlieb Schröter. . . . Cristofori's invention takes precedence of the others in time. This has been established, after much controversy, beyond further dispute. In 1709 he exhibited specimens of harpsichords, with hammer-action, capable of producing *piano* and *forte* effects, to Prince Ferdinando dei Medici, of whose instruments of music he was custodian at Florence, and two years later—that is, in 1711—his invention was fully described and the description printed, not only in Italy, but also in Germany. It embraces the essential features of the pianoforte action as we have it to-day—a row of hammers, controlled by keys, which struck the strings from below. . . . In February, 1716, the Frenchman, Marius, submitted two models for a 'Harpsichord with Hammers' (*Clavecin à Maillets*) to the Académie. . . . [To Sebastien Erard, a French manufacturer] perhaps, more than to any other individual, the fine interior mechanism of the piano is indebted; and the house founded by Sebastien Erard. . . . He may be said to have created the 'action' of the piano, though his devices have been subsequently improved upon by others. He found the piano in 1768 feeble and unknown; he left it, at his death in 1831, the most powerful, pleasing, and popular stringed instrument in existence."—J. Parton, *Triumphs of enterprise, ingenuity, and public spirit, pp.* 333, 336.

Photography. — "Photography is the child of optics and chemistry. As neither of these sciences attained anything like a full development until the . . . [nineteenth] century, it is not surprising that the art of taking photographs was unknown to our ancestors. And yet there are many facts that must have been known, even to the ancients, whose meaning, if rightly appreciated, would have led to the early discovery of the art of photography. For example, lenses are all but absolutely necessary to the taking of photographs, and a lens has been found among the ruins of Nineveh. . . . This lens is now in the British Museum. During the Middle Ages the manufacture and properties of simple lenses were well understood in Europe. . . . In 1727, J. H. Schulze actually obtained copies of writing by placing the written characters upon a level surface previously prepared with a mixture of chalk and silver-nitrate solution. The rays of sunlight passing through the translucent paper blackened the silver compound beneath, except where it was protected by the ink forming the letters, and thus a white copy upon a black ground was obtained. . . . [Charles William Scheele of Stralsund, in 1777, noted the behavior of silver chloride under the influence of differently colored lights, and also discovered the decomposing effect of light upon the chloride.] It was not till near the close of the eighteenth century that any one, with the exception, perhaps, of Schulze, seems to have thought of applying the changes of color produced by the action of light upon silver compounds to any practical purpose. And yet the instrument called the camera obscura had long been known, and those who gazed upon the beautiful pictures produced by its agency must often have longed to find some method by which they might be fixed and retained. Invented by the Italian philosopher Baptista Porta about the middle of the sixteenth century, the camera obscura at first consisted simply—as its name implies—of a darkened room to which light was admitted only through a single small hole in the window-shutter. In such a room, when the sun is shining brightly, a faint inverted image of external objects, as the houses, trees, etc., upon which the window looks, is seen upon the white surface of the wall or screen within the room which faces the window. Porta improved this primitive contrivance by placing a double convex glass lens in the aperture of the shutter, outside which a mirror was placed to receive the rays of light and reflect them through the lens. The image upon the screen within was thus made brighter and more distinct, and was moreover shown in a natural or erect position. Crowds flocked to Porta's house in Naples to see these pictures painted by light, glowing with color, and depicted with marvelous accuracy. Soon further improvements were made, and the camera obscura became a favorite adjunct to the country

houses of the wealthy. . . . The lens was then usually placed in the center of the conical roof, with a slanting mirror arranged so as to reflect the light from surrounding objects downward through the lens; the picture thus formed was received upon the whitened surface of a table placed within the little building. . . . Now the photographer's camera is a miniature camera obscura, being nothing more than a well-made box having a lens at one end and a ground glass screen at the other."—W. J. Harrison, *History of photography, pp.* 7-11.

19TH CENTURY

Artificial light and heat: Gas.—Oil.—Welsbach mantle.—Safety lamp.—Bunsen burner.—Oil as fuel.—"As soon as it was learned how to make gas cheaply, and conduct it safely from house to house, whole cities were rescued from darkness by the new illuminant. A considerable part of London was lighted by gas in 1815. Baltimore was the first city in the United States to be lighted by gas. This was in 1821. The gas-light proved to be so much better than even the best of lamps, that in towns and cities almost everybody who could afford to do so laid aside the old wick-lamp and burned gas."—S. E. Forman, *Stories of useful inventions, p.* 36.—Throughout the country, away from towns, however, people were still dependent chiefly upon candles until the introduction of mineral oil for lighting purposes in the middle of the eighteenth century. Owing to its strong gaseous qualities, the new oil could not be burned in the old, crude lamps without danger. Great improvements were made in lamp making to meet the new need, and rural lighting was quickly revolutionized. "The discovery by Dr. Auer von Welsbach in 1885 of the method of making the incandescent gas mantle, and the further discovery in 1892 of the use of the oxide of thorium with a trace of oxide of cerium for its composition, gave a method for developing light from coal gas which has so far surpassed any other way of burning it that the old forms of burner are now but little used."—V. B. Lewes, *Liquid and gaseous fuels, p.* 180.—In 1815, Humphrey Davy was appealed to by a committee of mine proprietors of northern England, to provide a method of overcoming the danger of the fire-damp detonations. Hitherto the coal-miner had to resort to the use of a steel-mill for his light in regions where the presence of fire-damp was suspected. In this contrivance the light was produced by the contact of a bit of flint with the edge of a wheel kept in rapid motion. In 1813, there appeared the "safety-lamp" of Dr. W. Reid Clanny based upon the principle of forcing in air through water by means of bellows. This proved impractical as it required a boy to work the bellows, the machine as a whole was complicated and ponderous, and much light was lost in passing through a glass cylinder used in the lower part instead of wire gauze. Davy started his investigations by a minute chemical examination of fire-damp. He ascertained that the carbureted hydrogen gas was still explosive although mixed with fourteen times its volume of atmospheric air, but that explosions of inflammable gases were incapable of passing through long narrow metallic tubes. These experiments served as a basis for the construction of the safety-lamp. Davy tells us in his work on the subject, that "the apertures in the gauze should not be more than 1/22nd of an inch square. The lamp is screwed on to the bottom of the wire gauze cylinder, and fitted by a tight ring when it is lighted, and gradually introduced into an atmosphere mixed with fire-damp, the size and length of the flame are at first increased. When the inflammable gas forms as much as 1/12th of the volume of air, the cylinder becomes filled with a feeble blue flame, within which the flame of the wick burns brightly; its light continues till the fire-damp increases 1/6th or 1/5th when it is lost in the flame of the fire-damp, which now fills the cylinder with a pretty strong light; but when the foul air constitutes 1/3rd of the atmosphere, it is no longer fit for respiration and this ought to be a signal for the miner to leave that part of the workings." The first communication respecting this discovery was made in 1815 to the Royal Society. On January 11, 1816, Davy announced the principle of the Safety-Lamp.

"As years passed by and coal gas asserted its position, some attempts were made to utilise it in burners for heating purposes. . . . It was at this epoch that Bunsen, the greatest of Heidelberg's great men, was planning and fitting . . . [the famous] laboratories which have since then given so rich a harvest to the scientific world, and whilst considering the methods of heating which should be adopted on the working benches, his attention was called by one of his assistants, . . . [afterwards] Sir Henry Roscoe, to Davy's experiment with the gauze and gas jet. Seeing at a glance the enormous convenience of such a source of heat, Bunsen brought his marvellous manipulative skill to bear upon the subject, and in a few weeks gave the world its 'bunsen burner,' a burner which has done more for the gas industry . . . than almost any discovery or invention connected with it; which has made coal gas possible and successful for fuel purposes [by the application of the principle to cooking and other stoves, heated by gas and gasoline]. . . . In the early form of burner made by Bunsen the gas issued from either a flat flame or an argand burner head into a metal cylinder open at the bottom and closed at the top by means of a disc of fine wire gauze, so that the gas issuing from the burner head passed upwards through the air in the cylinder and mixed with it, the mixture burning on the top of the gauze. . . . Very soon however it was found that a more rigid flame and one more easily under control could be obtained by utilising the pressure under which the gas was delivered at the burner to produce the effect of an injector, causing the uprush of the gas to drag the air in through side holes arranged in the bottom of a vertical burner tube placed above the gas nozzle."—V. B. Lewes, *Liquid and gaseous fuels, pp.* 189-191.—"When the idea of using liquid fuel for steam raising first arose, the methods which had served before for the generation of light and heat would undoubtedly be those to which the early investigators would turn first, and on a small scale wicks were employed in the combustion in order to draw up and gasify the oil. These soon proving inadequate, the next step was to make the bed of the furnace of porous material, and saturate that with the oil which was allowed to percolate through it. Such a method was introduced in 1864 by using steam to aid the action. . . . The next step was to burn the oil from a series of open troughs, so arranged that the unburnt oil flowed downwards from trough to trough. . . . As early as 1863 the methods which now are most extensively used began to be introduced, and consisted of bringing the oil into the combustion chamber either as a gas or in such a condition of finely divided spray as to ensure its rapid and complete combustion. . . . The idea of first gasifying the oil before burning seems to

have originated with Colonel Foote, of the United States. The United States gunboat *Palos* was in 1867 fitted for burning liquid fuel by him, and on her trial trip ran over 14 knots, whereas 8 knots per hour had been her previous best record with coal. . . . Soon after, a system of a similar character was patented by Simms and Barff, the oil being injected and vaporised in a retort placed in the furnace. . . . Several systems of this kind have been proposed, and also others in which the vaporisation of the oil should take place in retorts external to the fire-bars. The best known of these are those processes patented by C. Eames in 1875, and by Dürr. In the Eames system the oil was fed into an externally heated cylindrical retort with round ends, in which it flowed downwards over a series of horizontal iron plates whilst superheated steam was passed upwards, and being decomposed by the hydrocarbons at the high temperature, formed a mixture of what was practically oil-gas and water-gas, which was burnt as it issued from the vaporiser at suitable burners. . . . Perhaps the best known and most used of the burners [however] are those in which the oil is pulverised by steam, a method that was first used by Messrs. Aydon, Wise, and Field in 1865-7, the general principle being that the oil is led down to the injector by gravity, and there meets a steam jet, which drives it out from the nozzle of the injector with high velocity and in a fine state of division, whilst the outrush of the steam and oil is usually made to suck in air around the jet to aid the combustion in the furnace."—*Ibid., pp.* 111-113, 115, 117-118.—See also ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric lighting.

Davy's electric arc.—Jablochkoff candle.—Incandescent light.—Brush arc lamp. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric lighting: 1810-1876; 1841-1921; 1876.

Storage cell.—Electric furnaces.—Thermo-electric industries. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1803-1905; 1815-1921.

Oersted, Ampère, and the discovery of the electro-magnet.—Further development.—Dynamo-electrical machines.—Transformers.—Alternating current instruments.—Electric welding. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1820-1825, to 1856-1889.

Industry: Aluminium, glass, weaving, India rubber, paper, rope, iron and steel.—"Baron, a professor of chemistry in Paris, is our first recorded experimenter on the isolation of **aluminium.** In 1760 he communicated a memoir to the Academy in which he said: . . . 'I believe the base of alum to be of a metallic nature' . . . [and] then proceeds to say that he had tried all known methods of reducing this base, but without result. . . . [Baron was followed by Austrian, German and Italian chemists also without result; but early in the nineteenth century Humphrey Davy began experiments with electricity and established the fact that] alumina can be decomposed while fluid in the electric arc, and its metal alloyed with iron. Davy next mixed alumina with potassium and iron filings. . . . On melting this mixture a button resulted which was white and harder than iron, and was undoubtedly an alloy of iron and aluminium, but Davy could not separate the two metals. . . . Prof. Benj. Silliman was in 1813 repeating Hare's experiment of fusing alumina with the oxy-hydrogen blowpipe. The alumina was supported on charcoal, and he noticed small metallic globules rolling and darting out from under the fused mass and burning with a bright light. These globules could have been nothing else than aluminium reduced from fluid alumina by charcoal. The metal burnt, however, almost instantly, and no globules could be obtained. The Swedish chemist Oersted believed, in 1824, that he had isolated aluminium. . . . [with the help of potassium, which] however, when amalgamated with mercury is not powerful enough to reduce aluminium chloride . . . and so Oersted missed, by a very little, the honor of first isolating aluminium. . . . [Berzelius claimed in 1825 that he had reduced the metal; but it is probable that he was mistaken.] In 1827, Frederick Wöhler, Professor of Chemistry at the University of Göttingen, . . . by using pure potassium as the reducing agent, . . . obtained a grey, metallic powder, which was finely-divided aluminium. He was unable to melt this powder into a button, . . . but he described many of its chemical properties, and produced from it some aluminium compounds which had not been before made, such as the sulphide and arsenide. . . . In 1845, on making vapor of aluminium chloride pass over potassium placed in platinum boats, Wöhler obtained the metal in small malleable globules of metallic appearance, from which he was able to determine the principal properties of aluminium. But the metal thus obtained was scarcely as fusible as cast iron, without doubt because of the platinum with which it had alloyed during its preparation. . . . The second birth of aluminium, the time at which it stepped from the rank of a curiosity into the number of the useful metals, dates from the labors of [H. St. Clair] Deville in 1854. If Wöhler was the discoverer of aluminium, Deville was the founder of the aluminium industry. In commencing researches on aluminium, Deville, while he applied the method of Wöhler, was ignorant of the latter's results of 1845. . . . [After he had succeeded in isolating the metal in almost perfect purity, Deville announced his intention of searching for a process which would permit of its economical production on a large scale. The Academy assisted him in his project with the sum of fr. 2000 and shortly after he announced that] he had produced aluminium without alkaline help, and sent a leaf of the metal thus obtained. . . . Towards the middle of 1854 Deville turned to sodium. . . . On August 14, 1854, . . . [he] read a paper before the Academy describing his electrolytic methods at length, showing several small bars of the metal, and also stating some of the results already achieved by the use of sodium. . . . Several days before this, Bunsen published in Poggendorff's Annalen a process for obtaining aluminium by the battery, which resembled Deville's method, but of which the latter was ignorant when he read his paper. Thus it is evident that the isolation of aluminium by electrolysis was the simultaneous invention of Deville and Bunsen. . . . [Napoleon III, emperor who desired a light metal for use in army equipment, authorized further experiments at his own expense. These experiments were carried on at Javel and on June 18, 1855, Deville presented to the Academy large bars of pure aluminium.] It was the metal made at this time at Javel which was exhibited at the Paris Exposition in 1855. . . . [At first the expense of reducing the new metal was so great that it precluded all possibility of using it in the industrial arts and only small amounts were produced. The Mining Magazine of 1856 stated that Deville had extracted fifty to sixty pounds of aluminium within two years, and that it sold at $100 a pound. In 1862 the price had been brought down by Bell Bros., English manufacturers, to 40 shillings a troy pound (12 oz.); and by 1867 difficulties in its production had been so far overcome that it was made into sheets, wire, manufactured

articles, and used as an alloy in making bronze.] In 1881 and 1882 James Webster an English manufacturer introduced improvements, organized a company and commenced production on a large scale. [In 1886 H. Y. Castner, of New York City] conceived the plan of reducing sodium compounds in cast-iron pots, from a fused bath of caustic soda, by which the reduction is performed at a much lower temperature, and the yield of sodium is very much more than by the Deville method. The application of this process on a large scale, with the use of gas furnaces and other modern improvements, . . . lowered the cost of sodium from $1 per pound to about 20 or 25 cents [written in 1895]. . . . The first small pencils of aluminium made by Deville were obtained by electrolysis, and . . . he turned back to the use of the alkaline metals solely because the use of the battery to effect the decomposition was far too costly to be followed industrially. . . . [Several attempts to perfect an electrolytic process were made. In October 1888 a company with works near Bremen, produced 12,000 kilos a year for about two years before its business in aluminium declined. In 1889 C. M. Hall of Oberlin, Ohio, patented a new] electrolytic method, different in principle from both the preceding. . . . The principle involved is the electric decomposition of alumina, dissolved in a fused bath of the fluorides of aluminium and other bases, the current reducing the dissolved alumina without affecting the solvent. This method is essentially different from any of the previous electrical processes, which contemplated and operated simply the decomposition of a molten aluminium salt, such, for instance, as the solvent used by Mr. Hall. [A company was formed to use this patent. It obtained an immediate success, and in the short space of five years the United States sprang to first place as an aluminium producing country.]"—J. W. Richards, *Aluminium, pp.* 3, 5-11, 13, 22, 24-25.

Also in: P. Moissonnier, *L'Aluminium.*

The nineteenth century saw **weaving machinery** brought to a high pitch of perfection. The spinning "mule" proved so successful that a power loom was soon called for. In response Cartwright's power loom appeared, but though it was first brought out in 1785, it was at first so incomplete that it was little used until about 1813, and properly belongs to the nineteenth century. After the invention of the power loom came "the invention of Joseph Jacquard of Lyons, France. This very ingenious man in 1801 invented a substitute for the heddle. We cannot readily understand the workings of Jacquard's wonderful 'attachment,' as his substitute for the heddle is called, but we ought to know what the great Frenchman did for the loom. . . . He made it weave into the cloth whatever design, color or tint one might desire. He made the loom a mechanical artist rivaling in excellence the work of a human artist. The Jacquard loom has brought about a revolution in man's, and especially in woman's dress. With the old loom, colors and designs could be woven into cloth but only very slowly, and goods with fancy patterns were made at a cost that was so great that only the rich could afford to buy. . . . With Jacquard's attachment the most beautiful figures can be cheaply woven into the commonest fabrics."—S. E. Forman, *Stories of useful inventions, pp.* 120, 122.—"From 1850 onwards—with the exception of the electric Jacquard and certain most interesting methods of pile weaving—no marked advances in the general form of the machinery employed in the textile industries are to be noted. . . . The development of a pile weaving and of pile machinery may briefly be summed up as follows: The printed warp pile fabric was introduced by Mr. R. Whytock about 1832. This was followed by the Chenille Axminster—in which the colours were woven in—about 1839. From 1844 to 1850 the power wiring loom was developed in the United States and introduced into Great Britain. From 1856 to 1867 the power 'tufting' or Axminster loom was developed, and finally in 1878, Lord Masham succeeded in weaving two pile fabrics face to face, the pile stretching between an under and upper ground texture being severed in the loom by a knife which traverses from side to side with this object. From 1890 to 1910 the chief innovations have had reference to the cutting of weft-pile fabrics in the loom, the introduction of the looping or cutting wires through the reed, . . . and certain marked improvements in the mechanism for producing Chenille Axminster fabrics."—A. F. Baker, *Textiles, pp.* 12, 14.—See also Commerce: Commercial Age: 1766-1921.

The art of **glass making** was introduced into America by the colonists in the seventeenth century; but it is said that the first successful glass factory was opened in Boston in 1787. "One of the most important inventions of recent times, especially in the line of cheapening glassware, has been the production of what is generally known as pressed glass [a purely American invention]. It is undoubtedly true that glass was pressed before the invention of the American lever-press, and one of the earliest specimens, bearing an inscription from which its date may be ascertained, is the lion's head, now in the Slade collection in the British museum, which was found many years ago at Thebes. This is evidently a piece of pressed glass, or glass pressed in a mold. . . . There is no doubt that the Venetians were acquainted with pressed glass; but, notwithstanding this, the invention of what is now known as pressed glass is undoubtedly American. . . . The invention of the American press is ascribed to a Massachusetts carpenter in the town of Sandwich, about 1827, who, wanting an article of glassware made for some purpose, went to Mr. Deming Jarves and asked him if he could make the article desired. Mr. Jarves told him that it would be impossible for the glass-blowers to make such an article. The carpenter . . . asked if a machine could not be made to press glass into any shape. This idea was scouted at first, but upon second thought Mr. Jarves and the carpenter fashioned a rude press and made their first experiment. This machine was intended to make tumblers, and when the hot molten glass was poured into the mold, which was to determine whether glass could be pressed, the experiment was witnessed by many glass-makers of that time. . . . From that time the manufacture of articles of glass by the use of pressing machines gradually developed, until . . . the bulk of the glassware produced in this country . . . [was] made with presses."—J. D. Weeks, *Report on the manufacture of glass, p.* 58.—Wire glass, an invention of the last decade of the nineteenth century, was first patented by Frank Shuman in 1892. It is made by rolling red-hot, woven screen wire into molten glass, which has been poured over a long table made of cast iron or steel. The machinery devised for carrying the wire runs on tracks laid on each side of the table. It is equipped with four rollers, the first to spread out the glass and smooth it; the second to press the wire into the glass body, and the other two to smooth and harden the cooling plate. "The industrial application of **Indian-rubber** is entirely

modern. The substance itself appears, however, to have been known to the natives of Peru from time immemorial, and to have been used for the preparation of some kind of garments. Although the first specimens were sent to Europe so long ago as 1736, and the substance was from that time submitted to many investigations, no other use was found for it up to the year 1820 than to efface from paper the marks made by pencils. From this it derives the name by which it is commonly known. It has also been called 'gum elastic,' and *caoutchouc* from the Indian name. Crude caoutchouc is the product obtained by the spontaneous solidifying of the milky juice of certain tropical plants—such as the *Hævea elastica, Fatropha elastica,* and the *Siphonia cautshu.* The first grows chiefly in South America, and in the basin of the Amazon forms immense forests. . . . The extreme elasticity and extensibility of this singular substance . . . [attracted] the attention of practical men in England, Scotland, and France. One of the earliest patents obtained in . . . [England] for applications of caoutchouc was taken out by Mr. Thomas Hancock, of Newington, in 1820. . . . His first patent was for the use of Indian-rubber for the wrists of gloves, for braces, for garters, for boots and shoes instead of laces, and for other similar purposes. . . . He soon noticed and utilized the fact that two clean freshly-cut surfaces of caoutchouc, when pressed together, cohere and unite perfectly. This further led him to devising a machine by which all the waste cuttings and parings might be worked up. . . . While Hancock was thus successful in mechanically working Indian-rubber, Macintosh, of Glasgow, found means of effecting its solution by coal-naphtha, and he obtained, in 1823, a patent for the application of his discovery to the fabrication of waterproof garments. Waterproof cloth, or 'Mackintosh,' is prepared by varnishing one side of a suitable fabric with a solution of caoutchouc, or by covering one side of a cloth with a thin film, and then bringing it into contact with a second piece similarly prepared—the two caoutchouc layers becoming incorporated when the double cloth is passed between rollers. Other solvents for Indian-rubber have been discovered in ether, chloroform, sulphide of carbon, and rectified turpentine. . . . Mr. Hancock relates that when the manufacturers had overcome all obstacles, and had succeeded in producing thin, light, pliable, and perfectly waterproof fabrics, they had to encounter another quite unexpected difficulty—the tailors set their faces against the new material, and could not be induced to make it up! The manufacturers were, therefore, obliged themselves to fashion waterproof garments, and retail them to the public. This, however, turned out to be a benefit, for the seams were made waterproof, so as to exclude even the little water which would otherwise pass in by capillary attraction at the stitches. . . . A modification of caoutchouc, possessing very valuable qualities for many purposes, was discovered by Mr. Charles Goodyear, and largely applied by him in the United States to the fabrication of waterproof boots. In 1842 these boots were imported into Europe, and it was seen that this form of the material had the advantages of not sticking to other bodies at any ordinary temperatures, and of preserving its elasticity even in the coldest weather, whereas ordinary Indian-rubber becomes rigid by cold. The cut edges of this variety of caoutchouc do not cohere by pressure. Mr. Goodyear attempted to keep his process a secret; but Mr. Hancock, having soon detected the presence of sulphur in the American preparations, set to work to discover how that substance was made to combine with the caoutchouc. He succeeded, and he obtained a patent for sulphurizing Indian-rubber before the original inventor had applied for one. . . . This transformation effected by sulphur Mr. Hancock called *vulcanization;* and *vulcanized Indian-rubber* is now employed in nearly all the innumerable applications of caoutchouc, provided the presence of sulphur is not absolutely objectionable. Goodyear's process [however] . . . gives better results than Hancock's process, because the sulphurization is more uniform, and this method is therefore more largely employed. When the various articles have been fabricated in the ordinary manner from the mixture of caoutchouc and sulphur, they are enclosed in vessels, where they are submitted for two or three hours to the action of steam under a pressure. . . . A still easier method, due to Mr. Parkes, consists in steeping the articles (which in this case should be thin) in a solution of one part of chloride of sulphur in sixty of bisulphide of carbon. The object becomes vulcanized by simple exposure to the air, without the aid of heat. But this process is said to be liable to cause the article afterwards to become brittle. The addition of oxide of zinc, carbonate of lead, and other substances, is found to yield a product better adapted for certain purposes than one in which only sulphur is used. The list of applications of vulcanized Indian-rubber would be a very long one; but as a great number of these applications must be known to everybody, it will be unnecessary to specify them. . . . When the proportion of sulphur mixed with the caoutchouc is increased to 25 or 35 per cent., another product having qualities entirely different from those of vulcanized Indian-rubber is obtained when the mixture is heated. This is the jet-black substance termed *ebonite* or *vulcanite,* which is made into such articles as combs, paper-knives, buttons, canes, portions of ornamental furniture, and plates of electrical machines. It is in many cases an excellent substitute for horn and for whalebone, while for insulating supports, &c., in electric apparatus, it is unrivalled. It has a full black colour and takes a bright polish; and it may be cut, or filed, or moulded."—R. Routledge, *Discoveries and inventions of the nineteenth century, pp.* 594-597.

"In the year 1798, Nicolas Louis Robert, formerly a printer's reader in the employ of Francois Didot, and afterwards a clerk inspector in the Essonnes Paper Mills, belonging to St. Leger Didot, invented a machine for making paper in lengths of 12 to 15 metres. A year later, the first effort to turn out paper on the new model was made at the Essonnes Paper Mill. . . . In 1799, Didot proposed to his brother-in-law, John Gamble, an Englishman, to take up the capitalisation of the patent in England. With this object in view, Didot, in 1800, crossed the Channel (although at this period France and England were at enmity) and came into touch with Henry and Sealey Fourdrinier, two prosperous London stationers, whose sympathy in the idea of the paper-machine had been enlisted by Gamble. . . . Gamble, in 1808, turned over the whole of his interest in the machine, and the Fourdriniers were left to continue the development of the patent. . . . [They] expended the whole of their private fortune (some £60,000, it is supposed) in the improvement of the machine; . . . [but] became bankrupt, went out of business, and ultimately died almost without means, a small allowance being granted to Henry from a fund raised by *The Times.* In 1809, Mr. J. Dickinson . . . invented the Cylinder paper-machine, and in

1821 drying cylinders were added to the Fourdrinier machine. Before this date, the Fourdrinier contained no suction apparatus or drying arrangement, hence the paper was reeled in a wet state, necessitating cutting in sheets for loft-drying."—H. A. Maddox, *Paper, pp.* 8-9.—"Mattias Koops, . . . in 1801, 'succeeded in making the most perfect paper from straw, wood and other vegetables, without the addition of any other known paper stuff.' He printed a book upon the fabric from these materials, and concerning them, from which Munsell gathered many facts for his Chronology. During a rag famine in Germany, in 1756, an attempt had been made to use straw in the paper manufacture, and a book was published giving a plan for reducing all vegetables to pulp. . . . In 1824, Louis Lambert, a Frenchman, took out a patent for an improved method of reducing straw to pulp and extracting the coloring and other deleterious matter, so that it could be used in the ordinary rag engine. In 1827, Wm. Magaw of Meadville, Pa., patented a mode of preparing hay, straw, and similar substances for making paper. . . . Louis Bomeisler of Philadelphia, in 1829, obtained a patent for making straw writing paper, white and handsome. . . . In 1854 a practical chemist exhibited in New York a superior quality of paper made entirely from straw and other grasses, claiming to have discovered a process of freeing them from their silex and other detrimental substances. In 1855 the Saratoga *Whig* was printed upon paper made three-fourths of straw."—J. E. A. Smith, *History of paper, pp.* 97-99, 101.

The manufacture of paper had begun in the United States long before this time. Some authorities say the first mill was erected in 1690 to provide paper for an enterprising Boston printer; others state that manufacture of rag paper by hand was started in Troy, New York, in 1794, and that the first steam-mill commenced operations at Pittsburgh in 1817. "By 1842 there were some 50,000 persons employed in the paper-mill industry in the country, producing paper annually of the value of $15,000,000. Pulp-straw made its appearance in 1857, being manufactured at Fort Edward, New York. By the time the Civil War broke out newspapers were using this straw-paper very largely, the price of rye straw increasing from $6 to $20 a ton. Poor and brittle as this paper was, and hard on printers' type, yet the newspapers were glad to get it at from twelve to twenty-six cents a pound during the war. Newspaper circulations were largely stimulated by the political excitement culminating in 1861, and as a result the product of our paper-mills began to exceed that of Great Britain and France. A boom in paper-making came with the introduction of wood-paper about 1870-75. At first wood-paper was regarded as a cheap article comparable with straw-paper; but, as its merits were better understood and as the makers learned improved ways of strengthening and finishing, its popularity began to grow, and to-day ninety-nine one-hundredths of the world's paper made is of wood, fine papers designed for the higher grade of artistic printing being manufactured from wood-pulp and depending upon sizing and calendering for their beauty."—C. H. Cochrane, *Modern industrial progress, pp.* 389-390.

Also in: R. W. Sidall, *Manufacture of paper, pp.* 16-19.—L. H. Weeks, *History of paper manufacturing in the United States.*

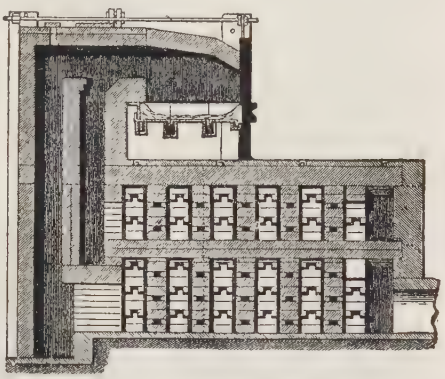
Up to very recent times little change was made in the primitive mode of manufacturing **rope and cordage.** As time went on heavier and heavier ropes were made, but they were laid by hand, in rope walks such as that described by Longfellow, until quite late in the nineteenth century. The spinning wheel and hackle were no doubt introduced almost as early as they were used for the textile manufacture, and later spindles (whirls) with hooks were attached to the framework in such a manner that they gave a twist to the yarn as the spinner walked backward down the long walk, paying out the fibre as he went. Cords made by this primitive process were again twisted with a reverse motion into small rope with the help of the whirls, and at some time horse power was introduced to "lay" and "close" heavy rope. "It was only towards the end of the 18th century that this useful branch of manufacture engaged the attention of the scientific men, and began to be conducted on scientific principles. . . . Between the years 1783 and 1807, no fewer than twenty-two patents were taken out for improvements in the art, and for machines of various descriptions. . . . It may be sufficient to state, that the one invented by Captain Huddart of London, constructed on highly scientific principles, was greatly approved of, and obtained the highest celebrity. This plan was introduced into Greenock in 1802 . . . but was in some measure superseded a few years after by [a method of simpler construction]. . . . For this improvement on Captain Huddart's plan we believe we are indebted to Mr. W. Chapman of Newcastle. . . . The usual process of hand-spinning was considered very defective. . . . Endeavours were accordingly made to obviate this defect also. . . . Mr. [James] Lang, who had for many years directed his attention to the subject . . . got a set of machines constructed under his own direction, which, on repeated trial, were found completely to accomplish the object. By this invention, the regular spinning of the yarns, which had hitherto been prepared in a tedious and clumsy manner by hand-labour, is one object which has been effected; but this, although in itself important, is one of the least advantages. By the same plan, the hemp, to whatever purpose applied, being drawn over a succession of gills, or small hackles, is dressed [written in 1835] in the highest degree."—Macnab and Co., *Exposition of principles of Mr. James Lang's invention for spinning hemp into rope-yarns by machinery, pp.* 3-4, 5.—"A spinning and twisting mill for making cordage was patented in the United States in 1804. . . . In 1827 rope factories run by steam were started in Wheeling, Virginia, and at Cincinnati, Louisville, and St. Louis. At the same time there was in use in . . . [the United States] a machine in which the threads on revolving spools passed through perforated iron plates, and then through an iron tube, of different diameters for various sized ropes. In 1834 a new machine was introduced in New York which spun rope-yarn from hemp without the preliminary hatcheling. . . . This was the process of rope-making up to fifty years ago [written in 1872], and horse-power was employed to twist the strands into ropes. The first machines for twisting the hand-spun yarns into strands and ropes were imported from England; but, in 1834, American ingenuity devised a machine for spinning the yarns, and numerous other inventions, greatly facilitating all the processes which are now wholly conducted by machinery, soon followed."—H. Greeley, *Great industries of the United States, pp.* 286, 287.—Steam driven spinning machines were introduced as early as 1838 into the United States. "A way was found to adapt the machines to the spinning of Russian and American hemps which could not

at first be handled as successfully as Manila because of their somewhat softer texture. About 1848 the self-feeding device came into use. As the years passed, still other improvements were invented and utilized, giving us the highly perfected machine of today. Under favorable working conditions the only interruption in the spinning process, as now carried on, is the removal of the full bobbin and the substitution of a fresh one. A bobbin will hold as much as half a mile of yarn which will weigh in the neighborhood of ten pounds—the length and weight of the load varying with different sizes of yarn."—*Plymouth Products, no.* 11, *Feb.,* 1913, *pp.* 4-5.—Cables are still laid in rope walks [by machinery]; but unlike the old method of laying, "there are two methods to the modern system: that in which the strands are formed on one type of machine and twisted into a rope on another; and that in which both operations are performed on a single machine."—*Plymouth Products, no.* 14, *May,* 1913, *p.* 3.—"The application of wires in the form of ropes for engineering purposes was first introduced in 1813 for use as supporting ropes on the Geneva suspension bridge. They were, however, not constructed in what today would be strictly classed as wire rope, but were formed of a series of wires laid parallel with one another and bound together by means of smaller wires which in turn were covered with tarred yarn. . . . At a later date, 1835, some ropes of this type were produced for the Freiburg suspension bridge which has a span of over 800 ft. in the clear. The supporting ropes for this bridge were composed of about 20 bundles of iron wires laid parallel, each wire being 0.125 in. in diameter and the combined total making a rope about 5½ in. in diameter. . . . Ropes of this class, while not extensively manufactured, have been applied in America . . . on the Niagara suspension bridge and the Ohio River bridge and have been used for the large main supporting cables on the Brooklyn suspension bridge; also more recently on the new East River or Williamsburg bridge. . . . In 1834 a mining engineer named Albert, of Clausthal, Germany . . . succeeded in fabricating . . . a 'stranded' wire rope composed of iron wires. He put this rope in operation for hoisting ore in the shafts of the Harz mines. . . . In 1837 Albert, before an engineering society in Berlin, read a paper on the construction and manufacture of stranded-wire ropes. This paper advocated the production of wire ropes along the same lines of construction as were previously applied to the manufacture of hemp and fiber ropes, then employed exclusively in the mining industry. . . . It must thus be conceded that as a direct result of Albert's experiments the commercial world was given a mechanical appliance to which can be traced the establishment of many of the foremost industrial activities of modern times. . . . In the Museo Borbonico at Naples is to be found on exhibition a short length of bronze-wire rope, about 1 in. in diameter, which was excavated from the ruins of Pompeii, but beyond the fact that it was made of wires twisted into strands, and the strands in turn laid into rope, there is no other information except that it proves to us that wire ropes made of bronze wires were in existence before the destruction of Pompeii in the year 79 A.D. Beyond this period there is no trace of any stranded ropes, but it is an established fact that the ancients, many centuries before the process of drawing wire through dies was invented, made wire from precious metals by hammering. . . . [In 1840 R. S. Newell, of Dundee, Scotland, designed] some rather crude machinery for the purpose of manufacturing wire ropes with four strands, each strand containing four wires. . . . 1840, he was granted his first letters patent in England for improvements in the manufacture of wire ropes and the machinery designed for the process. . . . In the United States wire rope was first manufactured in the early 40's and has been improved upon year by year until the present time, when it represents the very highest development of this means of hoisting and haulage. In the last fifty years there has been a gradual change from the use of one kind of rope material to another, and this was brought about by the demand for an increased production by speed and efficiency."—*History of wire hoisting ropes with notes on factors of safety* (*Engineering and Mining Journal, Nov.* 10, 1917).

"The 'Manufacture of Malleable Iron and Steel without Fuel' was the startling title of a scientific paper read in 1856 before the British Association for the Advancement of Science. This was the announcement to the world of Henry Bessemer's invention of the process for making iron and steel which led to the greatest commercial development the world has seen. . . . In the old Catalan furnace and the types that preceded it, in the Finery Fire, the Walloon and the several other refining furnaces fuel had to be provided without stint. The lowest proportion that seventy years of experiment and practice had brought about in Cort's puddling process was one ton of coal per ton of iron, while the blast furnace required at the least four-fifths of a ton of coke for each ton of pig iron produced. Whether [Henry] Bessemer, an Englishman . . . or William Kelly, an American . . . first conceived the idea of the 'pneumatic' process is a moot question. . . . One day while watching the operation of his Finery Fire he [Kelly] noticed that the blast of air from the tuyère made the molten iron where it impinged very much whiter and apparently hotter than the rest. . . . In a few days he had rigged up a crude apparatus and made soft iron from which a horseshoe and a horseshoe nail were fashioned by a blacksmith. . . . Upon learning that Bessemer of England had been granted a United States patent (1856) [for the making of steel], Kelly came before the patent office and proved that he had several years before used the same process. The priority of his invention was acknowledged, and a patent was granted to him also (1857). Financial troubles and finally bankruptcy handicapped him. However, the Cambria Steel Co., of Johnstown, Pa., became interested and let him experiment with his process at the company's plant. Here in 1857 he built his first 'tilting' converter. His first public demonstration resulted in failure and ridicule, but a few days later he was successful. . . . While apparently not the originator of the process, Bessemer is without any doubt entitled to most of the credit he received. There is no proof that he had heard of Kelly's experiments when he began his own or that he was aided by Kelly's discoveries. He worked out the details of the process independently, as had Kelly, and it was Bessemer who put it on a commercial basis. . . . [By the Bessemer process molten pig iron is poured into a movable, pear-shaped retort, and through this hot air is forced, by a blast, for a stated period. During this process, the air combines with the carbon in the iron, and is passed out of the retort leaving a mass of fluid steel behind.] Practically no type of converter has since been brought out that . . . [Bessemer] did not think of and try, and the process has been modified in but one or two important particulars

in the years that have passed. The essential part of the Bessemer process is the blowing of air through molten cast iron to remove the metalloids by which cast iron differs from steel and wrought iron, as has been explained before."—L. W. Spring, *Non-technical chats on iron and steel, pp.* 123-128.—Unfortunately the process made the steel exceedingly brittle, a fault which was overcome in Sweden by the use of pig iron which was rich in manganese, and in Great Britain by the Mushet process. The Mushet process, (the invention of Robert Mushet) included the addition of a certain quantity of carbon to the contents of the crucible. The patents which covered this process were controlled in the United States by the holders of the Kelly patents. Thus matters stood at a draw until the Kelly and Bessemer interests united, and in 1866 America began a belated use of the much-needed steel.

"Smelting for pig iron is now almost entirely carried out with hot blast, which was introduced by Neilson in 1828, and it is only high grade pig iron for special purposes that is now smelted with cold blast. The method of heating the blast has undergone many changes since Neilson's time, when an expanded portion of the blast main was surrounded by a furnace in which solid fuel was burnt, and the blast driven through it before entering the furnace. Various forms of iron pipe stoves heated with solid fuel or waste gas have been used, but have now almost entirely given place to stoves of the regenerative principle. . . . One of the earliest stoves of this pattern was designed and constructed by Cowper in 1860 to burn solid fuel; but shortly after he proposed to use 'waste' gas, and the later ones are all modifications or extensions of Cowper's original stove. The principle of regeneration demands at least two stoves, and each stove consists of a huge chamber, the interior of which is built in with firebrick intersected by flues, in which combustible gas is burnt to develop heat, which is absorbed by the brickwork and re-absorbed by the air when the chamber is put in the path of the blast on its passage from the blowing engine to the furnace. Thus the chambers are alternately heating the blast and being re-heated by the burning gas."—J. W. Stansbie, *Iron and steel, pp.* 79-80.—"The process of manufacturing steel in the open hearth regenerative furnace, which we owe chiefly to the genius of Sir William Siemens, is the only process which has in any way proved a serious rival to that of Bessemer. The difficulty of obtaining a sufficiently high temperature to maintain a large quantity of decarburised iron in a fluid condition was the chief obstacle to the solution of the problem, and it was only after many experiments . . . that the efforts of Sir Wm. Siemens and his brother were crowned with success. They first gasified the fuel in a separate furnace called a producer, and then raised this and the air necessary for its combustion to a high temperature by means of the waste heat derived from the previous combustion stored up in fire-brick checkered chambers, which they called regenerators. They then conducted the superheated gas and air by separate flues to the hearth of the furnace, where combustion took place with the production of an extremely high temperature. . . . In 1867 to 1868 the success of the process was demonstrated at an experimental works at Birmingham, large quantities of steel being made from old rails and similar material. Gradually the problem of desiliconising and decarburising pig-iron, with and without steel scrap, by means of iron ore as the oxidising agent, was worked out. . . . In France, Messrs. P. & E. Martin also attacked the problem; but, instead of using ore, they worked with steel scrap and pig-iron alone, dissolving the scrap in a bath of molten pig. . . . This process was known as the Siemens-Martin, as distinguished from the Siemens process. . . . In America, of late years, furnaces built on rollers, or on rockers, have been used to some extent, so that the hearth section of the furnace can be tilted to enable the charge of finished steel to be poured into the ladle, thus avoiding the trouble of tapping."—F. W. Harbord and J. W. Hall, *Metallurgy of steel, v.* 1, *pp.* 140a, 147.—"The only important change in manufacturing crucible steel was made by . . . [Robert F. Mushet] about the beginning of the last century [19th century]. Instead of melting blister steel in the crucible, he used refined iron (scrap or bar) mixed with some carbonaceous compound. . . . Steel produced in this way, however, had not the excellence of that made in India; nor even of the blister-crucible steel of Huntsman. [Mushet, therefore, continued his experiments.] . . . Ordinary carbon steel has been hardened from time immemorial by sudden quenching of the red hot metal in water. During the course of his experiments, sometime in 1868, Mushet found that one



SIEMENS REGENERATIVE PUDDLING FURNACE

of his bars seemed to have the property of becoming hard after heating, without the usual quenching. . . . Analysis of the bar behaving so singularly showed that it contained a percentage of tungsten. . . . Not only did the bar containing tungsten harden without the customary quenching, but it was actually harder than ordinary steel which had been quenched. It occurred to Mushet that this extraordinary circumstance might be turned to advantage in the production of superior tool steel, and he accordingly set himself to developing tungsten steel with this end in view."—O. M. Becker, *High-speed steel, pp.* 8, 9.—This was the origin of the steels which are commonly now known as "high speed steels." Some time later Henry Gladwin of Sheffield, discovered the value of re-heating tool steel, and cooling it in an air blast. Later in the century (1894) F. W. Taylor, of the Bethlehem works, with Maunsel White and others began a series of experiments in high speed steel which resulted in the production of steel which allows of their use at an astonishing rate of speed. "If ingots are lifted from the casting pit too soon the outer crust gives way, and some of the fluid centre flows out, these 'bleeding ingots' showing conclusively what a large amount of heat is stored in the inside. . . . The difficulty was surmounted in 1882 by Mr. Gjers, who dropped the ingots, as they were removed from the casting

pit, into small holes in the ground, lined with firebrick, thus retarding the loss of heat from the exterior long enough to permit the excess of heat in the fluid interior to soak through to the outside. . . . The first suggestion for increasing the soundness of metals by compression while in a fluid condition, would seem to have emanated from Mr. James Hollingrake, [1819]. . . . According to Mr. Reynolds, the process had been used regularly at the works of the Broughton Copper Company, Manchester, for twenty years before Sir Joseph Whitworth took out his patent in 1865, while Bessemer had obtained a patent in 1856 for compressing the ingot while in a plastic state. Sir Joseph states in his patent that he knew fluid compression had been proposed, but the moulds employed were too weak to withstand such pressures as he considered were necessary, and to him the credit is due."—F. W. Harbord and J. W. Hall, *Metallurgy of steel, v.* 2, *pp.* 548, 883.—See also INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: England: Mining inventions.

Development of balloons.—Kite-balloons and parachutes.—Dirigibles.—Beginnings of the airplane.—Achievements of Zeppelin, Langley, Maxim and Chanute.—German and English gliding machines. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1870-1913; 1884-1897; 1896-1914; Development of airplanes and air service: 1809-1874; 1889-1900.

Automobiles.—Motor patents.—Origin and development of motor transport.—Steam wagon.—Electric trucks.—Traction enterprise in America.—Benz and Daimler gasoline motors.—Steam and electric cars. See AUTOMOBILES: 1826-1895; 1858-1919; 1885-1894; 1889-1905.

Ammeters.—Galvanometers.—Electrometers.—Dynamometers. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Measuring instruments: 1833-1921.

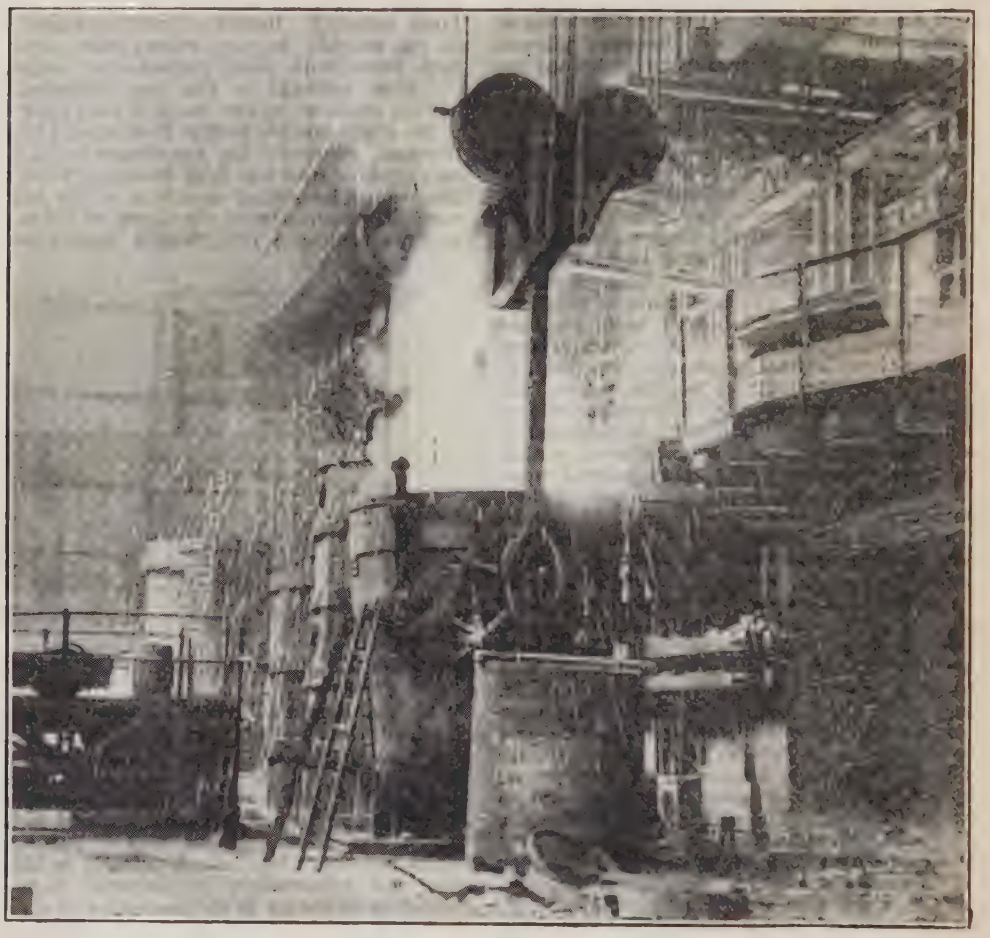
Early history of telegraphy.—Perfected telegraph.—Submarine cables.—Laying of Atlantic cable.—Printer system. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Telegraph: 1753-1874; 1754-1866; 1855-1917.

Invention and early use of the telephone. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Telephone: 1875-1893.

Wireless, or radio.—Observations of Maxwell, Hertz and Marconi. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Wireless, or radio: 1864-1903.

Needle gun.—Winchester repeating or magazine rifle.—Dahlgren gun. See RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: From Waterloo to the eve of the World War; ORDNANCE: 19th century.

Hot air and gas engines. See STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Hot air and gas engines.



GIANT FURNACES, MANCHESTER, ENGLAND

Steamboats.—Experiments for transportation. See STEAM NAVIGATION: Beginnings.

Submarines of Bauer, Brun, Hoxsey, Ash, Campbell, De Lôme, etc.—Holland boats.—Goubet boats.—Submersible torpedo boats. See SUBMARINES: 1849 to 1899.

Instruments: Compass.—Microscope.—Spectroscope.—Interferometer.—"The mariners' compass in use up to the middle of the last century was very imperfect. It consisted of a card attached to which were the magnets, the card having the points of the compass marked upon it, and a line showing the central line of the ship, or 'lubber line,' marked upon the case. . . . The use of iron in the building of ships introduced new errors, which rendered the compass of very little value, until after the mathematical investigation of the magnetic field on iron ships was made by Poisson and Airy in 1838. After this, the field due to permanent magnetization of the ship was corrected by small permanent magnets placed in the binnacle, and the effect of temporary magnetization of the soft iron in the ship was corrected by means of two soft iron spheres, one on either side of the compass. . . . The imperfections in the compass itself were not removed until Lord Kelvin . . . made improvements in two particular directions. First, the card was made very light, being a thin wire ring with a paper disc, cut out in the centre, the points of the compass being marked on the paper. . . . Secondly, the magnets were short steel needles, four, six, or eight in number, slung by threads in the central space cut from the card disc."—S. G. Starling, *Electricity, p.* 10.—The makers of the early microscopes were confronted by "two great optical barriers, known technically as spherical and chromatic aberration—the one due to a failure of the rays of light to fall all in one plane when focalized through a lens, the other due to the dispersive action of the lens in breaking the white light into prismatic colors [both of which seemed insuperable]. . . . In the attempt to overcome these difficulties, the foremost physical philosophers of the time came to the aid of the best opticians. Very early in the [19th] century, Dr. (afterwards Sir David) Brewster, the renowned Scotch physicist, suggested that certain advantages might accrue from the use of such gems as have high refractive and low dispersive indices, in place of lenses made of glass. Accordingly lenses were made of diamond, of sapphire, and so on, and with some measure of success. But in 1812 a much more important innovation was introduced by Dr. William Hyde Wollaston. . . . This was the suggestion to use two plano-convex lenses, placed at a prescribed distance apart, in lieu of the single double-convex lens generally used. This combination largely overcame the spherical aberration, and it gained immediate fame as the 'Wollaston doublet.' To obviate loss of light in such a doublet from increase of reflecting surfaces, Dr. Brewster suggested filling the interspace between the two lenses with a cement having the same index of refraction as the lenses themselves—an improvement of manifest advantage. An improvement yet more important was made by Dr. Wollaston himself in the introduction of the diaphragm to limit the field of vision between the lenses, instead of in front of the anterior lens. A pair of lenses thus equipped Dr. Wollaston called the periscopic microscope. Dr. Brewster suggested that in such a lens the same object might be attained with greater ease by grinding an equatorial groove about a thick or globular lens and filling the groove with an opaque cement. This arrangement found much favor, and came subsequently to be known as a Coddington lens, though Mr. Coddington laid no claim to being its inventor. Sir John Herschel . . . also gave attention to the problem of improving the microscope, and in 1821 he introduced what was called an aplanatic combination of lenses, in which, as the name implies, the spherical aberration was largely done away with. It was thought that the use of this Herschel aplanatic combination as an eyepiece, combined with the Wollaston doublet for the objective, came as near perfection as the compound microscope was likely soon to come. But in reality the instrument . . . was so defective that for practical purposes the simple microscope, such as the doublet or the Coddington, was preferable to the more complicated one. . . . Professor Giovanni Battista Amici, a very famous mathematician and practical optician of Modena, succeeded in constructing a reflecting microscope which was said to be superior to any compound microscope of the time. . . . [But, the] man to whom chief credit is due for directing those final steps that made the compound microscope a practical implement instead of a scientific toy was the English amateur optician Joseph Jackson Lister. Combining mathematical knowledge with mechanical ingenuity, and having the practical aid of the celebrated optician Tulley, he devised formulæ for the combination of lenses of crown glass with others of flint glass, so adjusted that the refractive errors of one were corrected or compensated by the other, with the result of producing lenses of hitherto unequalled powers of definition; lenses capable of showing an image highly magnified, yet relatively free from those distortions to true interpretation of magnified structures. Lister had begun his studies of the lens in 1824, but it was not until 1830 that he contributed to the Royal Society the famous paper detailing his theories and experiments."—H. S. Williams, *History of science, v.* 4, *pp.* 109-113.

Although the **spectroscope** is a nineteenth-century invention, its history goes back to 1675. "The white light of the sun is composed of the seven colors: red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet. When a sunbeam falls upon a triangular prism of glass the beam is bent from its course at an angle, and the different colors of its light are deflected at different angles or degrees, and consequently, instead of appearing as white light, the beam is spread out into a divergent wedge shape, that separates the colors and produces what is called the spectrum. This discovery was made by Sir Isaac Newton, in 1675. In 1802 Dr. Wollaston, in repeating Newton's experiments, admitted the beam of light through a very narrow slit, instead of a round hole, and noticed that the spectrum, as spread out in its colors, was not a continuous shading from one color into another, but he found black lines crossing the spectrum. These black lines were, in 1814, carefully mapped by a German optician, named Fraunhofer, and were found by him to be 576 in number. The next step toward the spectroscope was made by Simms, an optician, in 1830, who placed a lens in front of the prism so that the slit was in the focus of the lens, and the light passing through the slit first passed through the lens, and then through the prism. This lens was called the 'Collimating' lens. With these preliminary steps of development, Prof. Kirchhoff began in 1859 his great work of mapping the solar spectrum, and he, in connection with Prof. Bunsen, found several thousand of the dark lines in the spectrum, and laid the foundation of *spectrum-analysis*, or the

determination of the nature of substances from the spectra cast by them when in an incandescent state. . . . By rendering any substance incandescent in the flame of a Bunsen burner, and directing the light of its incandescence through the spectroscope, its spectrum gives the basis of intelligent chemical identification. So delicate is its test that it has been calculated by Profs. Kirchhoff and Bunsen that the eighteen-millionth part of a grain of sodium may be detected."—E. W. Byrn, *Progress of invention in the nineteenth century, pp.* 292-294.—"In the measurement of length or motion a most refined instrument is the **interferometer,** devised by Professor A. A. Michelson, of the University of Chicago. It enables an observer to detect a movement through one five-millionth of an inch. The principle involved is illustrated in a simple experiment. If by dropping a pebble at each of two centres, say a yard apart, in a still pond, we send out two systems of waves, each system will ripple out in a series of concentric circles. If, when the waves meet, the crests from one set of waves coincide with the depressions from the other set, the water in that particular spot becomes smooth because one set of waves destroys the other. In this case we may say that the waves interfere. If, on the other hand, the crests of waves from two sources should coincide, they would rise to twice their original height. Light-waves sent out in a similar mode from two points may in like manner either interfere, and produce darkness, or unite to produce light of double brilliancy. These alternate dark and bright bands are called interference fringes. When one of the two sources of light is moved through a very small space, the interference fringes at a distance move through a space so much larger as to be easily observed and measured, enabling an observer to compute the short path through which a light-source has moved. . . . Many diverse applications of the interferometer have been developed, as, for example, in thermometry. The warmth of a hand held near a pencil of light is enough to cause a wavering of the fringes. A lighted match shows contortions. . . . When the air is heated its density and refractive power diminish: it follows that if this experiment is tried under conditions which show a regular and measurable displacement of the fringes, their movement will indicate the temperature of the air. This method has been applied to ascertain very high temperatures, such as those of the blast furnace. Most metals expand one or two parts in 100,000 for a rise in temperature of one degree centigrade. When a small specimen is examined the whole change to be measured may be only about $\frac{1}{10000}$ inch, a space requiring a good microscope to perceive, but readily measured by an interferometer. It means a displacement amounting to several fringes, and this may be measured to within $\frac{1}{50}$ of a fringe or less; so that the whole displacement may be measured to within a fraction of one per cent. Of course, with long bars the accuracy attainable is much greater.

"The interferometer has much refined the indications of the balance. In a noteworthy experiment Professor Michelson found the amount of attraction which a sphere of lead exerted on a small sphere hung on an arm of a delicate balance. The amount of this attraction when two such spheres touch is proportional to the diameter of the large sphere, which in this case was about eight inches. The attraction on the small ball on the end of the balance was thus the same fraction of its weight as the diameter of the large ball was of the diameter of the earth,—something like one twenty-millionth. So the force to be measured was one twenty-millionth of the weight of this small ball. In the interferometer the approach of the small ball to the large one produced a displacement of seven whole fringes."—G. Iles, *Inventors at work, pp.* 214-218.—See also Astronomy: Measuring the size of stars.

Measurement.—"As art advances from plane to plane it demands new niceties of measurement, discovers sources of error unsuspected before, and avoids these errors by ingenious precautions. Today observers earnestly wish for means of measurement surpassing those at hand. Take the astronomer for example. One would suppose that the two points of the earth's orbit which are farthest apart, divided as they are by about 185,000,000 miles, would afford sufficient room between them for a base-line wherewith to measure celestial spaces. But the fact is otherwise. So remote are the fixed stars that nearly all of them seem unchanged in place whether we observe them on January 3 or July 3, although meanwhile we have changed our point of view by the whole length of the ellipse described by the earth in its motion. Then, too, the chemist is now concerned with analyses of a delicacy out of the question a century ago. His reward is in discovering the great influence wrought by admixtures so slight in amount as almost to defy quantitative recognition. In the experiments by M. Guillaume . . . his unit throughout every research was one thousandth of a millimetre, or 1/25,400 inch. Argon, a gas about one fourth heavier than oxygen, forms nearly one hundredth part of the atmosphere, and yet its discovery by Lord Rayleigh dates only from 1894. His feat depended not only upon refined modes of measurement, but also upon his challenging the traditional analysis of common air. . . . As measurements become more and more precise they afford an important means of discovery."—G. Iles, *Inventors at work, pp.* 212-213.

Liquefaction of Gases.—Sulphur dioxide, chlorine.—"The first recorded reference to the liquefaction of a commonly recognised gas occurs in *Fourcroy's Chemistry,* vol. ii. p. 74, where it is stated, without any description of the process, that Citizens Monge and Clouet have liquefied sulphurous acid (sulphur dioxide). The next experiment of the same kind was made by Northmore, who, in 1805, reduced chlorine and probably also sulphurous acid to the liquid state. From this time till the subject was taken up by Faraday no gases were reduced to liquid. . . . The researches which ultimately led to the liquefaction of all known gases were begun by Faraday and Davy in 1823. . . . Faraday had been previously occupied with chlorine, and had discovered two chlorides of carbon in 1820. . . . Immediately after this [1823] muriatic acid was liquefied by a similar method, in which the materials used were salammoniac and sulphuric acid, and Faraday, there can be no doubt, was the operator. Faraday also liquefied in glass tubes sulphur dioxide, sulphureted hydrogen, carbon dioxide, nitrous oxide, euchlorine, cyanogen, and ammonia. . . . There then remained only the gases of the atmosphere . . . which resisted all attempts by this method to change their state, and arsenetted hydrogen, hydriodic and hydrobromic acids, which were easily overcome by Faraday when some twenty years later he resumed his experiments upon the subject. In the meantime Thilorier in Paris, acting upon the same principle, with the substitution of metallic cylinders for glass tubes, prepared large quantities of liquid carbon dioxide, and was the first to obtain this substance in a solid state. . . . Here, then, the resources of the physical laboratory seemed to have

been exhausted, and it is probable that, . . . progress would have been still further delayed but for the important experiments of [Thomas] Andrews, which, though carried on during many years, were not published in extenso till 1869. . . . [About 1877] Cailletet employed an apparatus, ever since familiarly known as a laboratory appliance under the name of the Cailletet pump, whereby a gas can be submitted to considerable pressure, and when greatly reduced in volume the pressure can be suddenly relieved. . . . With this apparatus . . . [he] reduced to the liquid state oxygen and carbonic oxide, beside ethylene and acetylene, marsh gas and nitric oxide. Two now remained of the original six uncondensable gases, namely, nitrogen and hydrogen. Nitrogen yielded in 1883, in the hands of the Polish Professors Wroblewski and Olszewski; but hydrogen resisted for many years the almost continuous efforts which were made to collect it in the liquid form. . . . The application of external cold to the vessel containing the highly compressed gas was also associated with the cooling effect produced by expansion as in Cailletet's method, and it was in this way that nitrogen was first liquefied by Wroblewski and Olszewski in 1883. . . . By a similar process Olszewski got evidence of the liquefaction of hydrogen, and was able a few years later to determine its critical temperature and boiling point with some considerable approach to accuracy. About this time, namely, in 1884, the production of low temperatures and the liquefaction of gases became a subject of research in the laboratory of the Royal Institution, under Professor Dewar [who] . . . employed liquid nitrous oxide and ethylene as cooling agents. . . . W. Siemens, in 1857, seems to have had the idea of 'regenerating' cold by applying the same principle which is used in his well-known regenerative furnace for the storage of heat, but this idea was never carried into practice. Later, in 1885, Solvay patented a process based upon the same principle, which involved the use of an expansion cylinder. . . . [Later,] a method [was] devised by which such cooling effect can be made practically cumulative, the gas while still under pressure being cooled by another portion of the same immediately after release. A description of . . . apparatus by which practical results upon a large scale were obtainable was given for the first time by Herr Linde, an engineer, of Munich; but a patent for an application of the same principle had been obtained previously [May 23, 1895] in England by Dr. W. Hampson."—W. A. Alden, *Progress of scientific chemistry, pp.* 305-321.—See also CHEMISTRY: Physical: Laws of gases.

Organ.—"The horizontal bellows gave a steadier supply of wind than the older kind. . . . Experiments were, however, made to improve the pedals. . . . These experiments turned chiefly on making the pedal-board more convenient for the player; from being straight and of equal length the pedals became radiating, concave, etc., each builder making them slightly different, until their form and measurements were settled by conference at the Royal College of Organists in 1880, and the decisions arrived at have been generally adopted. . . . [In the nineteenth century small hydraulic organ engines were used to supply large organs with wind. In 1841 Barker invented the pneumatic action and later the tubular pneumatic action was devised.] The pneumatic action has also been applied to the sliders with great advantage. In addition to the composition pedals, large organs now have pneumatic composition knobs or pistons, placed under each row of keys, and acted on by the thumb of the player. These were first used in the organ at the Royal Albert Hall, built by Willis, in which each of the four manuals has eight such pistons, which control the whole of its stops. . . . The wonderful powers of the electric telegraph suggested to Barker a means of carrying the communications between key and pipe to a distance, and round corners. It had been tried by others, but had failed, owing to their inability to overcome the force of the wind on the pallets; but with the pneumatic action this difficulty no longer existed. He applied electricity first to a large organ at St. Augustine's Church in Paris, and afterwards to others. . . . The principle of Barker's electric action is that the valve of the pneumatic bellows is opened by the electric current, instead of by mechanical connection with the key. Electricity has also been applied to the drawstops; and its action has in late years been much improved by the inventions of Mr. Hope-Jones, who [made the console movable] by means of a cable."—C. F. A. Williams, *Story of the organ, pp.* 144-145, 151-152.—Early in the nineteenth century Bishop in England invented the concussion bellows, to regulate the flow of wind, and also the composition pedals.

Piano.—"Pianofortes, up to the year 1820, were, like spinets, harpsichords, and clavichords, entirely wooden structures—always increasing in solidity, as time went on, in proportion to an ever increasing tension. . . . The iron frame applied to a piano by John Isaac Hawkins [was patented in England in the year 1800]. . . . [An] invention by Joseph Smith, patented in London in 1799, of iron bracings or struts, . . . [was intended] to economise the space occupied by wood bracings. The real change from a wooden resisting structure to one in which iron should play an important part is due to William Allen, a tuner, . . . [who] conceived the idea of a metal system of framing, intended by him to meet the disturbance in tuning caused by the strings being of two metals, brass and iron, which were differently influenced by change of temperature. With the co-operation of Stodart's foreman, Thom, the invention was completed and a patent taken out in their joint names, James Thom and William Allen, on January 15, 1820. It was at once bought of them by the Stodart firm [of piano makers]. The patent was for a combination of parallel metal tubes, with metal plates, iron over the iron strings, and brass over the brass and spun strings in the bass division of the instrument. . . . The next step was towards a fixed string-plate, and was due to one of Broadwood's workmen, Samuel Hervé. . . . [It is an interesting fact that John Jacob Astor owed some of his large fortune to the sale of Broadwood pianos which he imported to New York.] This was in 1821, when it was introduced by that firm in their square pianos. In 1822 Sebastian and Pierre Erard patented in Paris a complete system of nine iron bars from treble to bass, with fastenings piercing the bars, and through apertures in the belly to the wooden bracings beneath. There was no metal plate in this patent, nor was such a plate included in the same firm's London patent of 1824. . . . James Shudi Broadwood, in 1827, combined the metal string-plate with fixed metal bars and took out a patent for this important invention, one feature of which was the entire control gained over the unused lengths of wire behind the belly-bridge. The wood and iron pianoforte was now brought to its first stage of efficiency. . . . Pierre Erard introduced the harmonic bar . . . of brass or gun-metal or nickel, placed upon the wrest-

plank near its edge, immediately above the bearings of the treble strings. . . . [Henry Fowler Broadwood] . . . reduced the number of the steel 'arches' or struts fixed between the wrest-plank and the belly-bar, a wooden transverse bar against which the belly is supported. In 1847-9 he succeeded in making a grand piano with an entire upper framing of iron, and in this instrument two bars sufficed, neither breaking into the scale. . . . But in the grand pianos he afterwards made with his diagonal bar, he also used a straight bar towards the treble, of the ordinary type, to avoid any possible sacrifice to durability. This was the Broadwood Iron Grand Model of 1851—the first to be made in England in a complete iron framing, but not solid; it was in wrought and cast-iron, wedged up with gun-metal at the points of juncture, and not in a single casting as is the American plan. Nearly simultaneous with Allen's invention of tubes and plates was the not less important conception of a cast iron frame in which to fix a square piano, an invention of the American pianoforte maker, Alpheus Babcock. His invention comprised a complete metal frame with a hitch-pin plate, made in one casting. He patented it at Boston, Massachusetts, U. S. A., December 17, 1825. It was not as many have thought, including at one time myself, a compensation frame, but one intended from the first for resistance. . . . Babcock removed from Boston to Philadelphia in December, 1829, and began manufacturing there. It would appear that he also took out a patent at Philadelphia for an almost identical iron framing for a square piano. . . . The patent, dated May 24, 1830, is described as for 'cross-stringing pianofortes.' Unfortunately the original record was destroyed by fire in 1836. If Babcock intended overstringing by this term, he conceived both the principles that in combination characterise the modern American pianoforte. Another maker in Philadelphia, Conrad Meyer, modified this iron framing 1832-3, abolishing the bars; he did not, possibly could not, patent it, but he exhibited his instrument at the Franklin Institute in 1833. . . . Jonas Chickering, of Boston, carried this invention much farther: he patented, in 1840, a new iron frame for square pianos. As well as the frame there was, in this patent, a long bar parallel with the bass strings. . . . There is also, cast with it, a fixed damper rail. The culmination of Jonas Chickering's achievement in this direction was his grand piano frame in one solid casting, patented in 1843. He could not claim the upward bearing at the wrest-plank by means of agraffes (Sebastian Erard's invention—little detached bridges for each note, the strings passing through holes in them and bearing upwards); but Chickering did claim casting this bearing as a solid ledge, the strings passing through openings in it the same as in the agraffes. The solid cast plate for a grand piano was, however, the principal object of his patent. . . . We now come to the grand piano of Steinway & Sons, of New York—an invention patented by Henry Engelhard Steinway in that city, December 20, 1859—anticipated in a similarly made square piano, exhibited for the first time at the American Institute in New York in 1855. . . . With respect to Steinway's invention—in its broad features the combination of a solid metal frame and overstringing—there can be no doubt it represents the flood-mark of American pianoforte making; what has been done since being to modify and further improve it according to the ideas and experience of the respective makers of different countries who have adopted it. In overstrung grand pianos a great display of ironwork is to be seen; the whole of the inside frame, including the agaffe ledge, is in a single casting, and the bars and scale are so adjusted as to overstring the bass at an angle which opens out in a double curve fan shape from the hammer striking-place down to the hitch-pins (in square pianos it was the reverse) and allow an increased width to the belly or sounding-board. One of the most important results of complete iron framing is an increase of tension, rendered possible by the tenacity of the modern cast steel wire."—A. J. Hipkins, *Description and history of the pianoforte, pp.* 15-22.

Phonograph.—"The Phonograph . . . is an instrument which not only registers the different vibrations produced by speech on a vibrating plate, but reproduces the same words in correspondence with the traces registered. The first function of this instrument is not the result of a new discovery. Physicists have long sought to solve the problem of registering speech, and in 1856 Mr. Leo Scott invented an instrument well known to physicists under the name of phonautograph, which completely solved the difficulty. . . . [This instrument was improved upon by various scientists: Karl Rudolph König, William Henry Barlow, Clarence Blake, Sigmund Theodor Stein—but none of these men approached the ideal of reproducing speech. Charles Cros] in a sealed paper deposited at the Académie des Sciences, April 30th, 1877, . . . pointed out the principle of an instrument by means of which speech might be reproduced in accordance with the marks traced on a register like that of the phonautograph. . . . [This, however, was theory only. Thomas Alva Edison is the actual inventor of the phonograph.] Mr. Edison's patent, in which the principle of the phonograph is first indicated, is dated July 31st, 1877, and he was still only occupied with the repetition of the Morse signals. In this patent Mr. Edison described a mode of registering these signals by means of indentations traced with a stylus on a sheet of paper wound round a cylinder, and this cylinder had a spiral groove cut on its surface. The tracings thus produced were to be used for the automatic transmission of the same message, by passing it again under a stylus which should react on a current breaker. In this patent, therefore, nothing is said of the registration of speech or of its reproduction; but, . . . the foregoing invention gave him the means of solving this double problem as soon as it was suggested to him. If we may believe the American journals, this suggestion soon came, and it was the result of an accident. In the course of some experiments Mr. Edison was making with the telephone, a stylus attached to the diaphragm pierced his finger at the moment when the diaphragm began to vibrate under the influence of the voice, and the prick was enough to draw blood. It then occurred to him that if the vibrations of the diaphragm enabled the stylus to pierce the skin, they might produce on a flexible surface such distinct outlines as to represent all the undulations produced by the voice, and even that the same outlines might mechanically reproduce the vibrations which had caused them, by reacting on a plate capable of vibrating in the same way as that which he had already used for the reproduction of the Morse signals. From that moment the phonograph was discovered, since there was only a step between the idea and its realization, and in less than two days the instrument was made and tried. . . . When we look at the principle of the invention, M. Cros undoubtedly may claim priority; but it is a question whether the system described in his

sealed paper, and published in the *Semaine du Clergé,* October 8th, 1877, would have been capable of reproducing speech. Our doubt seems justified by the unsuccessful attempts of the Abbé Leblanc to carry out M. Cros's idea. . . . A distinguished member of the Société de Physique . . . said that Mr. Edison's whole invention consisted in the thin metallic sheet on which the vibrations are inscribed; this sheet permits the movements of the vibrating plate to be directly stereotyped, and thereby the problem is solved. It was necessary to find such an expedient, and it was done by Mr. Edison, who is therefore the inventor of the phonograph. After M. Cros, and before Mr. Edison, MM. Napoli and Marcel Deprez attempted to make a phonograph, but with so little success that they believed at one time the problem to be insoluble, and threw doubts on Mr. Edison's invention when it was announced to the Société de Physique. . . . Mr. Edison presented his phonograph to the Académie des Sciences . . . March 11th, 1878, and when his agent, M. Puskas, caused the wonderful instrument to speak, a murmur of admiration was heard from all parts of the hall—a murmur succeeded by repeated applause."—Count Du Moncel, *Telephone, microphone, and the phonographs, pp.* 235-239, 244.—The graphophone, a phonograph designed to use either a disk or a cylinder, was invented by Bell and Taintor in 1885. In 1887 Emil Berliner patented the gramophone, which employs a rotating disk. This, in the original patent was coated with lampblack. "The complication of names is unnecessarily confusing, as there is also the telegraphone, applied to those forms of the instrument wherein the sound is transmited to or from the diaphragm through a wire, water-tube, etc., connecting with the stylus. The substitution of paper for metal in the speaking-horn and parts leading to it have resulted in reducing the brassy sound, which is objectionable in many instruments. M. Burguet, a French inventor, . . . devised a new diaphragm calculated to render a more perfect imitation of the natural tones of the voice. He uses a mica diaphragm, which has a series of little rods connecting with the central stylus in such a manner that the vibrations of the voice alone affect the stylus, the vibrations incidental to the diaphragm itself not affecting the little rods. This prevents distorting metallic sounds. A phonograph that will reproduce its records photographically has been constructed by Emanuel Cervenka, a Bohemian. The vibrations of the diaphragm are used to vibrate a little mirror, which reflects a pencil of light on a cylinder covered with a sensitive gelatin film, thus producing a photographic sinuous line on the cylinder, the equivalent of the usual curved line of a record. By treating the gelatin after the manner well known to photo-engravers, the line can be made either a groove, as in an ordinary record cylinder, or can be made elevated. . . . While the phonograph is principally known as a means of reproducing for amusement, it has an important and growing use as a medium of dictation."—C. H. Cochrane, *Modern industrial progress, p.* 407.—When used for dictation the instrument is supplied with wax cylinders, such as those used in the Edison phonograph, and is called a dictaphone. The original Edison cylinders were coated with tin foil, which proved unsatisfactory, and militated against the success of the cylinders. In 1888 Edison took out a patent for wax cylinders, and later he invented a device by which either a cylinder or a disk can be used on his reproducing machines. Wax is used in all the instruments for the purpose of recording. The record is electrotyped, and for the familiar reproductions a material formed of wood charcoal, barium sulphate and shellac, is used.

Photography.—Late in the [18th] century Thomas Wedgewood, a son of Josiah Wedgewood, began to make experiments on the effects of light and succeeded so far that Humphrey Davy communicated the results to the Royal Society in 1802. "He records that the sensitive material used by Wedgwood was white paper or white leather moistened with solution of silver nitrate. He describes how it darkens intensely in direct sunlight in two or three minutes, or in several hours in the shade; also how red rays have little action on it. . . . [By this means] copies were obtained not only of paintings and flat subjects, such as leaves or wings of insects, but trial was made by Wedgwood to produce the images of the camera obscura. These were found too faint for the sensitiveness of his material, but he did succeed in recording the images in the solar microscope. Davy also describes the use of silver chloride instead of silver nitrate. . . . [Probably Wedgewood, who died in 1805, did nothing further in the matter, and it is doubtful if his work was known to Joseph Nicéphore Niépce of Chalon-sur-Saône in France, who commenced investigations in 1814, and curiously enough set himself to] discover some means of drawing or copying upon the lithographic stone by the agency of light. . . . Niépce, in short, was the inventor of a process of photo-engraving, or photo-etching—that is to say, he devised a method by which the subject drew itself upon the metal plate. This image he was then able to etch with an acid, and from the plate, so engraved, to take any number of impressions. In 1814 we find him trying all sorts of substances to this end. He tried perchloride of iron, silver chloride, and then appears to have turned to asphaltum. . . . By the year 1829 he had devised a practical method. He coated a metal plate with bitumen and exposed it to light under one of his transparent engravings. Where the light passed through and acted upon the bitumen the latter became changed in its solubility. It no longer dissolved readily in oil of lavender, and the result was that on treating the printed metal plate with this solvent the unaltered bitumen dissolved, leaving the design of the engraving in unaltered resin. The next step was to treat the plate with an acid which bit into the metal where it was unprotected by the bitumen, and by this process Niépce obtained plates etched to an extent sufficient to enable him to take off quite passable impressions. . . . [In December, 1829, Niépce entered into partnership with Louis Jacques Mandé Daguerre and, possibly at Daguerre's suggestion] we find him turning away from his engraving process and seeking to use the properties of his bitumen in making one single picture, but that of better quality in the way of gradations of light and shade. To this end he appears to have used glass as the support of his sensitive bitumen coating. . . . Niépce secured a somewhat similar result upon a silver plate, but in this case, after having obtained his bitumen image, he exposed the whole plate to the vapour of iodine. The iodine formed a thin film of pale yellow silver iodide on the bared parts, which thus formed the high-lights of the picture, whilst the shadows or darker portions were represented by the bitumen deposit. . . .

"It was doubtless as the result of using the camera obscura for making sketches for his dioramic pictures that Daguerre was led to experiment with methods of recording the image on the

screen by the agency of light. . . . [Be that as it may, in 1839 he appealed for assistance to the astronomer Arago, who in August presented the particulars of his discoveries to the Academy of Sciences.] Daguerre used silver iodide as his sensitive material. . . . His notable achievement, and that for which he deserves all the honour which attaches to his name as an inventor, is that he originated the development of a latent or invisible image."—*British Journal of Photography, Supplement, June* 19, 1914, *pp.* ii-vi.—It is said that the first attempts at portraiture by Daguerre's process was made in 1839 in the United States by J. B. Morse. "In 1840, Beard and Claudet opened photographic studios in London; Davidson followed suit in Edinburgh, and Shaw in Birmingham, and soon daguerreotypy became a trade. For landscapes, etc., the daguerreotype process was but seldom employed, though we read of a fine instantaneous picture of New York Harbor being secured by its aid. . . . The daguerreotype held sway for about ten years only, from 1839 to 1851. It was more popular in America than in England; indeed, in the latter country, specimens of the art are now quite rare. With all its faults it was an immense advance on anything previously known, and entitles Daguerre to rank with the leading inventors of the nineteenth century."—W. J. Harrison, *History of photography, pp.* 26-27.—News of Daguerre's achievement stimulated the work of William Henry Fox Talbot, a fellow of the Royal Society, who had already succeeded "in treating paper first with a solution of salt and then with one of silver nitrate. Talbot discovered the fact of great importance that the paper acquired its sensitiveness when it contained an excess of the silver nitrate. . . . As a fixing agent he used a substance which removed the excess of silver nitrate. The best for this purpose he found to be potassium iodide, or a solution of ordinary salt. . . . [It was Talbot who discovered how to produce a negative, from which could be printed a number of positives. He did not stop there, but went on to produce the calotype process by which the image was developed] by flowing over the paper a mixture of silver nitrate and acetic and gallic acids such as was used for imparting the sensitiveness to it. As a fixing agent Talbot used for this paper a solution of bromide of potassium. . . . From the negatives . . . made on the calotype paper prints could be prepared also upon the paper or by the print-out method. . . . One last and most important discovery of his must be recorded before we leave Talbot. In a patent of his of the year 1852 is first mentioned the fact that a mixture of bichromate and gelatine on exposure to light becomes insoluble in water. Talbot's patent was concerned with the application of this property of bichromated gelatine to the making of photo-engraved plates. The process was, in fact, photogravure, not very different from the method which is still in vogue. . . . [Developments followed rapidly. In France Hippolyte Bayard used paper in the Daguerrotype process instead of a silver plate. In England, Sir John Herschel introduced the use of hyposulphate of soda as a fixing agent, and the use of glass plates, and other useful and important ideas. Niépce de St. Victor described in 1847 his process of making a sensitive albumen plate by hardening on the glass by heat a mixture of white of egg, potassium of iodide and of bromide, and common salt, and afterwards sensitizing it in silver nitrate.] We have seen the glass negative reach a practical stage in the albumen process of Niépce de St. Victor. The next step forward was undoubtedly the most epoch-making in the history of photography, with the exception of the invention of the gelatine emulsion. It was the discovery of a new medium for the silver salts, namely collodion."—*British Journal of Photography, Supplement, June* 19, 1914, *pp.* ii-x.—As early as 1849 the use of collodion was suggested by Le Gray, a French worker. It was, however, Scott Archer, an English sculptor who invented the wet collodion process. "In September, 1850, Archer's new process was so far advanced that he communicated it to his friends . . . [but probably he] did not realize the importance of his discovery, for he did not attempt to patent it. . . . So good and complete was Archer's method that in three or four years it practically displaced both calotype and daguerreotype, and reigned supreme from 1855 to 1880. . . . [By this process] when a single picture only was desired, a short exposure was given, and the deposit of metallic silver which forms the image was whitened by soaking the developed plate in mercury bichloride. When a black surface was then placed behind the photograph it stood out on the glass in correct black and white as a positive image. . . . An American improvement consisted in the use of thin plates of black or chocolate enameled iron—ferrotypes, irreverently called tintypes—or sheets of black japanned leather, instead of glass. . . . Up to about 1853 a photograph was considered a curiosity; but the introduction and perfection of the collodion process made photography, for the first time, a really popular pursuit. . . . In 1841, Towson, of Liverpool, pointed out that since in an ordinary or 'uncorrected' lens the focus of the chemical rays (as we may call those which produce the principal effect upon the salts of silver) is not the same as the focus of the visual rays, *i.e.*, those by which the image is seen, it is necessary to adjust the distance of the lens from the ground glass, after the picture has been focused, in order to allow for this. Here Professor J. Petzval, an eminent mathematician of Vienna, came to the rescue, and devised a portrait lens which brought all the rays practically to the same focus."—W. J. Harrison, *History of photography, pp.* 39, 41, 42.—The next important invention that stands out is the collodion emulsion process published in 1864. "In 1872 a formula was published by Colonel Stuart-Wortley, in which nitrate of uranium was a constituent. . . . Wortley pursued his experiments in the direction of adding other compounds of yellow colour to the emulsion, among these being certain yellow dyes. Samples of the plates prepared in this way were sent to Professor H. W. Vogel in Berlin for examination, and the outcome was the discovery by Vogel of the colour-sensitiveness conferred upon plates by the presence of certain dyes. The discovery and development of orthochromatic photography, with its far-reaching effects upon processes of colour reproduction, thus had their unconscious beginning in Wortley's emulsion experiments. . . . [Later Bolton prepared collodion emulsion in such a way that it] needed only to be flowed over the plates in order to provide the material for practical work. . . . Even in the field of collodion emulsion itself Bolton's discovery has been of immense commercial value, for in photo-mechanical work, particularly upon the Continent and in the United States, collodion emulsion forms a staple material in regular daily use for three-colour work."—*British Journal of Photography, Supplement, June* 19, 1914, *p.* xiii.—While Le Gray's suggestion as to the use of gelatine seemed to have fallen to the ground, actually a number of experimenters worked on it.

But it was not until 1870 that Dr. R. L. Maddox described a barely workable process for its use. He was followed by other experimenters, and in 1874 R. Kennett of London, patented a dried emulsion, which was satisfactory; but in spite of this and other improvements dry plate photography did not attain popularity until Charles Bennett an amateur photographer of London exhibited a number of gelatine negatives in 1878, and upon request gave out his method of preparing them. "When the process was studied, the essential point was seen to be the use of heat. The different solutions were to be made at a temperature of 90 degrees (Fahrenheit), and, after mixing, the temperature of the emulsion was to be maintained at 90 deg. (by placing the bottle containing it in a vessel of hot water) 'for two, four or seven days, according to rapidity required.' During this slow and long-continued heating, the silver bromide gradually assumed the 'granular' state of Stas, and became exquisitely sensitive to light."—W. J. Harrison, *History of photography, p.* 73.—Better methods and improved developers were soon worked out and the gelatine dry plate rapidly took the place of collodion. "In these days of the universal use of roll-film, with its advantages for negative-making of lightness and 'unbreakability,' we are liable to forget that photographers in the forties of the last century did their work also on a flexible material. . . . With Scott Archer's discovery of the collodion process glass began its career as the material for negative, yet during all the sixty years and more which have elapsed since then inventors were striving at intervals to perfect a means of avoiding its weight and liability to break. . . . When gelatine emulsion came into use inventors of flexible film came thick and fast, and a whole chapter might be written of the various devices which were introduced or suggested. . . . In 1887 the process which, as the American Courts have . . . decided, formed the starting point for the manufacture of a flexible photographic film was patented by the late Rev. Hannibal Goodwin. It was followed by a patent of the Eastman Company's chemist, H. M. Reichenbach, and for over twenty years a dispute as to the Goodwin patent went on, eventually to be decided in favour of the owners of Goodwin's invention. Meanwhile the Eastman Company had themselves brought film manufacture to a high state of perfection, and by the construction of many ingenious patterns of camera had popularised the use of flexible film, chiefly among amateur photographers."—*British Journal of Photography, Supplement, June* 19, 1914, *p.* xv.

Moving pictures.—"The photography of a succession of movements was taken as long ago as 1872. In that year Mr. Muybridge, a Californian, obtained twenty-four successive photographs of a trotting horse. His plan was to arrange twenty-four cameras in a line opposite a white screen. Stretched between each camera and the screen was a thread, and as the horse passed it tightened and broke the thread; and in so doing operated the shutter of the corresponding camera. In 1882 Dr. Marey of Paris constructed the beautiful apparatus known as Marey's pistol. It was, indeed, very like a revolver, but the drum which in the firearm carries the cartridges, in this case carried a circular glass plate coated with sensitive emulsion and wholly enclosed. The only direction from which light could reach it was down the barrel. When this pistol, charged with its sensitive plate, was pointed at any object, and the trigger pulled, the plate rotated about its centre in a succession of jerks, and as it paused for a moment after each step a photographic impression of the object was made near the rim. No real advance in the photography and reproduction of motion was possible until improvements in the manufacture of celluloid provided a long thin strip of sensitised material upon which a succession of many pictures could be obtained. The stimulus which led to this was the need for a film to replace glass plates in a magazine camera, thus reducing the weight and permitting a larger number of snapshots to be taken. And when success was attained there was one man at any rate—Thomas Alva Edison—who was ready to take advantage of it. At the World's Fair at Chicago in 1893 machines were exhibited which worked upon the penny-in-the-slot principle. A nickel was dropped into a machine, and with eyes glued to a small opening the observer saw for about half a minute a complete set of movements illuminated by a small electric lamp. The principle of this and all later machines is that an image thrown upon the retina—the wonderful screen at the back of the eye—persists for about a tenth of a second after the stimulus which produced it has passed away. A picture can be formed on a photographic plate far more rapidly than this, and the number of pictures that can be taken in a second is only limited by the speed at which a shutter can be made to flash the light upon successive portions of the film as it is wound rapidly from one roller on to another. For all ordinary purposes it is sufficient to take sixteen photographs a second and submit them to the observer at the same rate. It does not seem to have occurred to Edison to project the pictures on a screen, and the subsequent development of moving pictures as we know them to-day is mainly due to Mr. R. W. Paul, the scientific instrument maker, of London. According to Mr. F. A. Talbot, Edison did not patent his invention in England, and Mr. Paul's attention was drawn to the matter by a man who asked him to make films for him. The possibility of projecting them by means of a lantern soon appeared, and one night in 1895 the attention of the police was called to loud cries proceeding from a building in Hatton Garden. On entering, they found that what they had suspected to be a grim tragedy was a joyful demonstration which attended the first successful attempt to show moving pictures on the screen. The show was repeated for their benefit, and they were the first persons, other than Mr. Paul and his assistants to become familiar with the new discovery."—E. Cressy, *Discovery and inventions of the twentieth century, pp.* 360-362.

Early patents for steam locomotives. See RAILROADS: 1759-1881.

Early experiments and development of electric locomotives. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric locomotives: 1847-1899.

Railroad air brake.—"With the speeds and weights of cars . . . [in use on railroads] it soon became evident that something better than a manually operated brake was needed. In 1833 Stephenson patented his steam brake; in which steam pressure, acting on a hand-operated mechanism by which the force was applied through a system of rods, multiplying levers (and cams in this case) to the brake shoe. . . . The first pneumatic brake was a vacuum brake patented by James Nasmyth and Charles May in 1844. In 1848 Samuel C. Lister patented an air brake having an axle-driven pump and suitable reservoir to be placed on the 'Guard's Carriage,' and suitable cylinder, pipe, and connections on the various cars to constitute a straight air equipment much

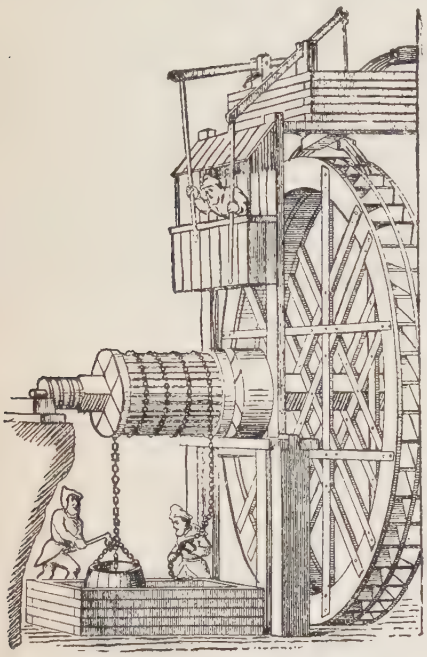
the same as that which followed many years after, except that it was designed to be operated by the guard and not by the engineer. . . . As more and heavier cars came to be handled in the same train, the necessity for a continuous brake or one capable of being put in action on the various cars comprising the train, at the will of the engineer himself, became more and more evident. Some of the various systems originating in . . . [the United States] were extensively tried and seemed to meet the conditions for which they were designed with various degrees of success. The 'Creamer' brake, which was brought into use in 1853, consisted of a large spiral spring attached to the brake staff, at the end of the car, and which was wound up by the brakeman immediately after leaving a station. Attached to the mechanism was a cord which ran through the train to the engineer's cab, and the brake was so designed that when the engineer pulled the cord, the coil springs on each vehicle were released and these at once wound up chains leading to the foundation brake gear, thereby bringing the brake shoes against the wheels. The 'Loughbridge Chain Brake,' which came into use in 1855, consisted of a system of rods and chains continuously connected throughout the train. . . . In addition to the above, various forms of continuous brakes, other than air brakes, were tried to a greater or less extent from time to time. Among these may be mentioned the Smith Vacuum Brake, the Westinghouse Vacuum Brake, the Eames Vacuum Brake, the Fay Mechanical Brake, the Clark & Webb Chain Brake, the Barker Hydraulic Brake, the American Buffer Brake, the Widdifield & Button Friction Buffer Brake, the Rote Buffer Brake, the Carpenter Electric Air Brake, and the Card Electric Brake. . . . The first steps of the complete solution of the [brake] problem were taken, and a new line of development opened up, by the genius of Mr. George Westinghouse, who, in 1869, took out his first patents for the Westinghouse Non-Automatic Air Brake, since generally designated as the 'Straight Air Brake.' The source of power adopted for this system was the expansive force or pressure of compressed air, obtained from a steam actuated air pump placed upon the side of the engine, and a reservoir in which the compressed air could be stored. A pipe line from the reservoir was carried throughout the length of the train, connections between vehicles being made by means of flexible hose and couplings. Each vehicle was provided with a cast-iron cylinder, the piston rod of which was connected to the brake rigging in such a way that when the air was admitted to the cylinder the piston was forced out and the brakes thereby applied. A three-way cock or valve [was] located in the engineer's cab by means of which compressed air could be admitted to the train pipe and thus to the cylinders on each car to apply the brakes; or the air already in the cylinders and train brake pipe could be discharged to the atmosphere, thus releasing the brakes. . . . This type of apparatus has many good qualities and a very large degree of flexibility, . . . [but it] had shortcomings which made it unsuitable for use on trains of any considerable length on account of the time required to apply and release the brake . . . the unequal braking effort throughout the train . . . [and the low safety point. It therefore] gave way to the automatic brake, which afterwards came to be called the 'plain automatic brake,' to distinguish it from a later type that locally reduced the brake pipe pressure, thus producing what is called 'quick action.' The first form of this brake, probably the greatest advance ever made in the art, was invented and introduced by Mr. George Westinghouse in 1872. The automatic feature resulted from the obtaining of an indirect application of the brakes through the medium of a valve device called a triple valve, and an auxiliary storage reservoir, which were added to the brake cylinder on each car. . . . The triple valve is the essential mechanical element in such a system, possessing the three functions of charging the auxiliary reservoir and of applying and releasing the brakes in accordance with variations in the air pressure carried in the brake pipe; the medium for producing such operations as desired, being, for all general operations, a manually operated brake valve on the locomotive. By means of this valve the engineer could apply the brakes either to a part of their capacity, by steps or graduations, or fully, by a continuous decrease of the brake pipe pressure, but he had no control of the release of the brakes (as with the straight air). . . . [Its limitations were] overcome by the invention (in 1887) of the 'quick action' triple valve and the equipment with which it was used came to be known therefore as the Quick Action Automatic Brake. The 'quick action' triple valve was identical with the plain triple valve as far as service operations were concerned, but differed from it in emergency in that it automatically vented air from the brake pipe locally on each car."—W. W. Turner, *History of great inventions* (*Scientific American, Supplement, Apr.* 8, 1911).—"The present improved triple valve has the emergency feature, but it also has what is known as the quick-service application feature, that is, for ordinary purposes, the air is admitted to all of the brake cylinders so quickly that the longest freight train can be handled with almost the precision obtainable in the control of passenger trains of from six to twelve cars. In the matter of the development of the brakes for operation upon passenger trains, nothing that skill and perseverance could suggest has been omitted in securing the highest degree of perfection. The requirements during the past few years, by reason of the greater weight of cars and locomotives and of the higher speeds at which they are run, have necessitated the redesigning of all the passenger train brake apparatus, including the method of attaching the brake shoes to the cars and the levers and connections for bringing these shoes to bear with the required pressure upon the wheels. For the purpose of insuring the highest efficiency, every wheel of a passenger train, including those under the locomotive, is now acted upon, whereas formerly many of the master mechanics and engineers were apprehensive that it would not be possible to make use of all of the wheels of a locomotive for braking purposes."—G. Westinghouse, *How I invented the air-brake* (*Scientific American, July* 8, 1911, *p.* 34).

Swivelling truck and equalizing levers for locomotives. See RAILROADS: 1830-1880.

Power.—Water wheels.—"A paddle wheel, turned by a jet of water, has been known since the times of antiquity; 'overshot' wheels have been familiar to the Chinese for centuries; and 'current wheels' ('undershot,' sometimes on an anchored raft) probably revolved on streams in prehistoric times. A very early type is the 'breast wheel,' a compromise between the overshot and undershot. The use of curved buckets was first proposed by Euler, the great Swiss mathematician, in 1754. Various forms of curved bucket turbines were developed, especially in France, in the next seventy years. One marked type, the 'inflow turbine,'

NOTED INVENTORS

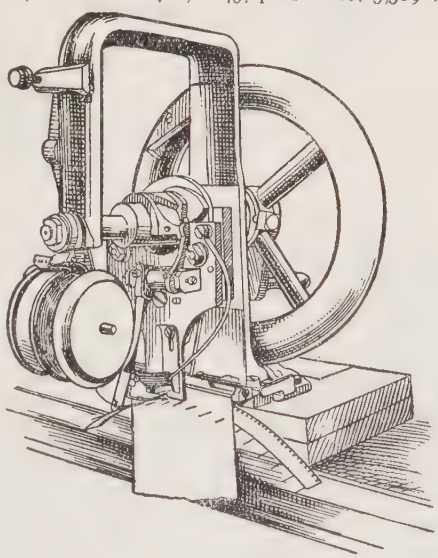
was put forth by Poncelet in 1826 and developed in 1849 in this country by J. H. Francis. Another, the 'outflow turbine,' by Fourneyron in 1827, was brought out here by Morris in 1843. A still later type, where the flow is in, down, and out, has been named the 'American.' These were intended for low head. Going back to the flat paddle wheel, we find that the early California miners, having numerous water jets at



OVERSHOT WATER WHEEL OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

hand, used their crude 'hurdy-gurdys' for sawing lumber, etc. The first suggestion for an impulse water wheel came from Professor Hesse of the University of California in 1867, and he had a small wheel built and tested then, but did not patent it. The first patent was that of Pelton in 1880. An improvement in the shape of the bucket (ellipsoidal, with a recess in the lower part) was patented by Doble, the patents being recently acquired by the Pelton Company. The Pelton and Doble wheels, developed on the Pacific Coast, are in use in most of the high head water power plants of the world. One other kind, the reaction wheel (original form being Hero's engine) was adapted to water power by Barker (America) in 1740. This wheel is rarely used now, but finds an application in the common lawn sprinkler."—A. L. Jordan, *Short stories of great inventions* (*School of Science and Mathematics, Feb.*, 1917).—See also STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Steam turbine engines.

Sewing machine.—"The earliest attempt at sewing by machinery of which there is any authentic record was in 1775, in which year a machine was patented in England by Charles F. Weisenthal, in which machine the stitch was formed by a needle having two points with an eye at mid-length, which passed completely through the goods in imitation of hand sewing. Following this came an English patent dated July 17th, 1790, granted to Thomas Saint, for a machine that embodied several features employed in the modern sewing machine, namely, an overhanging arm, a horizontal cloth plate, a vertically reciprocating needle, and a feeding device. The needle, notched at its lower end, pushed a loop of thread through a hole previously made by an awl. The loop thus formed was held beneath the goods, and the next loop was passed through it, thus making what is known as the 'chain stitch.' An Englishman named Duncan in 1804 made a chain-stitch machine that employed two hooked needles, and in 1830 a Frenchman named Barthelemy Thimonnier invented a machine which embodied the same principles with the exception that the loop of thread was pulled through the fabric. The first American patent for a sewing machine was issued to a man named Lye in 1836. A fire, which occurred that year, destroyed all the Patent Office records, so that the construction of this machine is not known. It is said that in the years 1832 to 1834 Walter Hunt of New York city built what was probably the first lock-stitch machine. This was provided with a curved needle (with an eye near the point) mounted on a vibrating arm. A loop was formed beneath the cloth by this thread-carrying needle, and a shuttle carrying an additional thread was passed through the loop thus formed, making a lock stitch. Hunt, however, did not apply for a patent until after the granting of the Howe patent, and his application was refused. On February 21st, 1842, patent No. 2,466 was granted to John Greenough, which was the first United States patent for a sewing machine of which there is any existing record. This machine employed two needles, pulled entirely through the cloth by pincers, and the stitch was formed with two threads, the machine being used principally on leather work. March 4th, 1843, patent No. 2,982 was granted to B. W. Bean; December 27th, 1843, patent No. 3,389 was



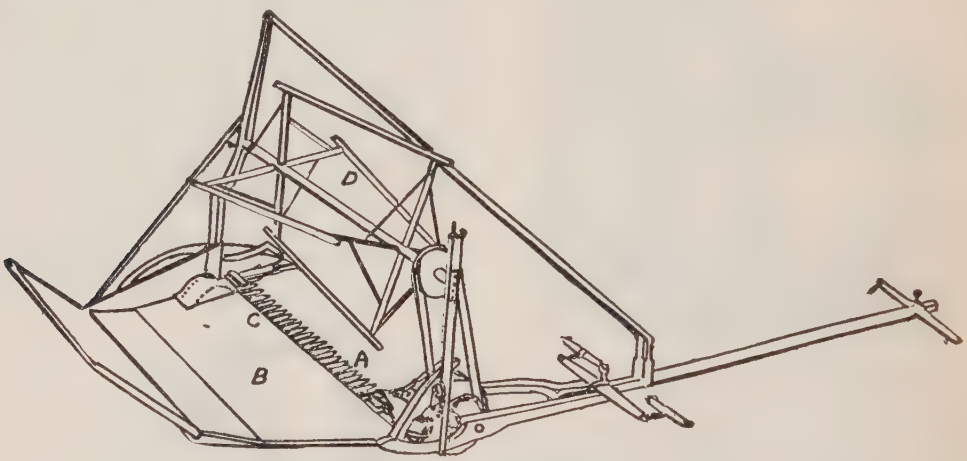
FIRST HOWE SEWING MACHINE

issued to G. H. Corliss; and July 22nd, 1844, patent No. 3,672 was granted to J. Rodgers. In all of these machines a thread-carrying needle was pulled entirely through the cloth by pincers or clamps, forming what is known as a basting or running stitch. Elias Howe patented his machine September 10th, 1846, patent No. 4,750."—*Scientific American, May* 3, 1913, *p.* 419.

"Howe's original machine had a very clumsy

feed. The cloth was suspended by pins from the edge of a thin steel rib, called a 'baster-plate,' which had holes engaged by the teeth of a small, intermittently-moving pinion. Later Howe patented the curved eye-pointed needle and interlocking shuttle, which made his machine a commercial success. Allen B. Wilson always insisted that up to the time he had finished his second machine he never had heard of a sewing machine. He took out his first patent in 1850. That machine formed a lock stitch by means of a curved race below the plate. The feed motion was obtained by two metal bars intersecting above the metal race. The lower bar, called the feed bar, had teeth on its upper face, and by means of a transverse sliding motion it moved the cloth the desired distance as each stitch was made. This feed did well enough, but two years later Wilson patented his four-motion feed, which, in combination with the spring presser-foot forms the basis of all modern feeding systems. The feed bar was first raised, then carried forward, shifting the cloth the desired distance, then dropped, and vertical needle and shuttle. Also he was the first man who introduced foot power in place of the crank-driven wheel."—*Scientific American, Mar.* 16, 1912, *pp.* 256-257.—Many modern sewing machines are motor driven, with foot power replaced by electrical power. See also ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1879-1917.

Reaper.—"At the beginning of the nineteenth century the Royal Agricultural Society of Great Britain offered a prize for the introduction of a really useful machine which should replace the scythe and sickle. Several machines were brought out, but they did not prove practical enough to attract much attention. Cyrus H. McCormick invented in 1831 the reaper, which, with very many improvements added, is to-day employed in all parts of the world. The most noticeable point of this machine was the bar furnished with a row of triangular blades which passed very rapidly to and fro through slots in an equal number of sharp steel points, against which they cut the grain. The to-and-fro action of the cutter-blade was produced by a connecting-rod working on a



McCORMICK REAPER, 1845

A, Blade. B, Platform. C, 27 Fingers. D, Reel.

was finally brought back by a spring to its original position. It was in 1849 that James E. A. Gibbs saw in the *Scientific American* a picture of a sewing machine. The working of the device was plain down to the point where the needle perforated the cloth. He fell into the habit of speculating upon the course of events after the needle was lost to view. Finally he . . . worked out the ingenious little revolving hook which became the important feature of the Wilcox & Gibbs machine. The hook, which is placed below the cloth plate, seizes the loop, and, during the ascent of the needle, gives a twist to the thread and spreads it out ready to be engaged by needle on its next descent, when the hook catches another loop and repeats the operation. A patent granted in 1851 introduced one of the most useful machines, and, probably, the most picturesque man that figured in the development of the sewing machine. Isaac M. Singer began his career as a strolling player, graduating into a theatrical manager. Then he became a sewing machine inventor, not only of devices, but of exploitation. He introduced a circular feed wheel below the cloth plate, a thread controller, the use of gear wheels and shafting to transmit the power from the driving wheel to the countershaft for working the crank rotated by the wheels carrying the machine. The first McCormick reaper did wonders on a Virginian farm; other inventors were stimulated; and in 1833 there appeared the Hussey reaper, built on somewhat similar lines. For twelve years or so these two machines competed against one another all over the United States; and then McCormick added a raker attachment, which, when sufficient grain had accumulated on the platform, enabled a second man on the machine to sweep it off to be tied up into a sheaf. At the Great Exhibition held in London in 1851, the judges awarded a special medal to the inventor, reporting that the whole expense of the Exhibition would have been well recouped if only the reaper were introduced into England. From France McCormick received the decoration of the Legion of Honour 'for having done more for the cause of agriculture than any man then living.' . . . In 1858 an attachment was fitted to replace the second passenger on the machine. Four men followed behind to tie up the grain as it was shot off the machine. Inventors tried to abolish the need for these extra hands by means of a self-binding device. A practical method, employing wire, appeared in 1860; but so great was the trouble caused by stray pieces of the wire getting into thresh-

ing and other machinery through which the grain subsequently passed that farmers went back to hand work, until the Appleby patent of 1873 replaced wire by twine. Words alone would convey little idea of how the corn is collected and encircled with twine; how the knot it tied by an ingenious shuttle mechanism; and how it is thrown out into a set of arms which collect sufficient sheaves to form a 'shock' before it lets them fall. . . .

"In California, perhaps more than in any other country, 'power' agricultural machinery is seen at its best. Great traction-engines here take the place of human labour to an extraordinary extent. The largest, of 50 h.p. and upwards, 'with driving-wheels 60 inches in diameter and flanges of generous width, travel over the uneven surface of the grain fields, crossing ditches and low places, and ascending the sides of steep hills, with as much apparent ease as a locomotive rolls along its steel rails. Such powerful traction-engines . . . are capable of dragging behind them sixteen 10-inch ploughs, four 6-foot harrows, and a drill and seeder. The land is thus ploughed, drilled, and seeded all at one time. From fifty to seventy-five acres of virgin soil can thus be ploughed and planted in a single day. When the harvest comes the engines are again brought into service, and the fields that would ordinarily defy the best efforts of an army of workmen are garnered quickly and easily. The giant harvester is hitched to the traction-engine in place of the ploughs and harrows, and cuts, binds, and stacks the golden wheat from seventy-five acres in a single day. The cutters are 26 feet wide, and they make a clear swathe across the field. Some of them thresh, clean, and sack the wheat as fast as it is cut and bound. Other traction-engines follow to gather up the sacked wheat, and whole train-loads of it thus move across the field to the granaries or railways of the seaboard or interior.' . . . Maize has a very tough stalk, often 10 feet high and an inch thick, which cannot be cut with the ease of wheat or barley. So a special machine has been devised to handle it. The row of corn is picked up, if fallen, by chains furnished with projecting spikes working at an angle to the perpendicular, so as to lift and simultaneously pull back the stalks, which pass into a horizontal V-shaped frame. This has a broad opening in front, but narrows towards its rear end, where stationary sickles fixed on either side give the stalk a drawing cut before it reaches the single knife moving to right and left in the angle of the V, which severs the stalk completely. The McCormick machine gathers the corn in vertical bundles, and ties them up ready for the 'shockers.'"—A. Williams, *Romance of modern mechanism, pp.* 322-326.

Agricultural implements. See Agriculture: Modern: United States: 1776-1833, to 1860-1888.

Typewriter.—The typewriter is a machine which produces characters resembling those of the ordinary letter press through the operation of keys in a keyboard. Although the typewriter is essentially an American invention the first-recorded idea for a writing machine came from England in 1714 when Henry Mill, a London engineer, applied for a patent for his writing machine. In 1784 there appeared a French invention which made raised characters to enable the blind to read. This was followed in 1829 by an American patent taken out by W. A. Burt. The first manual keyboard is a French device brought out in 1833. Between 1840 and 1860 Sir Charles Wheatstone invented several writing machines the models of which are now in the South Kensington Museum. In 1843 Charles Thurber, an American, invented a machine which consisted of a set of type bars in a vertical position around a horizontal brass wheel which turned about a central post, the letters being brought into proper position by the hand. The Alfred E. Beach machine brought out in America in 1856 embodied the basket-like arrangement of letters making impressions on a common center, a characteristic of the modern typewriter. In 1857 S. W. Francis, also an American, working along the same lines introduced his machine, using an ink ribbon, movable paper frame and alarm bell. "But the turning-point in the evolution of the typewriter undoubtedly came with Pratt's machine, owing to its subsequent influence upon Sholes, Soule, and Glidden. Several of these were built, one of the improved types being preserved in the South Kensington Museum. In this machine, built in 1866, there are thirty-six symbols, corresponding to the capital letters and numerals, mounted in three rows of twelve each upon a vertical type roller. . . . The paper was inserted together with a sheet of carbon paper. When the key was depressed the corresponding letter upon the type-wheel was brought into position, and a smart tap imparted by a hammer striking through the carbon left an imprint of the letter upon the paper. Upon the release of the key the paper moved forward automatically a sufficient distance to receive the next letter. Instead of spacing between words by means of a special space-key, the paper movement for this purpose was obtained by partially depressing any one key. The appearance of the Pratt typewriter stimulated the inventive activities of Sholes, Soule, and Glidden. . . . The trio lost no time in building a machine to their ideas, and by September, 1867, the first [crude] typewriter according to their designs was completed. . . . The types were pivoted in a circle, as in the case of preceding models, and included the letter spacer. . . . It printed only capitals, but it worked accurately and with commendable speed. The inventors were so delighted with their handiwork that they sent letters to several of their friends as a concrete illustration of what they had done. One of these letters happened to be sent to a retired printer and editor, Mr. James Densmore, who was then living at Meadville, Pennsylvania. . . . His receipt of this letter proved to be the turning-point in the fortunes of the invention, because, without seeing the machine, but merely its work, his enthusiasm and imagination were aroused. He offered to purchase an interest in the invention by reimbursing the three men for all the money they had expended upon it up to that time [an offer which was accepted with alacrity]. . . . It was March, 1868, before Densmore saw the actual machine, despite the fact that he had already advanced the money for his interest some six months previously. When it came into his hands he point-blank declared it to be of no commercial value whatever as then built, but was useful as showing the idea of being able to write letters in type. This was a decided set-back to the diligent toilers, and their faces fell. But Densmore reassured them, demonstrated the defects, and suggested how they might be overcome. This emphatic declaration appears to have disgusted Soule and Glidden, because they retired from the enterprise, and there and then declined to have any more to do with it. However, Sholes, . . . [who was chiefly responsible for the design] recognised the justice of Densmore's criticisms, . . . stuck to the machine, and at Densmore's suggestion built another, incorporating cer-

tain improvements which his colleague considered essential. Then a third machine was taken in hand to overcome some other defect. And so it went on, model after model being built, each representing a certain improvement upon its predecessor. . . . [Nevertheless when in 1873] the Remington experts took the machine in hand they found it almost hopeless in its original condition. They embarked upon entirely new designs, . . . with the result that 1874 was well advanced before the 'Remington typewriter,' as it was called after the manufacturing firm, and one which to-day is known throughout the world, was ready for the market. The first commercial model was christened 'No. 1,' and now is colloquially known as 'the ancestor of writing machines.' But the appearance of the typewriter was not hailed with such enthusiasm by the business community as had been anticipated. . . . Samples of work carried out by the machine were scattered like leaves far and wide, and an attempt to rivet attention upon the new time- and labour-saver for the office was made at the Centennial Exhibition held at Philadelphia in 1876, where, by the way, Bell was striving with might and main to induce the public to regard his telephone favourably. The public would have nothing to do with the typewriter. In the first place, it printed only in capital letters. This limitation is somewhat remarkable, seeing that Wheatstone's typewriter for the rapid printing of telegrams, which had been invented ten years previously and which used both capital and small letters—upper and lower case—was well known. The first improvement was effected through the ingenuity of Lucien Crandall, who introduced the carriage-shifting device, which paved the way for the invention of Byron A. Brooks, a professor of higher mathematics, who conceived the idea of mounting the upper and lower case form of each character upon the one lever, either of which could be brought into use by the manipulation of a shift key. When the two characters of each letter were introduced the machine began to appeal more strongly to the public. However the early days of the typewriter were extremely chequered, and the young invention experienced many vicissitudes. [At times it seemed as if it would inevitably succumb to public apathy. At length the Remington machine was obtained by a new company, which placed it before the public in so attractive a light that in an almost unbelievably short space of time it became a world-wide success.] . . .

"[Meanwhile Yost] endeavored to evolve and perfect a machine which would become a powerful rival. He was confronted with a superhuman task, inasmuch as the patents protecting the Remington were so comprehensive as to render it difficult to build a machine without infringing the pioneer claims somewhere or other. Yost strove desperately to consummate his ambition, but was foiled. The machine which was built to his designs was noticeable for having a double keyboard—capital and small letters respectively—thereby dispensing with the shift-key. In reality, the double keyboard idea was forced upon him because it was impossible to use the two characters for each type-bar without infringing the shift-key patent. . . . Although the Remington was experiencing such a stern uphill fight against commercial conservatism and prejudice, its chequered career did not affect the enthusiasm of other inventors who aspired to woo fortune with the typewriter. Two men, James B. Hammond and Lucien Crandall, endeavoured to steer clear of the Remington patents by introducing typewheels. This precipitated an unexpected *dénouement*. The machine which had been invented by Pratt in 1866, while he was resident in London, and which was quaintly described as the 'pterotype,' attracted attention. The inventor, realising its shortcomings, devoted considerable labour and expense upon improvements. Finally, he applied to the United States Government for patent protection. But, to his dismay, he discovered that Hammond and Crandall disputed his claims with their respective type-wheel principles, and he was threatened with litigation. For a time there was a complete deadlock, but at last the situation was overcome by Pratt conceding Hammond's claim to prior invention, while Crandall proceeded with his patent, which, he maintained, differed from both that of Pratt and Hammond. The typewriter of to-day may be divided into three broad classes, according to the principle of operation. There is the type-bar machine, such as the Remington, and this is the principle adopted in the greater proportion of machines of the times. Then there is the index machine, in which there is an index plate and a pointer. The letter to be printed is brought into position over the printing point, and then pressed upon the paper by means of a knob. This type of machine is very simple, occupies very little space, and is light in weight. But it is slow in operation, and has virtually disappeared from the commercial world. Finally, there is the type-wheel machine founded upon the principles of the Pratt and Hammond typewriters, in which the type is mounted, or cut upon the face or rim of a wheel, which is revolved by depressing the key to bring the required letter to the printing point and then smartly depressed upon the paper. The Hammond and Blickensderfer machines offer probably the most illuminating examples of this system. But it is the type-bar machine which reigns supreme to-day. It is not only fast in working, but being of substantial design and construction, is able to stand up to the hardest work. The typewriter industry underwent a tremendous impetus upon the expiry of the Remington master patents, which, up to that time, thwarted competition. . . . Some idea of the arduous task with which the pioneers were confronted in the early days, and an illuminating impression of the widespread success and popularity of the typewriter at the moment, may be gathered from the fact that the total sales of the Remington typewriter during the first ten years of its history—1874 to 1884—scarcely equalled the sales of a single month [in 1916]. . . . In order to demonstrate the present magnitude of the business, which has only been in existence a little more than forty years, it may be stated that over 500,000 stenographers and typists . . . [in 1916 owed] their living to the Remington typewriter. . . . Other countries can point to similar results upon a corresponding scale. The extent to which the typewriter has conquered the world may be gathered from the fact that the Remington Company furnishes 1,100 different keyboards, this total including keyboards for writing in 156 different languages and dialects. And this concerns only the pioneer and parent company. If the figures for the typewriter industry as a whole could be marshalled, it would afford an impressive insight to the manner in which commerce, industry, and even private life has been revolutionised by an invention of contemporary history."—F. A. Talbot, *All about inventions and discoveries, pp.* 183-185, 188-195.

Refrigeration.—"The practice of cooling bodies below the temperature of the surrounding atmos-

phere has been followed for ages, thus giving us the elementary principles of artifical production of cold. But the use of natural cold for the preservation of food is centuries older still. . . . The earliest method of cooling practised, still to be met with in India, Mexico and other warm climates, was by evaporation, the liquid to be cooled being placed in porous vessels and, percolating through these, cooling that which remained inside. Nor can ice-making be claimed as entirely a modern achievement. Ages ago, in India, like China, Mexico and Peru . . . water was frozen in shallow, porous earthen dishes, resting on some non-conducting material, such as straw or grass, by being exposed to currents of air during the night, when a thin film of ice formed on the surface. Another method of abstracting heat and producing cold, that has been known and practised for many centuries, is by dissolving saltpetre in water, or mixing common salt with ice or snow. . . . The use of such frigorific mixtures for the abstraction of heat . . . was known as far back as the year 1607, and the most common combination, that of ice and salt, is said to have been used by Fahrenheit in 1762, when he placed the freezing point of water at 32°. . . . It was found, in the early part of the eighteenth century, that evaporation of a liquid would take place if the pressure were removed, particularly if the liquid were ether, or some other highly volatile fluid. This evaporation would occur at such a low temperature that ice would rapidly form on the surface of the vessel containing the boiling liquid if the vessel were placed in water. . . . Dr. Cullen is said to have made a machine for evaporating water under a vacuum in 1755, and Lavoisier experimented with ether in France shortly after, but the more important progress appears to have been made about the beginning of the nineteenth century. In 1810 Leslie experimented with a machine using sulphuric acid and water. In 1824 Vallance . . . took out a patent under which dry air was circulated over shallow trays of water, when evaporation took place and heat was abstracted. An improvement on this system was patented in New South Wales in 1858 by G. B. Sloper, in which the water to be frozen was placed in canvas bags, so that the whole surfaces of such vessels were exposed to the evaporative effect of the surrounding air as well as the surface of the water itself. . . . In 1834 Hagen experimented with the volatile spirit of caoutchouc, and in the same year Jacob Perkins of London constructed the first ice-making machine which worked successfully with a volatile liquid; this machine, which was patented in August, 1834, was the forerunner of all the compression systems of the present day. In this machine ether was vaporized and expanded under the reduced pressure maintained by the suction of a pump, and the heat required for such vaporization was abstracted from the substance to be cooled. . . . Jacob Perkins's machine . . . included the four principal features still in use in all modern compression systems, viz., the evaporator, the compressor, the condenser, and the expansion or regulating valve between the condenser and the evaporator. But the original inventor does not seem to have had any more success in introducing his machine for commercial purposes than his predecessor Vallance. In 1845 Dr. Gorrie brought out the first cold air machines, in the improvements upon which we meet with the since world-renowned names of Windhausen, Bell, Coleman, Haslam, Hall, Lightfoot, Giffard and others. The cold air machine was the first one successfully employed in bringing meat from Australia to Europe. In 1850 Carré invented the ammonia absorption process. . . . Some excellent machines on the absorption system were installed . . . and gave good results in working. But the excessive space required was an objection. The system is still largely used in the United States with improvements on the original Pontifex designs. . . . Between 1850 and 1860 many improvements were effected in England, America and Australia, in the Perkins ether machine. Prof. Twining of Ohio, and James Harrison of Geelong, both experimented freely in such improvements. The former is said to have had a machine working successfully between 1855 and 1857, and Harrison in 1855 produced in Victoria, fish frozen in the centre of a block of clear ice. The original Harrison machine was made as a double-table engine, with four slide valves to the ether pump, a separate inlet and outlet valve on the top and bottom covers being worked by cams and an eccentric. Several of these machines were supplied and gave good satisfaction to the purchasers. . . . . It is usually admitted that Messrs. Siebe installed the first absolutely successful machine for manufacturing purposes, which was used for the extraction of paraffin from shale oil in Scotland in 1861. . . . Siebe machines capable of making 10 tons of ice per day had by this year (1862) been supplied to the East India Government for making ice for the Indian military hospitals. . . . Another early experimenter was Charles Tellier, whose name is held in respect throughout the world, not only as the father of refrigeration in France, but as the first one, after repeated experiments and several failures, to be successful in bringing frozen meat across the ocean. Tellier employed methyllic ether as his refrigerating medium. . . . Prior to 1847 the sole outlet for the carcases of the sheep slaughtered in Australia and New Zealand for their wool, and the cattle slaughtered in Argentina for their hides, was 'boiling down' for tallow. . . . Canning was started about this time and proved acceptable, and for many years large quantities . . . [were sent] to the United Kingdom. . . . Meanwhile various inventors were experimenting with the possibilities of freezing meat sufficiently hard to enable the carcase to be shipped across without resorting to canning. Amongst the pioneers were Carré; . . . James Harrison of Geelong; Charles Tellier; . . . and Thomas Mort, intimately connected with the first successful shipment of frozen meat to . . . [Great Britain]. Mr. Mort started the first meat freezing works in the world at Darling Harbour, Sydney, in 1861. . . . In 1876 he prepared a trial shipment to England in the sailing ship *Northam,* which was fitted with an ammonia compression plant similar to those used on land, but the machinery broke down before the vessel left harbour and the meat had to be discharged. In 1876 Tellier installed three machines in *Le Frigorifique* and carried some meat from France to Buenos Aires, which arrived in sufficiently good condition to warrant bringing a return cargo of frozen meat to Rouen, which was also landed in sufficiently good condition, after a prolonged voyage of 110 days, to prove that the problem of carrying meat across the ocean under refrigeration had been solved. The first successful shipment of fresh meat to London was in 1880 by the *Strathleven* fitted with a Bell-Coleman cold air plant. . . . Since 1880 it has been a constant progress in successful shipments from Australia, New Zealand, South America and South Africa. Meanwhile, in 1901, as the result of long experiments carried out by the River Plate Fresh

Meat Co., chilled beef was shipped on a large scale and soon developed into a most successful business."—B. H. Springett, *Cold storage and ice-making, pp.* 1-9, 102-104.

Invention and introduction of Braille.—Moon system of embossed type. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Blind.

20TH CENTURY

Industry: Glassmaking.—"Today there are few branches of the glass industry in which the machine has not replaced the skilled workman and to a large extent reduced this labor of manipulation. In some industries, such as window glass and bottle manufacture, much product is still made by hand. . . . It may be said that this extensive employment of machinery has been the development of the last score of years [written in 1921], the latter part of which has been most productive of results. The window glass cylinder machine, the sheet glass drawing machine, the automatic bottle machine, and the mechanical manipulation of plate glass are all very recent developments. . . . [Up to the year 1900 in the making of plate glass seventeen men were required to remove a pot of molten glass from the furnace and convey it by means of a crude apparatus to the "teeming crane." By means of the teeming crane four men teemed or cast the glass on the casting table, on which it was rolled into a sheet which was then pushed into the annealing oven.] The present method of casting in an up-to-date plant . . . is certainly a great contrast to the old method. . . . The pot is removed from the furnace by means of tongs carried by an overhead crane, from whence it is delivered to the mechanical teeming crane. Here one of the few hand operations takes place, namely, that of skimming the pot, which is performed by two men who remove impurities from the top of the glass. . . . The pot is clamped in the jaws of the teeming crane tongs by means of a screw operated by a workman. It is then carried to the opposite side of the casting table in a position for teeming. The teeming is made by moving the crane forward on its overhead runway, and at the same time the contents of the pot are dumped out on the casting table in front of the roller. [After it has been rolled the glass is pushed into the first of a series of annealing ovens, through which it is moved by means of electricity and from which it comes out cool and annealed.]"—J. W. Cruikshank, *Progress made in plate glass manufacture* (*Glass Industry, v.* 2, *no.* 1, *Jan.,* 1921).—"Efforts to blow window-glass cylinders by machine began in this country in the early 'nineties,' and it took eight or nine years of costly experimenting to evolve apparatus that gave any reasonable promise of commercial success. Since then, the art has moved forward with considerable speed. . . . For the lungs of the human worker the inventors have substituted the tireless cylinders of the air compressor, and have thus made certain of an impulsive breath of uniform pressure and flow. . . . A notable departure in the manufacture of window glass was the perfecting a few years ago of mechanical facilities for the drawing directly from the furnace of great sheets of that commodity. To-day, there are apparatus in service that draw continuously from the pool of molten glass sheets five feet wide in the form of a never-ending 'ribbon,' operating day after day and month after month without interruption. . . . Messrs. Prosper Hanrez in 1886, and Paul Simon in 1902, tried horizontal drawing. . . . A satisfactory solution was despaired of. A Belgian engineer, Mr. Opperman, decided to go around the difficulty which could not be conquered. He proposed to draw, not a sheet but a cylinder, and to prevent contraction by blowing sufficiently to retain the circular dimension. This process, which is a combination of drawing and blowing, has been perfected by the Americans. . . . [Emile Fourcault, director of the Dampremy glass works in Belgium, continued to experiment, and finally succeeded in drawing a flat sheet of glass from the furnace. He] devoted fifteen years to the development of his invention . . . [and finally set up a tank and drawing machines in order] to study the construction of the tank and apparatus, and also to ascertain the commercial value of drawn glass, which was an entirely new product. . . . The experiments were continued for two years. The machines produced 300,000 square meters of glass, which was sold like the glass obtained in the old way. The cost was about 40 per cent. lower. . . . The Glass Works of Dampremy did not hesitate to establish a large tank with eight drawing machines. This installation has been in operation since 1914."—*Glass Industry, v.* 2, *no.* 8, *Aug.,* 1921, *pp.* 194, 195, 190, 191.—"The making of bottles and hollow ware by hand with the blowpipe and a mold to form the outer configuration of the ware has been a skilled art dating back into antiquity. With mechanical replacing the manual operations in industry, it was natural that efforts to reproduce the work of the skilled artisan in glass should be attempted. . . . At a date within the memory of men still active in the industry, a very radical step was taken in the introduction of the blank system. This system divided the process of making a bottle into two parts and thereby divided the difficulties to be overcome in introducing mechanical apparatus. . . . While the introduction of the blank system was the means that made solution possible, the real achievement in bottle making was the invention and development of the Owens bottle machine . . . the greatest forward step in the industry in four hundred years."—G. E. Howard, *Automatic bottle manufacture* (*Glass Industry, v.* 2, *no.* 3, *Mar.,* 1921).—M. J. Owens of Toledo, who began to experiment in 1899, first invented a crude device "for gathering by suction into a two-part iron mold, a solid mass of glass from a pot of melted glass. The upper part of the mold completely formed the neck and lip of the bottle around a plunger, the plunger being inserted through the top of the parison or solid mass of glass in the mold. The next process was to open the lower mold. This permitted the parison suspended by the neck in the upper mold to be placed in the finishing mold. The finishing mold was similar in shape to the bottle to be blown. By reversing the piston in the cylinder, air was forced in an opposite direction to that used in gathering the glass, and the parison was expanded in the mold and blown into form. . . . [The Toledo Glass Co. then took up the process, and with the aid of W. E. Bock an improved machine, with a rotary tank for glass was devised. This machine had six arms, with three gathering and three finishing molds, and was in use by 1903. In 1904 the machine was made so that the gathering mold could dip into the surface of the glass in the tank, and the process became so perfected that it was exported to supply bottle manufacturing plants in Europe.] It performs the whole operation of bottle-making from the beginning to end, without once calling

for human intervention. It even dips the molten glass out of the furnace with one pair of steel hands, with them crams it into the molds, which may well represent its maw, retreats with it from the furnace as might a dog that has snatched a bone; molds it, blows it and tempers it, . . . finally delivering the finished bottle. . . . 'A bottle is handed out every few seconds, and the machine continues going around gracefully doing its work.'"—W. S. Walbridge, *American bottles old and new, pp.* 57, 77.—In 1909 small bottles were made by this process, and in 1912 castings ranging in size from five to thirteen gallons were made.

Textile and chemical inventions of Germans.—Use of paper cloth. See GERMANY: 1916-1918.

Railroad brakes.—Automatic control.—"The signals, clear, caution, or stop, are transmitted to the target, or semaphore, and are read and understood in the usual manner. The connection with the locomotive is made through a ramp, a single length of light rail beside the track, 150 or 200 feet in front of the target. The signal is seen by the engineer half a mile, in clear weather, before the ramp is reached, which gives time to slow down. A contact shoe . . transmits the current from the ramp to the speed controller, which opens and closes electric circuits, depending on the speed of the train. . . . [The centrifugal governor, is mechanically connected] to one of the front wheels of the locomotive and revolves, therefore, at the same speed. The governor moves a pair of electrical contacts, opening them when the engine (and governor) speed exceeds a predetermined maximum. . . . These contacts, in turn, under certain conditions, control the air-brakes through an electro-pneumatic valve. . . . When a train passes a signal in the caution position, the combined action of the control current received from the roadside apparatus and the change of electrical connections on the locomotive effected by the contact of ramp and shoe, inserts the centrifugal governor contacts in the circuit and thereby puts the air-brakes under its control. . . . It is important to note that the initiative remains with the engineer, and only when he fails to respond to a signal indication does the speed controller, obeying orders received through the ramp, do the work for him. The engineer cannot increase speed while the locomotive is in the low-speed area, nor, if brought to a stop by the ramp, can he proceed without descending and releasing the valve. . . . The history of automatic train control is 20 years old."—J. T. Bramhall, *Stop! Look! Listen!* (*Scientific American, June,* 1922).

Improvements of steam engine.—Gasolene motor. See STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Modern improvements; Adoption of the gasolene motor.

Tantalum lamp.—Incandescent lamps.—Miners' safety lamps. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric lighting: 1841-1921.

Power from Niagara Falls, and other power plants. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric power: 1896-1921; 1921.

Telephones.—Pupin's improvement of long-distance telephone.—Amplifiers.—Projecting apparatus. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Telephone: 1900; 1920-1921.

Electric cookers.—Vacuum cleaners. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1879-1917.

Wireless or radio.—Tuning devices.—Developments during World War.—De Forest's audion.—Long-distance radio.—Amplifiers.—Repeaters and projectors. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Wireless, or radio: 1864-1903; 1903; 1914-1918; 1915-1921; 1919.

Survey of late inventions.—New vacuum tube. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Survey of late inventions.

Guns.—Small arms.—Machine guns.—Tanks. See RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: World War; Shotguns in World War; ORDNANCE: 20th century; TANKS: Invention.

Submarine developments.—Use of periscope and Fessendon oscillator. See SUBMARINES: 1913-1920; 1914-1920; 1915.

Achievements of Count Zeppelin.—Airplanes, biplanes and seaplanes.—Achievements of the Wright Brothers and Blériot. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1896-1914; Development of airplanes and air service: 1896-1910; 1910-1920.

Caterpillar tractors.—Automobile improvements.—Achievements of Henry Ford.—Starting devices.—Radiators.—Cooling systems. See AUTOMOBILES: 1858-1919; 1889-1905; 1892-1916; 1900-1920; 1902-1915.

Instruments: Gyroscope.—Its uses.—"Who would have thought that in . . . [spinning tops] lay concealed the secret of steering a torpedo, of steadying ships, of a navigating compass, or of travelling with security in a car on a single rail? . . . But the most interesting top of all is undoubtedly the ordinary gyroscope . . . capable of illustrating the gyroscopic phenomena which have been so much made use of in modern mechanical invention. . . . [The patent for] the gyroscopic mechanism employed for automatically steering a torpedo . . . was originally protected by M. Obry, an Austrian engineer, and sold to the authorities of the Whitehead Torpedo Works at Fiume, by whom it was improved and finally patented in its present form in 1898. The following is a brief outline of the way in which the steering is effected. As the torpedo passes through the impulse tube, a trigger projecting from its upper surface catches against a bolt in the tube and releases a spring by which the gyroscope is spun. . . . Thus, before the torpedo enters the water, the axle of the gyroscope is pointing in the required direction, from which it never deviates. . . . [Late in the nineteenth century, Sir Henry Bessemer, the inventor of the Bessemer process of casting steel, evolved an idea for stabilizing ships by gyroscopes, which was unsuccessful.] Herr Otto Schlick has successfully carried out a series of valuable experiments in the 'See-Bär,' formerly a first-class torpedo-boat of the German Navy, with a view to applying the principle of the gyroscope to counteract the rolling of a vessel at sea. . . . If a large fly-wheel were mounted in the middle of a screw steamer on a horizontal axle at right angles to the length of the ship, and were made to revolve rapidly, it is clear that the steamer would become much steadier, but only in so far as she was allowed to make deflections from her course. To obviate this difficulty Herr Schlick places the fly-wheel with its axis vertical, and mounted in a frame . . . which can itself turn about a horizontal axle directly athwart ship. The rolling force of the waves is thus counteracted (in part at any rate) by the gyroscopic resistance of the rotating wheel, while the wheel itself turns about the horizontal axle of the frame, but in no way interferes with the direction of the ship's course. . . . The first gyroscopic apparatus for steadying ships which was constructed in England, was made at Newcastle, at the Neptune Works of Swan, Hunter and Wigham Richardson, and was fitted in October, 1908, to the R. M. S. 'Lochiel,' owned by Messrs. David Mac Brayne of Glasgow. It can be thrown in and out of action at will. When it is out of action,

the vessel has been observed to roll, out and out, through an arc of 32 degrees, which was reduced to a (total) angle of from 2 to 4 degrees by the action of the gyroscope. The machinery, which occupies very little space in the steamer, is driven electrically and requires very little attention. . . . The gyroscope has been employed by Mr. Louis Brennan [in 1907] with striking ingenuity and success to ensure the stability of a heavy car travelling on a single line of rail with its centre of gravity *above* the level of the rail, as is seen in the accompanying illustrations. The invention, in its simplest form, consists in affixing to the car a heavy-rimmed fly-wheel, or gyrostat, . . . revolving in the same plane as the road wheels and in the same direction, . . . on an axle OX perpendicular to the plane of the paper. . . . Another ingenious application of the gyroscope to a monorail car has lately (Feb., 1914) been made by Monsieur Schilowsky, a Russian inventor. In this system, a *single* gyroscope is mounted . . . with its axle . . . vertical, while the wheel is also free to turn about a horizontal axis . . . in the same manner as in Schlick's device, but with this essential difference: that the wheel and other masses moving with it about the horizontal axis are so designed that their centre of gravity is *above* this axis of suspension. Thus, immediately the wheel precesses, the weight of the whole precessing mass calls a couple into play tending to hurry the precession and restore equilibrium. A further device is introduced for hurrying the precession by the action of two pendulums, one on either side of the car. . . . A clever application has been made by Dr. Anschütz of the principles of precession by which the axle of a rotating gyroscope takes the place of the magnetic needle of an ordinary compass. The necessity for some such non-magnetic contrivance has of late years become increasingly important owing to the prevalence of iron and electric appliances in modern warships. The gyro-compass is in general use in the German Navy, and has recently been adopted by the English Government. One end of the axle of the gyroscope turns to the North. By an ingenious device . . . the wheel is mounted in a case which floats in a bath of mercury, the whole being so arranged that the centre of gravity . . . of the movable parts of the instrument is below the point of support, . . .—that is, the metacentre. If the wheel is not spinning, the system is equivalent to a pendulum free to swing in any direction; but when the wheel is spinning, the rotation of the earth exercises a certain directive power on the axle, turning it round so that one end of it points to the North."—H. Crabtree, *Elementary treatment of the theory of spinning tops and gyroscopic motion, pp.* 1, 8, 66, 67, 70, 71, 75, 76.—In 1913, Count Zeppelin brought out a gyroscopic control for his dirigibles about the same time that E. A. Sperry of New York successfully applied his gyroscopic equipment to control airplanes. "The gyroscopic stabilizer invented by E. A. Sperry of New York which was used on a Curtiss aeroplane in a safety contest on June 18th was awarded the first prize of $10,000 offered by the French war department."—*Scientific American, July* 11, 1914, *p.* 30.—"Of recent years, the gyroscope has been adapted to many useful services. Without anything to hold to so to speak, . . . [Mr. E. A. Sperry] has been able to automatically stabilize the flying machine. . . . [In 1915 he] equipped the little motor yacht 'Widgeon' with one of his stabilizers. The effect of the stabilizer was all that was hoped for. . . . It may not be generally remembered that about three years ago [written in 1915] Mr. Sperry installed aboard of the U. S. S. *Worden,* a destroyer . . . an experimental gyroscopic stabilizer. . . . The little craft was virtually transformed . . . but the equipment was in some respects a makeshift . . . cumbersome and overweighty. [For this and other reasons the apparatus was not at that time accepted by the navy; but in 1915-1916 an experiment was again tried with two stabilizing equipments aboard submarines, and one on a 10,000 ton transport.]".—R. G. Skerrett, *Active gyroscope as a ship stabilizer* (*Scientific American, Dec.* 18, 1915).—The experiment was eminently successful, and gyroscopic equipment was quickly placed on the ships of the Allied navies. "The gyroscopic compass is not only now (1920) the direction finder for ships, . . . but it is indispensable in gunfire control. . . . Every shot which the British fleet fired at Jutland was directed by a Sperry gyroscopic compass."—C. H. Clandy, *Romance of invention* (*Scientific American, Apr.* 17, 1920).—See also TORPEDO: Development.—"A problem . . . has recently [1922] found its solution in the trial trip of the Danish S. S. 'Konig Frederik VIII,' equipped with a self-steering Anschütz gyro compass. . . . The gyroscopic compass can, of course, be placed in any part of the ship, its readings being interfered with by no rolling or other movement of the latter. Owing to its floating suspension in a mercury bath, friction is reduced to a minimum and the readings are practically instantaneous without any lag. From the master compass they are transmitted electrically to as many receivers as required."—A. Gradenwitz, *Self-steering vessels* (*Scientific American, Aug.,* 1922).

Diving apparatus.—"The modern diver is not sent out from a bell, but has his separate and independent apparatus. The first practical diving helmet was that of Kleingert, a German [1798]. This enclosed the diver as far as the waist, and constituted a small diving bell, since the bottom was open for the escape of vitiated air. Twenty years later, or just a century after the invention of Halley's bell, Augustus Siebe, the founder of the present great London firm of Siebe, Gorman, and Company, produced a more convenient 'open' dress, consisting of a copper helmet and shoulder-plate in one piece, attached to a waterproof jacket reaching to the hips. The disadvantage of the open dress was, that the diver had to maintain an almost upright position, or the water would have invaded his helmet. Mr. Siebe therefore added a necessary improvement, and extended the dress to the feet, giving his diver a 'close' protection from the water.

"We may pass over the gradual development of the 'close' dress and glance at the most up-to-date [twentieth century] equipment in which the 'toilers of the deep' explore the bed of Old Ocean. The dress-legging, body, and sleeves—is all in one piece, with a large enough opening at the shoulders for the body to pass through. The helmet, with front and side windows, is attached by a 'bayonet joint' to the shoulder-plate, itself made fast to the upper edge of the dress by screws which press a metal ring against the lower edge of the plate so as to pinch the edge of the dress. At the back are an inlet and an outlet valve. Between the front and a side window is the transmitter of a loud-sounding telephone, and in the crown the receiver and the button of an electric bell. The telephone wires, and also the wires for a powerful electric light, working on a ball-and-socket joint in front of the dress, are embedded into the life-line. The air-tube, of

canvas and rubber, has a stiffening of wire to prevent its being throttled on coming into contact with any object. A pair of weighted boots, each scaling 17 lbs., two 40-lb. lead weights slung over the shoulder, and a knife worn at the waist-belt, complete the outfit of the diver, which, not including the several layers of underclothing necessary to exclude the cold found at great depths, totals nearly 140 lbs. Of this the copper helmet accounts for 36 lbs. On the surface are the air-pumps, which may be of several types—single-cylinder, double-acting; double-cylinder, double-acting; or three or four cylinder, single-acting—according to the nature of the work. All patterns are so constructed that the valves may be easily removed and examined."—A. Williams, *Romance of modern mechanism, pp.* 244-245.

Moving pictures.—"The terms cinematograph, bioscope, vitagraph, merely indicate different mechanical devices for obtaining the movement of the film. This is 1½ inches wide, and is pierced with holes along both edges. The teeth of wheels something like chain wheels, and called sprockets, fit into these holes and control the movement. At first this was continuous and a rotating shutter in front of the lens allowed each picture to fall upon the screen for a short time, but the best effect is obtained by intermittent motion by which each picture is allowed to come to rest before it is disclosed by the shutter. . . . During the last few years the demand for the picture play has enabled each company to maintain in regular employment a company of actors and actresses. Huge studios in which an appropriate setting can be arranged have been built, and all the paraphernalia of the stage is recorded by the film. . . . Not the least interesting records are those which have been obtained of the habits of animals, and the growth of plants. To secure the former the haunts of beast and bird have been invaded, and the camera has penetrated the dark recesses of the tropical forest where formerly a gun would have been regarded as the only weapon that could safely be used. In registering very slow motions such as the transformation from caterpillar to chrysalis, and chrysalis to butterfly, the growth of a plant, or the unfolding of a flower, photographs are taken at long intervals and then thrown on the screen in rapid succession. Many of the trick pictures in which, for example, a knife cuts up a loaf of bread and a sandwich is made without visible hands, are the result of a large number of separate photographs in which the setting is changed between each, the film being covered meanwhile by the shutter. It was hardly to be expected that inventors would be satisfied with pictures in black and white, and some of the earlier films were coloured by hand. But when longer films came into vogue this was too expensive, and instead of painting in each picture by hand, stencils were adopted, and though the same amount of delicacy was not possible, there was colour. But even this process soon became expensive with a film 1000 feet long containing more than 12,000 pictures. As early as 1899 a method was devised by Greene whereby the photographs were taken through red, green, and violet screens and flashed on the screen successively through screens arranged in the shutter. But while sixteen a second is sufficient for black and white, a three-colour process of this kind requires forty-eight pictures a second, and there were mechanical difficulties in securing this. The film must be panchromatic, and can only be developed in darkness. The difficulties of a three-colour process led Albert Smith to propose two colours only—red and green. The method was patented in 1906, introduced commercially in 1908, and improved in 1911. This is the famous Kinemacolour process. Pictures are taken alternately through red and green screens, and projected through a rotating disc having two opaque sectors, one transparent red and one transparent green sector. Blue is not entirely absent owing to the green containing a little, but indigo and violet are not reproduced, and the reds and greens are emphasised. Greene's process is now being revived under the name Bicolor, and the Ives three-colour process is being applied to moving pictures by the use of three films."—E. Cressy, *Discovery and inventions of the twentieth century, pp.* 362-363.—See also Electrical discovery: Survey of late inventions.

Player pianos and piano players.—"The history of the **piano-player**, as we understand it now, dates back many years: as to its origin it would, indeed, be difficult to trace it to any one man. Numerous inventors . . . within the last century, evolved many ideas, in all of which, doubtless, some suggestion was conveyed to the minds of other workers in the field of mechanical devices for operating the notes of the piano, and thus, by the process of accretion, the present-day instrument was brought into being. Mechanical means of producing music can be traced back centuries."—D. M. Wilson, *Instruction book on the piano-player and player-piano, p.* 9.—Nevertheless the piano player, and the player piano may be claimed as twentieth century products, since the popular use of the instrument really dates from about 1900. "The pneumatic principle in a different form was well known for many years before it was applied to piano players. Pipe organs had been successfully fitted with pneumatic and tubular-pneumatic actions, and thus the fact had been demonstrated that a little collapsible bellows could be made to express considerable energy when operated by compression or exhaustion of atmospheric air. . . . Not later than the year 1863, Fourneaux in France produced a little device applicable to the piano keyboard, using pneumatics for striking, and operated by the exhaustion of air through a crank-actuated bellows. His invention seems to have languished as far as general recognition was concerned, and the next forceful idea along the same line apears to have been that of Merritt Gally, of New York, who in 1881 patented a pneumatic device for use in playing the piano which was remarkable in its anticipations of modern developments. Shortly afterwards the great flood of player patents began in earnest. Bishop and Down in England were granted patents during the year 1885, and Kuster, of New York, in 1887 exhibited drawings in his application for a patent granted to him that year, which were remarkable for their close anticipation of the very principles so generally used to-day for obtaining expressive effects of touch, tempo, etc. The perforated controlling sheet, which these inventors used in one form or another, had long been known in connection with what was called the 'organette,' a little reed organ blown by crank-operated bellows and played by the admission of air to the reeds through a tracker-board under the control of a perforated sheet of paper which rolled over the tracker at a given speed. The collapsible pneumatic . . . has also been continually and from the first a part of the player idea and is to-day firmly established among the fundamental principles of the art."—W. B. White, *Technical treatise on piano player mechanism, pp.* 15-17.—"The most active period [in player-piano production] was, undoubtedly, from 1896 to 1906; since when instruments

have been put on the market by the leading manufacturers which are, to all intents and purposes, perfect. The precursor of the piano-player was doubtless the 'Organette'—which as an instrument still does duty, and is the means by which many a roadside musician earns a livelihood. . . . What is termed the 'piano-player' is the Cabinet Form, which can be wheeled up to or away from the piano. This was probably the first successful form used for playing the pianoforte other than by the fingers. . . . The *player-piano* . . . is a piano with the player mechanism placed inside the piano, thus economising space."—D. M. Wilson, *Instruction book on the piano-player and player-piano, pp.* 10, 13, 14.

See also Alphabet; Automobile; Aviation; Electrical discovery; Grenades; Industrial revolution; Ordnance; Poison gas; Printing and the press; Rifles and revolvers; Steam and gas engines; Submarines; Torpedo; Tanks: Invention; Europe: Modern period: Intellectual development.

INVERLOCHY, Battle of (1645). See Scotland: 1644-1645.

INVESTITURE: Defined. See Bishop: Investiture.

Struggles over. See Papacy: 1056-1122; Germany: 1056-1122; Italy: 1056-1122.

INVINCIBLE, British battle cruiser lost at the battle of Jutland, May 31, 1916. See World War: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 1.

IODINE, Use of. See Medical science: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: Modification in use of drugs.

IOLANDE. See Yolande.

IONA, small island a few miles from the western coast of Scotland. "To that beach in ancient days came many a train of funeral barges, with muffled banners and with coronach, bringing home dead kings of Scotland, for burial in the Holy Isle. . . . 'The gracious Duncan' sleeps here, and by his side, as some historians believe, lies Macbeth. It is part of the tradition that Macbeth's grave is in Lumphanan near Aberdeen, but some authorities declare that his remains were conveyed to Iona, the imperial sepulchre from at least 974. . . . Iona's chief interest lies in its ecclesiastical history from 563, 'when Columba came from Ireland, bringing Christianity to the Picts of the Western Islands, and made Iona the fountain-head of religion and learning for Northern Europe.' . . . The monastic ruins are scant and of a later period, but whatever may be the measure of the antiquity of the gaunt ecclesiastical relics of Iona, they are more holy and beautiful than words can tell, in their lone magnificence and desolate grandeur of ruin."—W. Winter, *Over the border, pp.* 190-191, 207.—See also Christianity: 597-800; Columban church; Education: Medieval: 5th-6th centuries.

IONIA, ancient maritime region on the coast of Asia Minor. See Asia Minor: B.C. 1100, and after.

IONIAN, or DELIAN, CONFEDERACY. See Greece: B.C. 478-477; B.C. 477-461; Athens: B.C. 477.

IONIAN ISLANDS: To 1814.—Under Greek, Roman, Byzantine, Venetian, and French rule.—The group of numerous islands on the western coast of Greece has long borne the name of the Ionian Islands, though the ancient inhabitants were not supposed to be Ionic. Corfu (the Korkyra of the ancients) is the most populous and historically the most important. (See Corcyra; Greece: B.C. 435-432; 432.) The islands passed under the dominion of Rome; were joined in time to the Byzantine Empire; were occupied for a few years by the Normans of Sicily; passed into the possession of the Venetians, in the thirteenth century, and were held by them for nearly five hundred years; suffered the ravages of the Turks, who were never able to get Corfu into their hands (see Turkey: 1714-1718); were taken from Venice by Napoleon, in 1797, and transferred to France (see France: 1797 [May-October]); were occupied by a Russo-Turkish force, in 1799, and established in independence, as the "Republic of the Seven Islands" (see France: 1801-1802); were recovered by the French in 1807 and finally lost to them in 1814.—Based on C. H. Hanson, *Land of Greece, ch.* 4.—See also Ithaca.

1815-1862.—British protectorate established.—Relinquishment.—Annexation of islands to kingdom of Greece.—In 1815, by the Treaty of Vienna, the Ionian islands were constituted a sort of republic, under the protection of Great Britain, which had the right to garrison them, and to place a Lord High Commissioner at the head of their government. They prospered under the arrangement, but were not satisfied, and in 1858 Mr. Gladstone was appointed Lord High Commissioner, with a view to having the discontent of the Ionians well considered. But "the population of the islands persisted in regarding him, not as the commissioner of a Conservative English Government, but as 'Gladstone the Philhellene.' He was received wherever he went with the honours due to a liberator. . . . The visit of Mr. Gladstone, whatever purpose it may have been intended to fulfil, had the effect of making them [the Ionians] agitate more strenuously than ever for annexation to the kingdom of Greece. Their wish, however, was not to be granted yet. A new Lord High Commissioner was sent out after Mr. Gladstone's return. . . . [Still] the idea held ground that sooner or later Great Britain would give up the charge of the islands. A few years after, an opportunity occurred for making the cession. The Greeks got rid quietly of their heavy German king Otho [see Greece: 1830-1862], and on the advice chiefly of England they elected as sovereign a brother of the Princess of Wales. . . . The second son of the King of Denmark was made King of Greece; and Lord John Russell, on behalf of the English Government, then [1862] handed over to the kingdom of Greece the islands of which Great Britain had had so long to bear the unwilling charge."—J. McCarthy, *History of our own times, v.* 3, *ch.* 39.

IONIAN REVOLT (502-493 B.C.). See Persia: B.C. 521-493; Greece: B.C. 500-493; B.C. 479: Persian Wars.

IONIANS. See Dorians and Ionians; Æolians; Asia Minor: B.C. 1100.

IONIC (PAN-IONIC) AMPHIKTYONY.—"There existed at the commencement of historical Greece, in 776 B.C., besides the Ionians in Attica and the Cyclades, twelve Ionian cities of note on or near the coast of Asia Minor, besides a few others less important. Enumerated from south to north, they stand—Miletus, Myus, Priene, Samos, Ephesus, Kolophon, Lebedus, Teos, Erythræ, Chios, Klazomenæ, Phokæa. . . . Miletus, Myus and Priene were situated on or near the productive plain of the river Mæander; while Ephesus was in like manner planted near the mouth of the Kaister. . . . Kolophon is only a very few miles north of the same river. Possessing the best means of communication with the interior, these towns seem to have thriven with greater rapidity than the rest; and they, together with the neighbouring island of Samos, con-

stituted in early times the strength of the Pan-Ionic Amphíktyony. The situation of the sacred precinct of Poseidon (where this festival was celebrated) on the north side of the promontory of Mykale, near Priene, and between Ephesus and Miletus, seems to show that these towns formed the primitive centre to which the other Ionian settlements became gradually aggregated. For it was by no means a centrical site with reference to all the twelve. . . . Moreover, it seems that the Pan-Ionic festival [the celebration of which constituted the Amphiktyony], though still formally continued, had lost its importance before the time of Thucydides, and had become practically superseded by the more splendid festival of the Ephesia, near Ephesus, where the cities of Ionia found a more attractive place of meeting."—G. Grote, *History of Greece, v. 3, pt. 2, ch. 13.*

IONIC ORDER. See ARCHITECTURE: Classic: Greek, etc.; ORDERS OF ARCHITECTURE.

IOWA: Geographic location.—Meaning of the name.—Iowa, popularly known as the "Hawkeye State," is a north central state of the United States, bounded on the north by Minnesota; east, by Wisconsin and Illinois; south, by Missouri; and west, by Nebraska and South Dakota. The state has an area of 56,147 square miles, and a population, 1920, of 2,404,021. "Theodore S. Parvin, a high authority, relates an Indian legend [relative to the meaning of Iowa] as follows: 'This tribe [the Ayouways] separated from the Sacs and Foxes, and wandered off westward in search of a new home. Crossing the Mississippi River they turned southward reaching a high bluff near the mouth of the Iowa River. Looking off over the beautiful valley spread out before them they halted exclaiming 'Ioway!' or 'This is the place!'"—B. F. Gue, *History of Iowa from the earliest times, v. 1, p. 67.*

Resources.—Iowa is one of the most important agricultural states in the Union, nearly the whole area being arable and under cultivation. In 1920, it had 213,439 farms with 33,474,896 acres in farm lands, about half of this area being given over to the growing of cereals. Stock-raising constitutes an important industry. The principal mining industries are coal mining and clay working, these two contributing about 77 per cent of the total mineral value. The productive coal fields have an area of 19,000 square miles which produced 8,187,500 tons in 1920.—See also U.S.A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area; PAWNEE FAMILY; SIOUAN FAMILY.

1673-1834.—Early history.—Expedition of Major Pike.—Territorial government.—"So far as the history of the discovery and exploration is concerned, Iowa first belonged to France, since Marquette and Joliet . . . were here May 13, 1673. Civilized nations conceded this claim, on the right of discovery, and France held possession until 1763, when, by secret treaty, this State, with other large portions of territory, known and unknown at that time, was ceded to Spain. . . . Spanish control and authority prevailed in all this vast domain west of the Mississippi river, until October 1, 1800, when it was ceded by Spain to France. . . . April 30, 1803, Napoleon Bonaparte, being at war with almost all Europe, sold Louisiana to the United States to prevent it from falling into the hands of Great Britain, for the sum of $15,000,000. The province which thus came into the possession of the United States, was of vast though ill-defined territorial extent. [See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.] . . . March 26, 1804, Congress provided that Upper Louisiana, that part of the whole province north of the thirty-third parallel, consisting now of Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, and Southern Minnesota, should be organized into a court district and attached to the territory of Indiana for governmental and judicial purposes. From this came the term 'District of Louisiana,' that occurs in the early history of all this part of the United States. March 3, 1805, Iowa was included as a part of the Territory of Louisiana, with the capital at St. Louis. The part of the Louisiana Purchase now known as Louisiana became Orleans Territory. . . . In the autumn of 1805, Major Zebulon M. Pile, . . . appointed to conduct surveys of various parts of the newly acquired territory of Louisiana, made an authorized official visit to the head waters of the Mississippi, and met the different Indian tribes in Iowa. He advised the Indians of the fact that the United States had acquired sovereignty over the country by the purchase of the rights of France, and that henceforth their dealings as tribes would be with the new government. . . . June 4, 1812, [Iowa] was embraced in what was then organized as the Territory of Missouri. July 19, 1820, Missouri became a State, and Iowa with other territory was detached and forgotten, and remained a country without a government, either political or judicial, until June 28, 1834, when the abuses of outlawry and crime became so prominent and so serious that, as a means of redress and correction, it was included in the Territory of Michigan. During all these years, it is probable that the only civil law in force in Iowa was the provision of the Missouri Act, which prohibited slavery and involuntary servitude in the territories of the United States north of thirty-six degrees, thirty minutes, north latitude."—H. H. Seerley and L. W. Parish, *History and civil government of Iowa (State Government Series,* B. A. Hinsdale, ed., *pp.* 30-32).—In 1832, the Black Hawk War terminated in the cession of the Black Hawk Purchase.—See also OKLAHOMA: 1824-1837.

1830-1860.—Beginning of white settlement.—Squatter constitutions.—"A Constitution is a social product. It is the embodiment of popular ideals. And so the real makers of the Constitutions of Iowa were not the men who first in 1844, then in 1846, and then again in 1857 assembled in the Old Stone Capitol on the banks of the Iowa River. The true 'Fathers' were the people who, in those early times from 1830 to 1860, took possession of the fields and forests and founded a new Commonwealth. They were the pioneers, the frontiersmen, the squatters—the pathfinders in our political history. . . . They were the real makers of our fundamental law. The first of the Iowa pioneers crossed the Mississippi in the early thirties. They were preceded by the bold explorer and the intrepid fur-trader, who in their day dared much, endured much, and through the wildernesses lighted the way for a westward-moving civilization. Scarcely had their camp-fires gone out when the pioneer appeared with ax and ox and plow. He came to cultivate the soil and establish a home—he came to stay. The rapidity with which the pioneer population of Iowa increased after the Black-Hawk war was phenomenal. It grew literally by leaps and bounds. Men came in from all parts of the Union—from the North-west, from the East, from the South, and from the South-east. They came from Maine and Massachusetts, from New York and Pennsylvania, from Virginia and the Carolinas, from Georgia, Kentucky and Tennessee, and from the newer States of Ohio

and Indiana. It is said that whole neighborhoods came over from Illinois. In 1835 Lieutenant Albert Lea [who explored central Iowa with a body of United States Dragoons] thought that the population had reached at least sixteen thousand souls. But the census reports give a more modest number —ten thousand five hundred. When the Territory of Iowa was established in 1838 there were within its limits twenty-two thousand eight hundred and fifty-nine people. Eight years later, when the Commonwealth was admited into the Union, this number had increased to one hundred and two thousand three hundred and eighty-eight. Thus in less than a score of years the pioneers had founded a new Empire west of the Mississippi. . . . In the location of a home the pioneer was usually discriminating. His was not a chance 'squatting' here or there on the prairie or among the trees. The necessities—water and fuel—led him as a rule to settle near a stream or river, and never far from timber. The pioneers settled in groups. One, two, three, or more families constituted the original nucleus of such groups. The groups were known as 'communities' or 'neighborhoods.' They were the original social and political units out of the integration of which the Commonwealth was later formed. But the vital facts touching the pioneers of Iowa are not of migration and settlement. In political and constitutional evolution the emphasis rests rather upon the facts of character. . . . Two opinions have been expressed respecting the early settlers of Iowa. Calhoun stated on the floor of Congress that he had been informed that 'the Iowa country had been seized upon by a lawless body of armed men.' Clay had received information of the same nature. . . . Nor was the view expressed by these statesmen uncommon in that day. It was entertained by a very considerable number of men throughout the East and South, who looked upon the pioneers in general as renegades and vagabonds forming a 'lawless rabble' on the outskirts of civilization. . . . The men who made these harsh charges were doubtless honest and sincere. But were they mistaken? All testimony based upon direct personal observation is overwhelmingly against the opinions they expressed. Lieutenant Albert Lea who had spent several years in the Iowa District [and who first applied to it the name "Iowa"] writes in 1836 that 'the character of this population is such as is rarely to be found in our newly acquired territories. With very few exceptions there is not a more orderly, industrious, active, painstaking population, west of the Alleghanies, than is this of the Iowa District. Those who have used the name "squatters" with the idea of idleness and recklessness, would be quite surprised to see the systematic manner in which everything is here conducted.' . . . They made roads, built bridges and mills, cleared the forests, broke the prairies, erected houses and barns, and defended the settled country against hostile Indians. They were distinguished especially for their general intelligence, their hospitality, their independence and bold enterprise. They had schools and schoolhouses, erected churches, and observed the sabbath. A law abiding people, the pioneers made laws and obeyed them. . . . The strong external factors of the West brought into American civilization elements distinctively American—liberal ideas and democratic ideals. The broad rich prairies of Iowa and Illinois seem to have broadened men's views and fertilized their ideas. . . . Nowhere did the West exert a more marked influence than in the domain of Politics. It freed men from traditions. It gave them a new and a more progressive view of political life. Henceforth they turned with impatience from historical arguments and legal theories to a philosophy of expediency. Government, they concluded, was after all a relative affair. 'Claim Rights' were more important to the pioneer of Iowa than 'States Rights.' The Nation was endeared to him; and he freely gave his first allegiance to the government that sold him land for $1.25 an acre. He was always *for the Union,* so that in after years men said of the Commonwealth he founded: 'Her affections, like the rivers of her borders, flow to an inseparable Union.' "—B. F. Shambaugh, *History of the constitution of Iowa, pp.* 13-18, 20-24, 28.—"Absence of legislative statutes and administrative ordinances on the frontier did not mean anarchy and disorder. . . . Well and truly did they [the early settlers] observe the customs relative to the making and holding of claims. And as occasion demanded they codified these customs and usages into 'Constitutions,' 'Resolutions,' and 'By-Laws.' Crude, fragmentary, and extra-legal as were their codes, they nevertheless stand as the first written Constitutions in the history of the Commonwealth. They were the fundamental laws of the pioneers, or, better still, they were Squatter Constitutions. The Squatter Constitutions of Iowa, since they were a distinctive product of frontier life, are understood and their significance appreciated only when interpreted through the condition of Western life and character. . . . Title to the land vested absolutely in the Government of the United States. But the right of the Indians to occupy the country was not disputed. . . . As early as 1785 Congress provided that no settlement should be made on any part of the public domain until the Indian title thereto had been extinguished and the land surveyed. Again, in 1807, Congress [made more detailed provision against illegal settlement]. . . . In March, 1833, the Act of 1807 was revived with special reference to the Iowa country to which the Indian title was, in accordance with the Black-Hawk treaty of 1832, to be extinguished in June, 1833. . . . The early settlers of Iowa therefore had no legal right to advance beyond the surveyed country, mark off claims, and occupy and cultivate lands which had not been surveyed and to which the United States had not issued a warrant, patent, or certificate of purchase. But the pioneers . . . outran the public surveyors. They ignored the Act of 1807. And it is doubtful if they ever heard of the Act of March 2, 1833. Some were bold enough to cross the Mississippi and put in crops even before the Indian title had expired; some squatted on unsurveyed lands; and others, late comers, settled on surveyed territory. . . . Hundreds and thousands of claims were thus located! . . . All without the least vestige of legal right or title! In 1836, when the surveys were first begun, over 10,000 of these squatters had settled in the Iowa country. It was not until 1838 that the first of the public land sales were held at Dubuque and Burlington. These marginal or frontier settlers (squatters, as they were called) were beyond the pale of constitutional government. No statute of Congress protected them in their rights to the claims they had staked out and the improvements they had made. In *law* they were trespassers; in *fact* they were honest farmers. Now, it was to meet the peculiar conditions of frontier life, and especially to secure themselves in what they were pleased to call their rights in making and holding claims, that the pioneers of Iowa established land clubs or claim associations. Nearly every community in early Iowa had its local club or association. It

is impossible to give definite figures, but it is safe to say that over one hundred of these extra-legal organizations existed in Territorial Iowa. Some, like the Claim Club of Fort Dodge, were organized and flourished after the Commonwealth had been admitted into the Union. . . . That they insisted upon equity rather than upon refined technicalities in the administration of their law is seen in the following: 'Resolved that to avoid difficulty growing out of the circumstance of persons extending their improvements accidentally on the claims of others before the Lines were run thereby giving the first [settler] an opportunity or advantage of Preemption over the rightful owner that any persons who hold such advantages shall immediately relinquish all claim thereto to the proper owner and any one refusing so to do shall forfeit all claim to the right of protection of the association.' For the speculator who sometimes attended the land sales the squatters had little respect; so they 'Resolved that for the purpose of guarding our rights against the speculator we hereby pledge ourselves to stand by each other and to remain on the ground until all sales are over if it becomes necessary, in order that each and every settler may be secured in the claim or claims to which he is justly entitled by the Laws of this association.' . . . The Squatter Constitutions stand for the beginnings of local political institutions in Iowa. They were the fundamental law of the first governments of the pioneers. They were the fullest embodiment of the theory of 'Squatter Sovereignty.' They were, indeed, fountains of that spirit of Western Democracy which permeated the social and political life of America during the 19th century. But above all they expressed and, in places and under conditions where temptations to recklessness and lawlessness were greatest, they effectively upheld the foremost civilizing principle of Anglo-Saxon polity —the Rule of Law."—*Ibid., pp.* 31-33, 36-40, 46-47, 63.

1838.—Organized as territory.—"Since the Iowa country was practically uninhabited prior to 1830, the earlier Territorial government . . . had for Iowa only a nominal political significance." In 1836 an act was passed by Congress creating the territory of Wisconsin (see WISCONSIN: 1805-1848), of which the Iowa country formed a considerable part. Scarcely had the act gone into effect when the agitation for the separation of Iowa from Wisconsin was launched. "The people of Des Moines county were among the first to take formal action on what may be called the first vital question in the history of the constitutions of Iowa." But it was not until June, 1838, that Congress passed an act creating the Territory of Iowa, in the face of no small opposition on the part of southern members, jealous of the balance of power between North and South. "The spirited debate, which took place in the House of Representatives, on the question of the establishment of the Territorial government of Iowa disclosed the fact that the creation of a new Territory at this time west of the Mississippi and north of Missouri was of more than local interest; it was, indeed, an event in the larger history of America. Some few men were beginning to realize that the rapid settlement of the Iowa country was not an isolated provincial episode but the surface manifestation of a current that was of National depth." —B. F. Shambaugh, *History of the constitution of Iowa, pp.* 67-68.

1838-1848.—Territorial officials appointed.—Iowa-Missouri boundary controversy.—Change of capital.—"Provision was made for the President of the United States, by and with the advice of the Senate, to appoint a governor, a secretary, a chief justice, two associate justices, a United States attorney, and a marshal, to take charge of this new Territory and see that law and order prevailed within its borders. . . . The governor was appointed for three years, and the other officers for four years. . . . Robert Lucas, formerly Governor of Ohio, was selected by the President to be the first chief executive. . . . He at once caused a census to be taken, apportioned the members of the legislature between the counties and issued a proclamation for an election of delegates to Congress and members of the legislature. He established the temporary seat of Territorial government at Burlington, and convened there the first Legislature of Iowa on the 12th of November, 1838. . . . The first Legislature very bitterly disagreed with the governor respecting the meaning of the organic act, which defined the respective powers of the governor and the legislature. . . . As a consequence of these differences of opinion as to the legal prerogatives of the executive and the legislative departments, the Governor became prejudiced in feeling and was less disposed to yield his official opinion as to authority and rights than he otherwise would have been, and hence very little effective business was possible, since controversy absorbed the time and attention of the members. The Governor's veto being absolute, he used it so effectively as entirely to annul all acts of the Legislature that did not personally appeal to him as being for the best interests or even as not being put in the best way as to language. . . . The Legislature claimed that he exceeded his authority. . . . When the legislature found that threats, abuse, resolutions, and arguments did not move him, the next attempt was to remove him from office, and a memorial was sent to the President of the United States declaring his unfitness and stubbornness, as well as his arbitrariness and usurpations, and praying, in the strongest terms for his immediate and unconditional removal from office. President Van Buren did not approve of the demand from the Legislature, and hence Governor Lucas remained in office until there was a change in the administration of the Federal government. The difficulties that had arisen between the Governor and the Legislature, and the very frequent use of the absolute veto power by the governor, attracted the attention of Congress, and some amendments were made to the organic law permitting the legislature to pass a measure over the governor's veto by a two-thirds vote, and also authorizing the legislature to pass laws permitting the people to elect all their local officers thus far appointed by the governor. . . . As a consequence of the large controversy that had occurred at the session of the first legislature, the issue of the next election was the curtailing the power of the governor and the increasing the power of the people and their representatives, the members of the legislature. 'Home rule' was a doctrine on these prairies, and tyranny and dictatorships were condemned as out of conformity with American institutions. . . . During this time the boundary line between Missouri and Iowa became a point of contest between the authorities of the State of Missouri and of the Territory of Iowa. On the 18th of June, 1838, Congress took steps to settle the growing controversy by passing a law to have the southern boundary of Iowa ascertained and marked. This act provided for a boundary commissioner from each commonwealth, and one from the United States. Missouri declined to be

represented upon this commission, and attempted to exercise jurisdiction north of the Indian Boundary Line, surveyed and marked in 1816 by John C. Sullivan, by direction of the surveyor-general of the United States, and up to this time accepted as the regularly authorized boundary line between Iowa and Missouri. The attempt to collect taxes north of this line in Van Buren county, by the sheriff of Clark county, Missouri, precipitated the conflict. Immediately the Iowa authorities proposed to leave the adjustment of the controversy to Congress, but the Missouri authorities proposed to assert the rights of the State by armed force. . . . Governor Lucas met this proposition by a rejoinder that this was not a controversy between a State and a Territory, but between Missouri and the United States, and, as a representative of the latter, he would hold possession at all hazards of all territory north of the Sullivan boundary line, and see to it that citizens of the United States were protected in their rights, and the laws faithfully and fully executed. To this end he called out the militia of the Territory to aid the civil authorities in the enforcement of law and order. Proclamations were issued by both governors, and war seemed to be promised in case of an invasion of Iowa by the Missouri militia; and anyone acquainted with the character of Governor Lucas could understand with what kind of a person the Missouri claimants had to deal, and that he would have done his very best to carry out his proclamation. Seeing the firm stand taken by Iowa, and surprised at the position of defense assumed, the Missouri authorities allowed the whole matter to be referred to the United States Supreme Court, by whose decision all the territory claimed by Iowa was approved December, 1848. . . . On the 30th day of April, 1841, Governor Lucas issued a proclamation changing the capital from Burlington to Iowa City, and convening the legislature on the first Monday of December, 1841. Governor Chambers accepted this conclusion, and moved the seat of government to the temporary capitol building provided by the citizens of Iowa City, until the permanent buildings being erected should be completed. Thus Iowa City became the permanent capital of the Territory and the temporary capital of the State." —H. H. Seerley and L. W. Parish, *History and civil government of Iowa* (*State Government Series,* B. A. Hinsdale, ed., *pp.* 44-53).

1839-1844.—Application for statehood.—Discussion in Congress over boundaries.—In 1839, Governor Lucas launched a movement for the establishment of a state government. At the First Constitutional Convention held at Iowa City, 1844, a constitution was drawn up under Democratic leadership which was submitted simultaneously to the people and to Congress. In order to preserve the balance of power between the North and South, Florida was paired with Iowa in the act for admission. (See U. S. A.: 1845: Preserving the equilibrium between slave and free states.) "The proposed Constitution of Florida not only sanctioned the institution of Slavery, but it positively guaranteed its perpetuation by restraining the General Assembly from ever passing laws under which slaves might be emancipated. On the other hand the Constitution of Iowa, although it did not extend the privilege of suffrage to persons of color, provided that 'neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, unless for the punishment of crimes, shall ever be tolerated in this State.' Now it so happened that the opposing forces of slave labor and free labor, of 'State Rights' and 'Union,' came to an issue over the boundaries of the proposed State of Iowa. . . . [Duncan, of Ohio, proposed an amendment reducing the size of the state. These were the boundaries proposed by U. S. Geologist Nicollet in 1845.] . . . Mr. Belser, of Alabama, was opposed to the Duncan amendment since it 'aimed to admit as a State only a portion of Iowa at this time. This he would have no objection to, provided Florida was treated in the same way. He was for receiving both into the Confederacy, with like terms and restrictions.' . . . Mr. Vinton, of Ohio, was the most vigorous champion of the Duncan amendment. He stood out firmly for a reduction of the Lucas boundaries proposed by the Iowa Convention because the country to the North and West of the new State, 'from which two other States ought to be formed,' would be left in a very inconvenient shape, and because the formation of such large States would deprive the West of 'its due share of power in the Senate of the United States.' Mr. Vinton was 'particularly anxious that a State of unsuitable extent should not be made in that part of the Western country, in consequence of the unwise and mistaken policy towards that section of the Union which has hitherto prevailed in forming Western States, by which the great valley of the Mississippi has been deprived, and irrevocably so, of its due share in the legislation of the country.' As an equitable compensation to the West for this injustice he would make 'a series of small States' on the West bank of the Mississippi. Furthermore, Mr. Vinton did not think it politic to curtail the power of the West in the Senate of the United States by the establishment of large States, since in his opinion 'the power of controlling this government in all its departments may be more safely intrusted to the West than in any other hands.' The commercial interests of the people of the West were such as to make them desirous of protecting the capital and labor both of the North and the South. Again, he declared that if disunion should ever be attempted 'the West must and will rally to a man under the flag of the Union.' . . . The arguments for restriction prevailed, and the Duncan amendment, which proposed to substitute the *Nicollet boundaries* for the *Lucas boundaries,* passed the House of Representatives by a vote of ninety-one to forty. In the Senate the bill as reported from the House was hurried through without much debate. . . . The news that Congress had, by the act of March 3, 1845, rejected the boundaries prescribed by the Iowa Convention reached the Territory just in time to determine the fate of the Constitution of 1844. [It was rejected by the people, resubmitted, and rejected again.]"—B. F. Shambaugh, *History of the constitution of Iowa, pp.* 245-251.

1846.—Second constitutional convention.—Admission to union.—Election.—Mormon emigration.—The Constitution of 1846, drawn up by the Second Constitutional Convention was modeled upon that of 1844. Of great significance were the reduced boundaries and the increased hostility to banking institutions which in the new draft were entirely prohibited. In spite of bitter Whig opposition, the new constitution was adopted by the people on August 3, the president signed the act of admission on August 4, and on December 28 the commonwealth of Iowa was declared to be one of the United States of America. Throughout Iowa, the first free state in the Louisiana Purchase, "there was a satisfaction with the new political status which came with the establishment of State government and admission into the Union. . . . On the other hand, the people of Iowa did not accept their new State Constitution without reser-

vations. . . . The people were anxious to get into the Union, and they voted for the Constitution as the shortest road to admission. They meant to correct its errors afterwards."—B. F. Shambaugh, *History of the constitution of Iowa, pp.* 330-331. —"After the people ratified the proposed constitution at a popular election and Congress had accepted the change in boundaries, arrangements began to be made to provide for a change from the Territorial to the State government. To accomplish and have everything ready as soon as Congress should pass the act of admission as a State, Governor James Clark issued a proclamation stating the facts and appointing October 26, 1846, as the time to elect State officers and members of the general assembly. . . . The election returns proved that the Democrats were in the majority, notwithstanding the party controversies, and had elected the governor, Ansel Briggs, and other State officers; but there was still much cause for anxiety, because dissensions over local matters had deprived the dominant party of certain representatives that were essential to the election of United States senators and supreme judges, and had resulted in electing other persons, whose position on party questions was not certainly to be depended upon at the meeting of the General Assembly. . . . On the assembling of the members of the first State legislative body, certain designing politicians, who were not directly identified with either of the two great parties, became the balance of power between the opposing factions, and proposed to dictate the election of United States senators and also supreme judges. . . . During the electioneering and political excitement connected with the proposed election of United States senators, a member, Nelson King, made the charge of an attempt to bribe him to secure his vote for the Democratic candidates, A. C. Dodge and J. C. Hall. . . . This charge led to an extended investigation, in which nothing was satisfactorily proven, but on account of the tie between the Democrats and Whigs and the hostilities that thus were developed, no election resulted and the legislature adjourned, but not without having actually transacted business worthy of mention. Iowa was not represented in the Senate of the United States for the first two years of her statehood. After the adjournment of the general assembly, the governor appointed the judges of the supreme court, and started, by so doing, this department of the State government. . . . The first General Assembly found the new State government in debt for Territorial expenditures by $26,000, and with no provision for payment. The members of the constitutional convention had not been paid, and there was no money to pay the salaries of the new State officers or the General Assembly. To meet these emergencies, a loan of $50,000 was authorized, and at once half the possible constitutional indebtedness was contracted."—H. H. Seerley and L. W. Parish, *History and civil government of Iowa* (*State Government Series,* B. A. Hinsdale, ed., *pp.* 63, 65-67).—See also STATE GOVERNMENT: 1800-1850.—"In the summer of 1846, following almost in the wake of the departing Sacs and Foxes, the Mormons from Nauvoo, Illinois, passed through Iowa on their way to Salt Lake City. They did more than pass through. They opened a great highway from river to river in southern Iowa over which immigration continued to move until the coming of the railroads, two decades later, and along which many settlements sprang up."—C. Cole, *History of the people of Iowa, p.* 223.—See also MORMONISM: 1846-1848.

1847-1857.—University of Iowa established.—Grimes elected governor.—First railroad.—Indian massacre at Indian Lake.—"The second general assembly [1847] . . . decided to establish a State university, and, to insure its support, to dispose of the two townships of land given by Congress for that purpose. The main institution was located at Iowa City. One branch was to be at Dubuque and one at Fairfield, while normal schools were also to be established at Andrew, Oskaloosa, and Mt. Pleasant, respectively. . . . There was a . . . delay in carrying out this legislative plan for higher education . . . but in the meantime better counsels prevailed, this policy of scattering the schools was repealed, and all the funds were applied to the main institution at Iowa City. . . . From the beginning of Territorial government in 1838 to the year 1854, the Democratic party was in power, controlling all the legislation and dictating the policy of Constitution and laws. With the advent of a new school of politics, represented by the supporters of Governor James W. Grimes and [what was later] the Republican party, there came a growing conviction that a new constitution, more in accord with modern notions, should be framed. . . . The hard times, that were beginning to be felt in the whole country, together with the great controversy regarding the slavery question that was attracting so much attention at this period of history, added to these matters above stated, led to the defeat of the Democratic party in 1854, and to the victory of the Republicans [Whigs], in the electing of James W. Grimes as Governor and a General Assembly in harmony with him, that began to legislate to reorganize the State government in accordance with the views the party represented. . . . In 1854, the first railroad in Iowa was built from Davenport to Iowa City, a distance of fifty-five miles, the first rail having been laid in Davenport in May of that year, at or near highwater mark on the banks of the Mississippi river. . . . During the intense political controversies that were pending in the Nation, little attention was given to the Indian outrages on the frontier. . . . The massacre that occurred in 1857 at Spirit Lake cannot be explained by any wrong on the part of the white man, as its perpetrators were a lawless, reckless band of thieves, robbers, and murderers. In this massacre more than fifty white people lost their lives."—H. H. Seerley and L. W. Parish, *History and civil government of Iowa* (*State Government Series,* B. A. Hinsdale, ed., *pp.* 76-77, 82-83, 86, 100-101).

1848-1860.—Political phases.—Organization of Republican party.—Ralph P. Lowe, first Republican governor.—"All representatives from Iowa in congress up to 1855 were Democrats, with one exception. In 1848, on the face of the returns Daniel F. Miller, a Whig, received a majority in the First congressional district. But by throwing out the votes cast by the Mormons at Kanesville, his opponent, William Thompson, was declared elected. When Miller contested the seat, the house of representatives declared it vacant, on June twenty-ninth, 1850. In a special election then held Miller was elected by a majority of two hundred and fifty-seven votes. In the election of 1854, James Thorington was elected to congress from the same district, being carried through on the Grimes tidal wave of that year. Although the party was not then in actual existence, he has been styled the first Republican congressman from Iowa. Thornington devoted himself largely to getting the railroad land grant made by congress. In 1855 the Whigs elected for the first time the judges of the supreme court, George G. Wright chief justice, and William G. Woodward and Norman W. Isbell associate justices. . . . In 1855 the Democrats made a

strenuous effort to reverse the Whig majority of 1854, in the election for minor state officers, but the Whigs surprised them as well as themselves by almost doubling their majorities of two years before. But if that election was fatal to Democratic hopes, it was not less so to the Whig party. The Whigs were not able to grasp the new issues. They had compromised so often that they had lost all political courage. As a party, they had been weighed in the balance and found wanting. The victories that had been won in Iowa in their name were victories founded in the moral courage of James W. Grimes, and Mr. Grimes found that he was no longer in harmony with what had been his party. As early as 1855 he wrote approving a movement 'to wipe their hands of Whiggery.' It could not do the work he had in mind. The new alignments that were necessary to do that work were then impending. It was the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill which brought the new alignments about. In the face of new issues men felt free to act along new lines. There were Whigs who believed in slavery. They were called 'silver grays.' Eventually they went to the Democrats, who believed in slavery. There were free soil Democrats, and these eventually united with the free soil Whigs to form the organization called the Republican party. Governor Grimes became one of the guiding minds in the new organization. 'I am sanguine,' he wrote to Salmon P. Chase of Ohio, on May twelfth, 1855, 'that we shall organize a party that will carry the elections in most of the northern states in 1856, and in all of them in 1860.' In Ripon, Wisconsin, a free soil Whig and a free soil Democrat unitedly isued a call for an anti-slavery meeting to be held at Jackson, Michigan, and that place has been called the birthplace of the Republican party. In Iowa it was not until the third of January, 1856, that a similar call was issued, for a meeting to be held at Iowa City on February twenty-second, Washington's birthday, 'for the purpose of organizing a Republican party, to make common cause with a similar party already formed in several other states of the Union.' This call was signed by 'Many Citizens,' and was printed in many newspapers. It was probably written by Mr. Grimes. . . . On the appointed day so many came to the meeting that it had to be held in the hall of representatives in the state capitol. . . . The result was thirty-nine articles of political faith. . . . The party was organized 'to maintain the liberties of the people, the sovereignty of the states and the perpetuity of the Union.' . . . They were not abolitionists. Slavery was declared to be 'a local institution, beyond their reach and above their authority.' But they did not propose to let it spread to new territories. . . . The response of the people was instant. The new party swept the state. It elected majorities in both houses of the general assembly. . . . Under the new state constitution an election for governor was to be held in 1857. Governor Grimes did not seek reëlection, and so Ralph P. Lowe of Keokuk, a judge of the district court, was nominated and Oran Faville of Mitchell County for lieutenant-governor, which was a new office. The Democrats named as their candidates for the same offices Ben M. Samuels and George Gillaspy. . . . The election, which was held in October, resulted in Republican majorities of about twenty-four hundred, majorities so small that they alarmed the Republicans and encouraged the Democrats in the belief that the new party was something merely ephemeral. Ralph P. Lowe was the first Republican governor of the state, and he was also the first to be inducted into that office in Des Moines. His administration fell on evil days in Iowa, for the panic of 1857 was then in full effect. When the general assembly met, also for the first time in Des Moines, the retiring governor, James W. Grimes, was promptly elected to the United States senate to succeed George W. Jones, who received scant consideration at the hands of his own party." —C. Cole, *History of the people of Iowa, pp.* 309-311.

1857.—Third constitutional convention.—"The act of January 24, 1855, calling for the Convention, provided for the revision or amendment of the Constitution. Many would have been satisfied with a few amendments. The Convention, however, proceeded to draft a completely revised code of fundamental law. The two large volumes of printed reports show that the principles of Constitutional Law were discussed from Preamble to Schedule. The most important question before the Convention of 1857 was that of Corporations in general and of banking Corporations in particular. . . . Next in importance to the question of Corporations was the Negro problem. . . . It was in respect to these vital questions of the hour that the Republican majority in the Convention was compelled to declare and defend its attitude. The fact that the Republican party of Iowa was thus being put on trial for the first time makes the debates of the Convention of 1857 memorable in the political annals of the State. But these Iowa Republicans were at the same time defining and defending the attitude of their party on National issues; and so the debates of the Iowa Convention are a source-book also in the broader history of America. No one can read the pages of these debates without feeling that Iowa was making a decided contribution to National Politics. Nearly four years before the 'Divided House Speech' was delivered at Springfield, Illinois, Governor Grimes had said in his inaugural address: 'It becomes the State of Iowa—the only free child of the Missouri Compromise—to let the world know that she values the blessings that Compromise has secured her, and that she will never consent to become a party to the nationalization of slavery.' And full two years before Lincoln defined the attitude of his party in the Lincoln-Douglas debates, it had gone forth from the Iowa Convention, (1) that the Republican party was not a sectional party; (2) that Abolition was not a part of the Republican creed; and (3) that, while they would arrest the further extension of slavery, Republicans had no desire to interfere with the institution in places where it already existed. . . . The new Constitution was submitted to the people for ratification at the regular annual election which was held on Monday, August 3, 1857. Naturally enough the Democrats, who had been in the minority in the Convention of 1857, opposed the adoption of this 'Republican code.' The Republican party, however, now had the confidence of the people and were able to secure its ratification by a majority of sixteen hundred and thirty votes. At the same time the special amendment which proposed to extend the right of suffrage to Negroes failed of adoption."—B. F. Shambaugh, *History of the constitution of Iowa, pp.* 338-339, 342, 351-352.

1857-1863.—Samuel J. Kirkwood elected governor.—Gubernatorial contest of 1863.—"The slavery question was only one of many that troubled the politicians and statesmen of that time . . . The state was rife with scandals. One had to do with the location of the new capitol and another with the construction of the hospital at Mount Pleasant; the school funds had been mismanaged and one superintendent of public instruc-

tion was a defaulter; the land claimants along the river had a quarrel with the Des Moines Navigation Company; in Poweshiek County, Josiah B. Grinnell, the friend of John Brown, was defeated for reëlection to the state senate, and in Des Moines County, Fitz Henry Warren, one of the most brilliant men of that era, failed of election because the politicians had placed a foreign-born candidate on the same ticket. Denials and defenses would no longer serve and so the Republicans proceeded to investigate their own administration and to formulate needed reforms, while over all hung the specter of the panic of 1857, which had filled the state with the wreckage of business, public and private. In the midst of such turmoil the governor, Ralph P. Lowe, good and amiable and honest, sat bewildered. He was not strong enough to cope with things as they were. When the time for nominating a candidate for the high office in 1859 drew near, it was felt that his leadership would not be sufficient, and so he was prevailed upon to step aside, though he coveted a second term. . . . When the election was held, on the eleventh of October, Mr. Kirkwood received a majority of 3,170 votes. The victory was a substantial, but not wholly satisfactory, one to the Republicans. . . . For the presidential election in 1860 the Republicans held their state convention on January eighteenth, and the Democrats on February twenty-second. The Democrats selected delegates favorable to the candidacy of Stephen A. Douglas, but the Republicans were divided in their opinions. There was perhaps more Seward than Lincoln sentiment in the state. . . . Politically, 1863 was an important year in Iowa. Governor Kirkwood's second term was about to expire, and he refused to be a candidate for reëlection, though he was much urged to do so. . . . The Republican state convention was held that year at Des Moines on the seventeenth of June. For governor the two leading contestants were Elijah Sells, of many political memories, and Fitz Henry Warren, the cavalry leader [author of the famous letters 'On to Richmond' in which he outlined a vigorous offensive policy; but at the eleventh hour Colonel William Stone captured the nomination, thus throwing both Sells and Warren out of the contest]. . . . On the eighth of July the Democrats held their convention in Des Moines. . . . A committee then named James M. Tuttle, the hero of Donelson, who had just won new laurels at Vicksburg, where he had commanded a brigade. He was persuaded to accept the nomination, but in his letter of acceptance he virtually rejected the platform of his party so far as it referred to the war. . . . In the election, Stone received 86,122 votes against 47,948 cast for Tuttle. By a special enactment of the general assembly soldiers in the field were permitted to vote, and they cast 16,791 for Stone against 2,904 for Tuttle."—C. Cole, *History of the people of Iowa, pp.* 320, 325, 363-364.

1860-1865.—Part played in Civil War.—Reelection of Kirkwood.—"The issues over which the Civil War was fought began to take definite form during the administration of Governor Grimes. . . . Iowa soon became involved in the negro question over which armed men were fighting in Kansas. Anti-slavery and pro-slavery men were being rushed into that territory, each in an attempt to out-vote the other. The south sent its guerillas, and the north its fanatics. . . . For free men, Iowa was the highway to Kansas, and her soil became a recruiting ground. The state was also a highway for fugitive slaves who were conducted along what were called Underground railways which led to Canada, where slave laws passed in Washington were not effective. . . . While Iowa was confronted with such questions, John Brown was passing back and forth through the state. He first came to Iowa on his Kansas missions in September of 1857. . . . On the twentieth of December, 1860, within six weeks after the election of Abraham Lincoln, the first act of secession was passed, by the state of South Carolina. . . . Iowa at that time did not have even an organized militia. Military preparations had been made legislative jests. Even in that very year, 1860, when Governor Lowe had asked for a law to organize the militia, the committee on military affairs had replied that they were unanimously opposed to it. But, fortunately, there were in the state many volunteer companies. . . . Early in January they began tendering their services to the governor. . . . Iowa's allotment of troops was one regiment, of ten companies of seventy-eight men each, 'for immediate service.' . . . The governor immediately issued a call for the First Iowa Regiment of infantry. . . . A tidal wave of patriotism swept over the state. War meetings became the order of the day. To save the Union became the religion of the people. For the time being partisan differences were forgotten. . . . Within a week twenty-one companies were tendered to the governor. The call for troops was issued on the seventeenth of April, and by the eighth of May the ten companies of the First regiment were all in Keokuk, the place of rendezvous. . . . Those for whom there was no room in the First regiment were not only disappointed, but many of them became resentful. They blamed and criticised the governor. To keep the peace among the zealous patriots, the governor, without authority from the war department, created the Second regiment, and followed it with the Third, summoning them to assemble at Keokuk. He literally begged the war department to accept these willing men. 'I am overwhelmed with applications,' he wrote. 'I can raise ten thousand men in this state in twenty days.' To satisfy the clamorous ones on the Missouri, he authorized the creation of the Fourth regiment at Council Bluffs. But while men were willing to serve, neither the national nor the state government could supply them with arms. 'For God's sake, send us arms,' was the governor's appeal, 'we have the men to use them.' The state treasury was so empty and so poor that the governor wanted to avoid the expense of an extraordinary session of the general assembly, but when it was assembled, on the fifteenth of May, R. D. Kellogg, a Democrat, moved a resolution that 'the faith, credit and resources of the state of Iowa, both in men and money' be pledged to the national government. The resolution was passed by a unanimous vote. . . . The fruits of the first war enthusiasm had been the ten regiments of infantry, the four regiments of cavalry, and the three batteries already noted. But in September the governor had to make an appeal for more men. . . . Four more regiments of infantry were soon in being, and the Fourth Cavalry was completed. The Fifteenth and the Sixteenth regiments of infantry were recruited during the winter months, and the Seventeenth and Eighteenth were projected but not filled until the following spring and summer. These twenty-four units, eighteen infantry, four cavalry, and two batteries, constituted the state's offerings for the first year of the war. The state had been called upon to furnish 19,316 men and it offered 21,937. . . . In the midst of these momentous events, Governor Kirkwood was reëlected. . . . In the form of distinct organizations, Iowa contributed to the

war forty regiments of infantry, nine of cavalry, and four batteries. All enlistments except the First regiment had been for three year terms. . . . The exact number of men enlisted during the war can never be known, for many of the early records were improperly kept and some were lost. . . . The records in the adjutant general's office in Des Moines show a total of 79,059 enlistments, including the reënlistments. Reduced to a three-year basis, Iowa's quotas under the various calls of the government aggregated 61,220 men, but the state furnished on the same basis 68,630. . . . On estimates of population, two-thirds of the men of military age entered the service, and they constituted above nine per cent of the total population. Of the Iowa soldiers, 12,368 were dead when the war closed, or almost one-fifth of all in the service."—C. Cole, *History of the people of Iowa, pp.* 285, 314, 315, 331, 333-335, 345-346, 372.

Also in: B. F. Gue, *History of Iowa from the earliest times, v.* 4, *p.* 119.

1867-1868.—James W. Grimes and the impeachment of President Johnson.—"The differences between the congress and Johnson reached their first climax in 1867. . . . At no time had he [Senator James W. Grimes] been in sympathy with the president. He had branded some of his acts as foolish and others as wicked. But he could not persuade himself that he was guilty of the high crimes and misdemeanors for which presidents are impeachable. Above all else, he doubted the policy of impeachments. He did not want to introduce into the United States the methods of the Latin republics, 'where the ruler is deposed the moment popular sentiment sets against him.' When the senator's attitude drew criticism he prepared 'An Opinion,' in which he defended his own views. In this able presentation of the issues he questioned the wisdom of destroying 'the harmonious working of the constitution for the sake of getting rid of an unacceptable president.' He said also that he was opposed to 'an approval of impeachments as a part of the future political machinery.' Rather than make such a departure he would bear with the idiosyncrasies of an erring executive. He said he was not enough of a partisan to bow to party necessities, nor did he consider the charges against the president sufficiently proved. The senator took this position against the advice of nearly all his friends, both political and personal. . . . But the worry and the stress and the strain of it all brought on a stroke of apoplexy. When the time came to vote on impeachment, he was carried into the senate chamber on a litter. The chief justice excused him from arising to cast his vote, but with uplifted head he voted no, while his colleague, Senator Harlan, who had recently left the president's cabinet, voted yes."—C. Cole, *History of the people of Iowa, pp.* 383-385.—See also U. S. A.: 1868 (Mar.-May).

1873-1874.—Organization of Grangers.—Rise of Anti-Monopoly party.—The farmers' campaign against the railroads was carried on under the auspices of the Grangers, known also as Patrons of Husbandry. Although non-political in purpose, it was one of the prime movers in the rise of the Anti-Monopoly party. "The sources from which the Anti-Monopoly party in Iowa sprang were the same as those from which similar parties sprang in neighboring states. Like all the people of the central West the people of Iowa were at first very friendly to railroads, and they were very slow to resent the growing abuses. For years no attempt was made to check the growth of evils, but at last the patience of the people was exhausted. The abuses were not confined to one state and the demand for their removal arose simultaneously in Minnesota, Wisconsin, Illinois and Iowa. Fanned by the arrogant attitude of the railroad managers the new party movement spread in a short time over the whole Northwest. The party went under a number of names such as the 'New party,' the 'Anti-Monopoly party,' the 'People's party,' the 'Farmers' and Laboring Men's party,' and the 'Reform party.' . . . After all it was really an 'opposition party'—the first of a succession of parties based upon economic issues, a party of protest and discontent, an unconscious effort to grapple with new problems which were only vaguely understood. Parties before the Civil War had dealt with political, constitutional, and moral issues. The Anti-Monopoly movement marked the lifting of the curtain upon the stage where the influences of wealth and democracy were to struggle for supremacy. . . . There was a growing demand for the regulation of railroad rates by legislation; the Republican party was in control and not inclined to give heed to this demand; and there was a movement on the part of the farmers to organize a new political party. The activity of the farmers was the more important because in Iowa there had been organized more local granges than in any other state in the Union. In February, 1873, while the legislature was in special session to revise the Code, the State Grange met at Des Moines; and the influence of 1200 Republican farmers at the capital, talking to members and asserting that their organization would control the next legislature, seems to have been the most important factor in securing the passage of a law fixing maximum passenger rates. . . . During the months of May and June, 1873, the newspapers gave accounts of conventions called by the Grangers to nominate candidates for county offices and for seats in the legislature. Finally, a call was issued . . . for a State Convention which met at Des Moines on August 13th. At the opening there were present two hundred persons. . . . Jacob G. Vale was nominated for governor and a platform was adopted expressing demands much the same as those of the Illinois Independents. . . . [At the same time] the Republicans held their state convention, renominated Governor Cyrus C. Carpenter, and adopted a platform favorable to the demands of the farmers. . . . A friendly account of the Anti-Monopoly campaign described it as unorganized and without leaders. . . . Under such circumstances the new party could not carry on a very effective campaign. . . . The result of the election, however, was a considerable reduction in the Republican majority."—F. E. Haynes, *Third party movements since the Civil War, pp.* 67-74.

1873-1898.—Social legislation.—Granger law. — Liquor laws. — Status of women. — State Board of Control.—"In 1873 the Republicans found the grace to say that 'the producing, commercial and industrial interests of the country should have the best and cheapest modes of transportation possible,' and . . . that 'actual capital invested' in transportation companies should still have 'reasonable compensation.' . . . Abuses, excessive rates, and discriminations in charges were denounced. . . . The Democrats . . . abandoned their own party organization entirely to make room for a new anti-monopoly party, which proclaimed the legislative regulation of all corporations and the making of maximum railroad rates by law. . . . It was a period of financial distress for which many remedies were proposed. One of the remedies was a law that remade the railroad world. Passenger rates were fixed at three and four cents a mile, the higher rates for the poorer roads,

and for freight purposes the railroads were divided into four classes and schedules of rates to be charged were enacted for each class. All discriminations between communities and between individuals were made unlawful. Rates and services were to be for all alike. This legislation became known as the Granger Law. The author of the bill was Frank T. Campbell, who afterwards became lieutenant governor of the state. . . . The law was approved by Governor Carpenter. The railroads protested what they called confiscatory legislation. . . . But they finally agreed to give the new rates a fair trial, all except the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad, which secured a temporary injunction against the rates being put into effect. The injunction was dissolved by Judge John F. Dillon of the Federal court, who upheld the right of the legislature to regulate and fix railroad charges. His decision was later sustained in the supreme court of the United States. It was then regarded as an epochal victory for the people."—C. Cole, *History of the people of Iowa, pp.* 414-415.—"The Granger laws have been and are still severely criticized by those opposed to the principles of State control and by the ignorant. It is nevertheless true that those laws were moderate, just and reasonably well adapted to remedy the evils of which the public complained. . . . The Iowa law was imperfect in detail and yet its enactment proved one of the greatest legislative achievements in the history of the state. It demonstrated to the people their ability to correct by earnestness and perseverance the most far-reaching public abuses and led to an emphatic judicial declaration of the common-law principle that railroads are high ways and as such are subject to any legislative control which may be deemed necessary for the public welfare."—W. Larrabee, *Railroad question, pp.* 332-333.—See also U. S. A.: 1866-1877.—"But there were many who cared more for morals than for railroads or money, and these made the liquor laws of the state their paramount consideration. The prohibitory law of 1855, with the wine and beer amendments of 1857 and 1858, was still on the statute books. During all the intervening years the sales of wine and beer had been legal, but not the sales of the stronger liquors. Nevertheless, the stronger drinks had been sold. Those who were licensed to sell wine and beer sold also whiskey and gin. A minority had repeatedly sought to bring this issue to the front, but the two dominant parties had succeeded in evading their importunities. But year by year the minority grew more insistent. At the meeting of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, held at Burlington in October, 1878, Mrs. J. Ellen Foster of Clinton, proposed a constitutional amendment on the subject. The idea was soon endorsed by other temperance societies, including the State Temperance Alliance, and the politicians accepted it as a solution of their perpetual dilemma. They would abide by the decision of the people. The Republicans made it part of their platform in 1878, and in 1880 the general assembly passed a joint resolution of submission. The liquor men protested, and the Democrats called it the 'most offensive form of sumptuary legislation,' but in 1882, the joint resolution was passed the second time, as required by the constitution. On the twenty-ninth of July Governor Sherman formally declared the amendment a part of the organic law of the state. It was forthwith in force and effect, but no provision had been made for its enforcement. . . . In many cities the councils licensed the liquor men to violate the law. When the political conventions were held that year, the Republicans disregarded the issue, holding to their theory that it was a non-partisan one, but the Democrats pledged themselves to resist the enforcement of the amendment and to get rid of it as soon as possible. The Republicans carried the state, but by largely reduced majorities. In the meantime, the amendment itself was declared invalid, within four months after its adoption by the people. The decision to this effect was rendered by Judge Walter I. Hayes of Clinton, in a case brought before him in Scott county. . . . In the political campaign of 1883, the Democrats presented Judge Hayes as their candidate for judge of the supreme court. The Republicans followed the logic of the situation. They went before the people with a platform pledging the party to enact a law based on the rejected amendment. Buren R. Sherman was renominated for governor, and Orlando H. Manning of Carroll County was named for lieutenant governor on the strength of his phrase, 'A school house on every hill, and no saloon in the valley,' which became a state slogan. The Republicans were successful, and in 1884 the legislature enacted statutory prohibition, reviving and amending the prohibitory law of 1855, with the wine and beer clause eliminated, and this went into effect July fourth. . . . From 1884 to 1896 are twelve years of political turmoil in Iowa. Politics seemed the principal business of the people. It was a period of violent unsettlements and readjustments. Prohibition was a continuing issue that affected not only political conclusions, but even the business of the state. The railroad rate issue for a short time was even more virulent in its outbreak. . . . The status of women in official or even clerical positions was not well defined until 1876 when the Sixteenth General Assembly passed a law enabling women to sit as school directors and to serve as county superintendents of schools. In 1872 Governor Carpenter made Ada E. North state librarian, probably the first woman in America to hold such a state office. The organization of clubs for various purposes among women did not begin until late in the seventies. The rejection of suffrage by the general assembly in 1884, however, did not retard, but rather accelerated women's activities, and a meeting in 1885 of the Association for the Advancement of Women was notable. . . . In the general assembly of 1898, by far the most important bill passed was the one creating the State Board of Control, into whose care and keeping all the state institutions, with the exception of the educational ones, were placed. The old system of separate boards for each had long been unsatisfactory. Appropriations were made by favor and through legislative bargaining."—C. Cole, *History of the people of Iowa, pp.* 417, 422-423, 447, 456-457, 507.

1874-1908.—Later attempts at railway regulation.—The railroad law of 1874 was a radical measure adopted under the influence of the Anti-Monopoly party, but approved and administered by a Republican governor. The act has been cited as "perhaps the best example of an attempt to establish a fixed schedule of maximum rates and remained unrepealed longer than the similar acts of any of the other states. . . . The measure was finally repealed in 1878 as the result of a systematic campaign waged against it by the railroads, and in its place was substituted a commission appointed by the Governor, with the power to give advice, but with no authority to enforce the advice. Excellent and well-known men were appointed and for many years a truce was es-

tablished between the people and the railroad managers on terms that had been devised by the corporations. All that had been gained by years of agitation was now surrendered. It took ten years to recover the lost ground and cost the people of the state millions of dollars. . . . The agitation that finally produced the Railroad act of 1888 gradually took shape. 'Every year seemed to add to the grievances of the public. Success greatly emboldened the railway companies. Discriminations seemed to increase in number and gravity. . . . Repeated attempts were made in the General Assembly to secure the passage of an act looking to that end [that is, a more thorough control of the railroads], but owing to shrewd manipulations on the part of the railroad lobby, every attempt was defeated. . . . Railroad politicians gradually lost their influence, and the symptoms of public discontent gradually increased.' The preliminary battles were fought in the General Assembly of 1886, while the contest reached a conclusion in 1888. . . . The three chief points [advocated by Governor Larrabee in his biennial message in 1888] were (1) to prohibit free passes to public officials, (2) to make the Railroad Commissioners elective, and (3) to give them power to fix freight and passenger rates. . . . The strong position taken by the Governor for legislative control of the railroads encouraged the advocates of such a measure in the legislature to frame a bill to deal adequately with the problem. It met with the most determined opposition from the railroads, but for the first time since 1874 they found an organization equal to their own, which could not be circumvented, intimidated or beaten. Bills making the commissioners elective for a term of three years and giving them power to regulate railroads and other common carriers (street railways excepted) easily passed the General Assembly. . . . The abolition of free passes to public officials, however, failed again and that reform had to await another forward movement in the struggle between the people and the railroads. . . . For the period when this legislation was obtained its completeness and results were really remarkable; but the power of the railroads was only limited and an interval of relaxation of agitation was bound to allow them to recover in other ways a considerable portion of their influence. . . . After another ten years much of the work had to be done over again and done more thoroughly. . . . The relation between the Progressive movement in Iowa and Wisconsin was literally that of both cause and effect so far as Iowa was concerned. Iowa was in advance of Wisconsin in 1894 when La Follette began his work in the latter state, and Iowa's experience was used by him as an example of better conditions as to railroad control. La Follette's agitation in turn was the inspiration, at least in part, of the reforms made under the administration of Governor Cummins from 1901 to 1908."—F. E. Haynes, *Third party movements since the Civil War, pp.* 435-446.

1907.—Commission government started in Des Moines. See COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES: 1907.

1909-1915.—State board of education created. —Other legislation.—"The State Board of Education was created and organized in 1909, with James H. Trewin, later succeeded by D. D. Murphy of Clayton County, as chairman, and William R. Boyd of Linn County as chairman of the finance committee. The advent of this board meant a new era in the development of the state's educational institutions. It brought the State University, the State College at Ames, and the Teachers College at Cedar Falls, as well as the minor educational institutions under one uniform and coordinated direction. With useless rivalries abolished and public confidence established, all the institutions made more rapid progress than ever before."—C. Cole, *History of the people of Iowa, p.* 531.—In 1911, the office of counselor of commerce was created, and the Sixteenth Federal Amendment (income tax) was ratified. In 1913, the enactments were a workman's compensation law, an Employers' Liability Act, a Presidential Primary Act, and a blue sky law, which was later declared unconstitutional. The number of supreme court judges was increased from six to seven, and the general assembly provided supreme district and superior court judges should be nominated and elected on a non-partisan ticket. The Seventeenth Federal Amendment (direct election of senators) was ratified, and George W. Clarke was elected governor. In 1915, the state limited the working day of children under sixteen to eight hours, and provided for contract prison labor to displace the old system.

1913-1914.—Proposed reorganization of state government.—"Since the adoption of the Constitution of 1857 there has been little constitutional change in the structure of State government in Iowa for at no time has a total revision of the Constitution been effected or favored by the people. The demands for expansion have been met chiefly through a statutory elaboration of the executive branch by the creation of new administrative offices, boards, commissions, bureaus, and departments. Nor has there been thus far any considerable demand in Iowa for the reorganization of the State government. . . . Apart from the agitation of such questions as the regulation of primary elections, equal suffrage, the initiative and referendum, and the debates on the establishment of the Board of Control of State Institutions in 1898 and the creation of the State Board of Education in 1909, there has been little or no discussion of the problem of the reorganization of State government in Iowa until very recently. Indeed, a lively interest in the problems of reorganization seems first to have found expression in the Thirty-fifth General Assembly which, besides endorsing the short ballot principle by providing for the appointment of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Clerk of the Supreme Court, and the Supreme Court Reporter, authorized the Joint Committee on Retrenchment and Reform to employ 'expert accountants and efficiency engineers' and to 'institute such changes in the administration of public affairs as will promote the efficiency and economical administration of the affairs of the State in its various departments.' The sum of $10,000 was appropriated to meet the expenses of the proposed investigations. On September 13, 1913, the work of the expert accountants and efficiency engineers was terminated under instructions from the Committee, and their final report . . . submitted under date of December 21, 1913. From the final report . . . it appears that the Efficiency Engineers, after making preliminary examinations of all the offices and departments located at the State capital, proceeded with detailed investigations of the office of Governor, the office of the Auditor of State, the office of Treasurer of State, the office of the Executive Council, the office of the Board of Control, the office of the Board of Education, the office of the Custodian of Public Buildings, and the office of the Dairy and Food Commissioner. A report on the Department of Agriculture was

presented on March 25, 1913, and a preliminary report on the heating plant was presented on May 21, 1913. . . . Detailed investigations were curtailed owing to lack of funds. Besides suggesting more modern methods and recommending numerous economies in the work of the several offices and departments—especially in the executive branch of the government—the Efficiency Engineers make some far-reaching recommendations relative to 'the reorganization of the executive functions' of State government. And they direct attention to the fact that the adoption of what they call their 'basic plan of reorganization' would not require the amendment or revision of the State Constitution. In other words, the reforms proposed could be brought about through ordinary legislative action. With respect to the legislative branch of the government the report proposes no organic change, but strongly urges the organization of a well equipped legislative reference bureau in connection with the State Library. The functions of such a bureau would be to collect information relative to current legislative problems, to draft bills for the members of the General Assembly, to furnish other departments of government with information relative to the methods and precedents of other States, and to prepare and issue daily a record of all bills and resolutions introduced in the Senate and House of Representatives during the session of the General Assembly. The judicial department of the State government was given only a cursory examination by the Efficiency Engineers, who offer no recommendations in their report but call attention to a plan for the reorganization of the judiciary recently proposed by William R. Vance, Dean of the College of Law of the University of Minnesota, in an address delivered on January 15, 1914, before the Bar Association of South Dakota—which plan they 'believe is well worthy of consideration.' The 'basic plan of reorganization' proposed in the report of the Efficiency Engineers relates primarily to the executive branch of the State government, and calls for no alterations in the State Constitution. It recognizes the fundamental principles of (1) the short ballot, (2) the concentration of authority and the location of responsibility, (3) the scientific budget, (4) the merit system, and (5) business efficiency."—F. E. Horack, *Reorganization of state government in Iowa* (*Iowa Applied History Series, v. 2, pp.* 52-54).

1914-1920.—**City manager movement.**—"Iowa has at the present time [1920] twelve cities operating under or pledged to the city manager plan. Only two of these, Dubuque and Webster City, have adopted commission-manager charters. The others have created the position of manager by ordinance in accordance with state law authorizing such action. Dubuque, [with a] population [of] 39,141, adopted the Commission-manager plan January 26, 1920. The council of five took office on April 12, and the first manager, Ossian E. Carr, assumed duties June 1, 1920. . . . The city-manager plan in Dubuque was originally advocated largely by labor organizations, and the election was carried chiefly through their efforts. Of the five councilmen, two are acknowledged labor leaders. The new administration is strongly supported by both labor and business interests. The outgoing administration left the city with accounts badly over-drawn. Nearly $100,000 of current funds had been spent in advance in addition to an inherited floating debt of some $250,000. The state auditor reported $550,000 in delinquent taxes on the city books. Manifestly the first things to be done were to curtail expenses and collect delinquent taxes. Within two weeks the city payroll had been reduced by $2,500 a month. In view of the local aversion to buying tax titles, upon the suggestion of one of the councilmen, a company was formed with an authorized capital of $300,000 for the purpose of buying tax titles at the annual tax sale. Through publicity as to what was being planned, $150,000 in back taxes were paid into the treasury immediately preceding the December tax sale. It is estimated that the first two years under the new plan will be devoted chiefly to straightening out municipal finances, after which time due attention will be paid to installing needed improvements. . . . The three local newspapers and apparently a large majority of citizens are solidly behind the new form of government. . . . Webster City, with a population of 5,657, had a commission manager charter effective October, 1916. G. J. Long, the second manager, was appointed April, 1917. . . . It is worthy of note that Webster City has saved an average of $36,000 a year since adopting the manager plan. Mr. Long is . . . a graduate engineer and experienced in municipal work. Clarinda, whose population is 4,511, adopted the Manager plan by ordinance April 1913. Henry Traxler, the second manager, was appointed May, 1919. . . . Just prior to Mr. Traxler's appointment, the electors had 'thrown out of office the so-called business type of council backed by the commercial club.' . . . The city has issued $20,000 worth of bonds which will be used in buying up some unsightly places and converting them into parks and playgrounds. The city owns and operates the only theatre in town, and offers many fine attractions. A public dance hall is under the supervision of the city. . . . Mount Pleasant, population 4,170, adopted the manager plan by ordinance April 1916, with T. W. McMillan manager. . . . Iowa Falls, population 4,000, adopted the manager plan by ordinance May, 1914. J. O. Gregg, the second manager, was appointed May, 1917. . . . Mr. Gregg reports, 'With the increased cost of everything, we have paid $7,500 this year on outstanding bonds issued in former years, and will complete the year with a cash balance in the city treasury of over $40,000, which practically offsets all outstanding indebtedness of all kinds of the city, this with a reduction in the tax levy.' . . . In Anamosa, population 3,000, the position of manager was created by ordinance May, 1919. W. F. Hathaway, who formerly held the triple position of city clerk, water commissioner, and city marshal, was made manager. [The other cities in Iowa that have adopted the manager plan are as follows: Shenandoah, population, 5,750, October, 1920; Esterville, 4,200, May, 1919; Maquoketa, 4,000, June, 1920; Manchester, 3,160, May, 1916; Villisca, 2,170, May, 1919; West Liberty, 2,000, April, 1920.]"—H. G. Otis, *City-manager movement* (*National Municipal Review, Mar.,* 1921).

1915-1919.—**Perkins law.—Creation of park system.—Road laws.**—"In the development of the professional school of medicine at Iowa City, the first public hospital for crippled children was established under what is known as the Perkins law [1915]. It was provided that all children congenitally or otherwise deformed should receive surgical and medical care at public cost in all cases where parents and guardians were not able to provide such treatment. Under this system thousands of children who might otherwise have been compelled to go through life handicapped,

have been restored to almost normal conditions. . . . The law has since been extended to adults under similar conditions. Another significant law provided for the creation of a system of state parks, for the purpose of preserving and maintaining for the people all the places of great historical associations and of admitted scenic natural beauty. The first of the parks established under this wise law is known as the Devil's Backbone in Delaware County, a projecting and high ledge of rock almost encircled by the Maquoketa River. Other parks have since been established, and eventually the state will have a completed system of reserved lands for the pleasure and the recreation of the people. . . . In the domain of practical legislation a series of road laws occupy easily the first place during this period. The construction and maintenance of adequate roads is a problem that dates back to territorial days. . . . Under various systems, . . . dirt roads have been maintained. Rain and frost and travel have undone what was done each year. The development and increased use of automobiles and motor vehicles of all kinds at last gave the needed impetus toward a more permanent construction of highways. By successive enactments the work of draining, grading, and crowning the roads has been accomplished, and in 1919 the decisive step was taken of listing the roads as primary and secondary state highways and county and township roads. It was provided that the primary roads, connecting the county seats and the principal cities, should be hard surfaced by the use of either stone, concrete, or brick, or other compositions of like durability. The funds for this purpose are to be derived from three sources, federal aid, taxes levied on automobiles and motor vehicles, and taxes levied on property directly or indirectly benefited. The work thus legally outlined is in progress, but many years will be required for its completion."—C. Cole, *History of the people of Iowa, pp.* 531-534.

1917-1921. — Legislation. — Part played in World War.—Ratification of federal amendments.—In 1917, William L. Harding was elected governor; a moratorium was provided for men in the military and naval service; a state banking department was organized and the office of superintendent of banking created. During the World War, the state furnished 98,781 men or 2.63 per cent of the entire expeditionary forces; and Camp Dodge, a national army camp, was located at Des Moines. "The response to the call of war was instantaneous and it was overwhelming. Her volunteers were so many that in many cities and in whole counties the first draft was avoided. The three regiments of the National Guard of the state were immediately summoned to duty. . . . A war strength regiment of three thousand six hundred men was created, composed of almost equal parts of the three regiments. This became the 168th regiment of the United States army, which was assigned to the Forty-second or famous Rainbow Division. The Iowa regiment constituted one-fourth of the infantry strength of the division. Colonel Ernest R. Bennett of the old Third regiment was succeeded by Colonel Matthew A. Tinley, who led it at the front. It was the one large distinct unit of the state in the great war, the other Iowa troops being scattered through many organizations."—C. Cole, *History of the people of Iowa, p.* 541.—In 1919, the Eighteenth (prohibition), and the Nineteenth (woman suffrage) Federal Amendments were ratified, January 14 and July 2 respectively; highway legislation divided the highways into primary and secondary systems; and the nomination and election of judges was restored to a party basis. In 1921, Nathan E. Kendall was elected governor.

1920.—Problem of special municipal and legislation and home rule.—"The Iowa Constitution of 1857 was one of the first to prohibit the passage of special laws for cities and towns. . . . The prohibition of special legislation for municipalities had been incorporated in the constitutions of Ohio and Indiana in 1851 and it is not unlikely that the Iowa provision was copied from one of these. . . . Since 1857 the incorporation of cities and towns has been under general law based upon a statutory classification. Those cities and towns operating under special charters at the time of the adoption of the present constitution were not affected by the adoption of the general statute, but they were permitted to give up their special charters and organize under the general law if they so desired. In like manner they have been permitted to give up their special charters and organize under the commission plan or the city-manager plan, as well as those operating under the general law. From the organization of the Territory of Iowa in 1838 until the constitutional provision forbidding special charters went into effect in September, 1857, forty cities and towns had been granted special charters. . . . Many of these special charters were liberal in their provisions and the cities and towns possessing them enjoyed a considerable degree of home rule. . . . The charters granted were looked upon as matters chiefly of local concern and were usually passed without much discussion or debate. . . . It is in this spirit that much of the municipal legislation is still passed. . . . In spite of the constitutional prohibition, special legislation for municipalities in Iowa is still profuse, and as long as it has the appearance of being general, it has been the policy of the courts to sustain it. . . . The right of the special charter cities to amend their own charters has proved to be of but little value; inasmuch as any legislative act applicable to such cities is held to take precedence over the charter provisions. Under such circumstances there is no security against legislative interference. . . . Decisions rendered by the courts evidently give the legislature complete freedom in passing any law for any city by simply creating a class according to its population and providing that any city now or hereafter having the specified population may enjoy the rights or provisions granted. . . . The absurdity as well as the injustice of this condition is at once apparent. . . . Such classifications have no other object than to defeat the constitutional provision. Judge Dillon [of the Iowa Supreme Court] declares that thirty years' experience with these constitutional interdicts against local and special legislation has convinced him that they have failed to produce the beneficial results anticipated. Thus he concludes that the right to pass local and special legislation for municipalities should be restored, under proper safeguards. . . . To permit special legislation in such cases may be advisable, but to grant a reasonable degree of home rule would not only accomplish the same results but would relieve the general assembly of a large number of bills that regularly take up its time. Statutory home rule was urged before the general assembly of Iowa a few years ago but failed to pass. The charge however that the farmers defeated the measure is not shown by the record. . . . In his presidential address before the Iowa State Bar Association in 1915, Hon. F. F. Dawley, citing numerous instances in which the courts have held that cities do enjoy a right of local self-government which

cannot be taken from them by legislative act, declared that 'the long line of cases holding that cities and towns have no powers whatever, even in local matters, except such as are expressly conferred by act of the legislature, ought to be overruled without waiting for an act of the legislature to set them aside.' . . . Whenever the fundamental right of local self-government is restored to the cities of Iowa, whether it be by constitutional amendment, court decisions or legislative enactment, then, and not until then, may we expect to see a material decrease in the number of acts, biennially passed for particular communities."—F. E. Horack, *Special municipal legislation in Iowa* (*American Political Science Review, Aug.*, 1920).

1920-1921.—United States secretaries of agriculture.—In January, 1920, President Wilson appointed E. T. Meredith, prominent Iowa agricultural leader and editor, to fill the vacancy in the cabinet caused by the resignation of Secretary of Agriculture Houston, who became secretary of the treasury. In 1921, President Harding appointed, as secretary of agriculture to succeed Meredith, Henry F. Wallace, also an Iowa agricultural editor and publisher. Wallace is the third Iowan to fill the position, the first being James Wilson, who served for sixteen years, 1897-1913.

Also in: L. Pelzer, *Scope of Iowa history.*—L. G. Weld, *On the way to Iowa.*—Van der Zee, *Fur trade operations.*—R. G. Thwaites, *Romance of Mississippi valley history.*—F. J. Turner, *Significance of the Mississippi valley in American history.*—K. W. Colgrove, *Attitude of Congress toward the pioneers.*—J. Brigham, *Iowa: Its history and its foremost citizens.*—E. H. Downey, *History of labor legislation in Iowa.*—C. O. Ruggles, *Economic basis of the Greenback movement.*—J. L. Gillin, *Poor relief legislation in Iowa.*—C. R. Aurner, *History of education in Iowa.*—F. E. Haynes, *Child labor legislation in Iowa.*—R. A. Gallaher, *Legal and political status of women in Iowa.*—Short articles in *State Historical Society of Iowa, Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, and *Mississippi Valley Historical Review.*

IOWAS, Indian tribe. See Pawnee family; Siouan family.

IPEK, town of Jugo-Slavia, southeast of the former kingdom of Montenegro; taken in the latter part of 1915 by the Austrians under Koevess. See World War: 1915: V. Balkans: b, 4.

IPSILANTI. See Ypsilanti.

IPSUS, Battle of (301 B.C.). See Macedonia: B.C. 310-301; Seleucidæ, Empire of.

IQUIQUE, Battle of (1891). See Chile: 1885-1891.

IRACA, sacred city in Colombia. See Colombia: 1536-1731.

IRAK, or Iraq.—At the time of the Mahometan conquest, "Chaldea and Babylonia occupied the rich region south of the river Tigris, watered by the Euphrates, and were known as Irak of the Arabs, as distinguished from Irak of the Persians, which corresponded somewhat nearly to the modern kingdom of Persia. . . . Irak of Arabia was at this time under the jurisdiction of Persia, and the wandering Arabs who roamed over the broad desert were tributary to Persia when they pitched their tents on the eastern side, and to Rome when sojourning on the side towards Syria; though they were at no time trusty allies or subjects. The region of Irak contains many relics of a former civilization; there are the mounds that mark the site of old Babylon."—A. Gilman, *Story of the Saracens, pp.* 226-227.—In 1921 Mesopotamia assumed its ancient name of Irak. See Mesopotamia; Turkey: 1923 (July-August)

IRAKLI II (1744-1798), king of the Georgians. See Caucasus: 1736-1799.

IRALA, Domingo Martinez de (1487-1557), Spanish soldier in Paraguay. See Paraguay: 1515-1557.

IRAN, native name for Persia. (See Turan.) "Between the valley of the Indus and the land of the Euphrates and Tigris, bounded on the south by the ocean and the Persian Gulf, on the north by the broad steppes which the Oxus and Jaxartes vainly attempt to fertilise, by the Caspian Sea and the valley of the Aras [embracing modern Persia, Baluchistan, Afghanistan and Russian Turkestan], lies the table-land of Iran. Rising to an average height of 4,000 feet above the level of the sea, it forms an oblong, the length of which from east to west is something more than 1,500 miles. . . . As far back as our information extends, we find the table-land of Iran occupied by a group of nations closely related to each other, and speaking dialects of the same language."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity, bk.* 7, *ch.* 1.—See also Aryans; Media and the Medes.

Invention of paper. See Printing and the press: Before 14th century.

Language. See Philology: 14.

Priests.—Religion. See Magians; Zoroastrians.

IRDJAR, Battle of (1866). See Russia: 1859-1881.

IRELAND

Geographical description.—Ancient names.—Ireland is an island which lies in the Atlantic to the west of Great Britain. "Its greatest length is 302 miles; its average breadth 110 miles. . . . The total area is 20,819,928 acres, or 32,531 sq. m. . . . The population in 1911 was 4,390,219 for the whole island. No census was taken in 1921. The climate of Ireland bears a close resemblance to that of Great Britain, but is modified by the marked difference in the configuration of the surface, the greater distance from the continent of Europe, and the fact that it is more directly influenced by the Gulf Stream drift. The mean annual temperature is 50.0° (that of England is 49.5°, that of Scotland 47.5°); and the temperature in Ireland is more equable. The eastern half of the island has a rainfall of from 30 to 40 inches, and the western half from 40 to 50 inches."—D. Patrick, ed., *Chambers's concise gazetteer of the world, pp.* 361-362.—"Ireland stands on the edge of the European plateau, the sea-floor sinking to oceanic depths on the west; while on the east it is divided from Great Britain by shallow seas, rarely deeper than 70 fathoms. The western coast-line is deeply indented, and obviously reproduces the features of the sea-lochs of Scotland and the fjords of Norway. The long inlets are river-valleys that have been lowered beneath the sea, and the walls that bounded them now jut out as headlands into the Atlantic, their outermost peaks forming characteristic chains of islands. . . . The east coast of Ireland includes few fjords, though the names of Wexford, Carlingford, and Strangford show how the typical structure even there impressed the Danish settlers. In general, however, on the east there is a series of broad bays and accumulated sands, broken only here and there by some bold feature like Bray

Head. . . . The general form of the surface of Ireland resembles a shallow basin, the highlands being grouped along the coast. . . . Central Ireland is, in general, a lowland, with many brown bogs, stretches of green meadow, and numerous lakes, sinuous in outline, and enclosing abundant islands. . . . The Shannon and its important tributary, the Suck, run north and south through the plain. The former, if we include the Owenmore river, rises on the moors of Cuilcagh, falls steeply at first, and then has a gentle course of over 200 miles. It thus appears mainly as a broad lowland stream, spreading out to form Loughs Allen, Boderg, Forbes, Rec, and Derg."—G. A. J. Cole, *Ireland* (*International geography*, H. R. Mill, ed., *pp.* 187, 189).—"Ireland was known by many names from very early ages. Thus, in the Celtic it was called Inis-Fail, the isle of destiny; Inis-Ealga, the noble island; Fiodh-Inis, the woody island; and Eire, Fodhla, and Banba. By the Greeks it was called Ierne, probably from the vernacular name of Eire, by inflection Erin; whence, also, no doubt, its Latin name of Juverna; Plutarch calls it Ogygia, or the ancient land; the early Roman writers generally called it Hibernia, probably from its Iberian inhabitants, and the later Romans and mediæval writers Scotia, and sometimes Hibernia; and finally its name of Ireland was formed by the Anglo-Normans from its native name of Eire."—M. Haverty, *History of Ireland, p.* 76, *note.*—See also SCOTLAND: Name.

Primitive inhabitants.—"The first people . . . of whose existence in Ireland we can be said to know anything are commonly asserted to have been of Turanian origin, and are known as 'Formorians,' . . . a race of utterly savage hunters and fishermen, ignorant of metal, of pottery, possibly even of the use of fire; using the stone hammers or hatchets of which vast numbers remain in Ireland to this day, and specimens of which may be seen in every museum. . . . Irish philologists believe several local Irish names to date from this almost inconceivably remote epoch. . . . Next followed a Belgic colony, known as the Firbolgs, who overran the country, and appear to have been of a somewhat higher ethnological grade, although, like the Formorians, short, dark, and swarthy. Doubtless the latter were not entirely exterminated to make way for the Firbolgs, any more than the Firbolgs to make way for the Danaans, Milesians, and other successive races. . . . The first of these were the Tuatha-da-Danaans, who arrived under the leadership of their king Nuad, and took possession of the east of the country. These Tuatha-da-Danaans are believed to have been large, blue-eyed people of Scandinavian origin, kinsmen and possibly ancestors of those Norsemen or 'Danes' who in years to come were destined to work such woe and havoc upon the island. . . . [Some historians hold that the Tuatha-da-Danaans were not a real people; but that the fabled personages among them were the gods of the pagan Irish.] They, too, were, in their turn, conquered by the Milesians or 'Scoti,' who next overran the country, giving to it their own name of Scotia, by which name it was known down to the end of the twelfth century, and driving the earlier settlers before them, who thereupon fled to the hills, and took refuge in the forests, whence they emerged, doubtless, with unpleasant effect upon their conquerors, as another defeated race did upon their conquerors in later days."—E. Lawless, *Story of Ireland, ch.* 1.

Tribes of early Celtic inhabitants.—Historical facts in early traditions.—"On the northern coast dwelt the Veniconii, in the modern county of Donegal, and the Robogdii, in Londonderry and Antrim. Adjoining to the Veniconii, westward, were the Erdini or Erpeditani, and next to them the Magnatæ, all in Donegal. Farther south were the Auteri, in Sligo; the Gangani, in Mayo; and the Velibori, or Ellebri, in the district between Galway and the Shannon. The south-west part of the island, with a great portion of the interior, was inhabited by the Iverni, who gave name not only to the great river but to the whole island, and who may, perhaps, be considered as the aboriginal inhabitants. . . . In the modern counties of Waterford and Tipperary, Ptolemy places a tribe called the Usdiæ or Vodiæ, according to the variations of the manuscripts. In the modern county of Wexford dwelt the Brigantes; and northward from them were the Coriondi, in Wicklow; the Menapii, in Dublin; the Cauci, on the banks of the Boyne; the Blanii, or Eblani, on the bay of Dundalk; the Voluntii, in Down; and the Darini, bordering on the Robogdii, in Antrim. Three, at least, of the tribes who held the eastern coast of Ireland, the Brigantes, the Menapii, and the Voluntii, were, no doubt, colonies from the opposite shores of Britain."—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon, ch.* 2.—"About three centuries before the Christian Era the light of reliable history begins to dawn, and we meet with the legends of two important events, which seem to be based upon actual facts. The first of these is the foundation of the famous palace of . . . Emania, which for six hundred years afterwards was the seat of the powerful kings of the line of Ir in the North. . . . The foundation of Emania is regarded by Tigherneach, a celebrated and critical historian, who was abbot of Clonmacnoise in the eleventh century, as marking the commencement of authentic Irish history. . . . About 250 B.C. the second legend is that connected with Ugaine Mór and his family. This powerful king of the line of Heremon [who] reigned in the south-east of Ireland . . . divided the country among his twenty-five children. . . . The foregoing traditions of early Ireland, beginning in pure mythology, obscured by wild legends, and only towards the end revealing an occasional glimpse of actual facts which are consistent with later circumstances, are obviously not history. Modern scholars have endeavoured to ascertain the truths that underlie them, and have formulated reasonable theories of the origin of the early inhabitants of Ireland. According to these the last colonisation was much more recent than is stated in our traditions, and consisted of different bands slowly pushing through the country, and establishing themselves as a dominant class over the earlier inhabitants, who, however, still remained in distinct tribes, and formed the majority of the population. These late arrivals, big, blond, fair-haired men as they are always described, were Celtic speakers, but probably Teutonic in race, who came to Ireland through Britain. In the densely wooded and thinly populated country many small bodies might be long settled in any part before arousing hostility, and even then it would be only that of their nearest neighbours. It may be safely said that Irish history is reliable as to genealogies and the broad features of the principal events from the Christian Era, and that it is fairly reliable, from a more remote period, as a guide to such outstanding events as the foundation of Emania. . . . It is evident that the reliability of . . . [these] early traditions must depend greatly upon the time at which written records were first made and preserved. The period at which the use of let-

ters was first introduced into Ireland is, however, yet another doubtful question. By some the introduction of writing is ascribed to St. Patrick: others believe that written records were kept in Ireland from much earlier times. . . . There was much intercourse between Ireland and the Roman Empire: there are frequent references to books written before St. Patrick came, and to laws which were recorded before his arrival. The sudden general adoption of writing immediately after the time of St. Patrick suggests some knowledge of it before his time. The probabilities are that the use of letters was known in a certain degree to the Irish for some time prior to the introduction of Christianity, but was not generally known until after that event. . . . There was one form of writing, however, which was peculiar to the Gaelic race. This was . . . *Ogham*, pronounced Owum. . . . Ogham was mostly inscribed on wooden tablets, but was also cut in stone. The latter are the only specimens that have been preserved. . . . The antiquity of Ogham is uncertain, but it is evident that it was too laborious as a method of writing to be adapted to anything like continued narrative. . . . Oral tradition, handed down from generation to generation, is, therefore, our only source of information about Ireland until after the Christian Era. As every clan had its specially trained historians, their tribal traditions may have been fairly well preserved. . . . The division of Ireland into twenty-five parts, ascribed to Ugaine having lasted for three centuries, is said to have been ended by . . . (*Eochy Feylagh*), who was King of the people of Leinster shortly before the Christian Era. He is said to have restored the legendary *'Five Provinces'* of the Firbolgs, and to have placed sub-Kings over each. . . . It is not, [however] until the time of St. Patrick that we get definite political sub-divisions of Ireland. . . . The conquering clans, who, in course of time, established the Irish states, gradually extended their power over the clans around them, leaving them undisturbed in their own territories under their own chiefs, but subordinate to and paying tribute to the chiefs of the superior clans. . . . Shortly before the Christian Era the most powerful Kings in Ireland were those who ruled in Emania founded three hundred years before. This family [known in history as the Clanna Rury, extended its sway over Ulaidh in the northeast] . . . and in early times spread over nearly all the North, and, at least, as far South as Taillte (in Co. Meath). . . . [In the reign of Connor MacNessa dissensions broke out and a number of military knights, known as the "Red Branch" seceded under Fergus, and joined Maeve, queen of Connacht.] The power of the Clanna Rury was checked; and, from that time forward, steadily declined."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 7-9, 11-12.—See also Celts: Ancient Irish sages.

From Tuathal to Cormac (c. 1st century-266 A.D.).—"The next event of importance is that which is revealed in the stories of the rising of the 'unfree clans,' which occurred soon after the Christian Era. The subject tribes or Attacotti, . . . oppressed by the exactions of their conquerors, rose in revolt, and were aided by the King of Ulaidh. They slew or expelled most of their masters, but were at length subdued by Tuathal 'Teachtmhar' or 'The legitimate,' who defeated them in the battle of Aicill or Skreen (in Co. Meath). The accounts of this revolution are clear enough to indicate some great political unheaval, out of which arose a great central dynasty to rival those of Eamhain on the north and Laighin on the south. . . . When Tuathal had subdued the revolting clans, he is said to have founded a new province called Midhe or 'Meath,' by cutting off portions of the other provinces. The centre of this new Kingdom was the palace of Tara. . . . To Tuathal may therefore be ascribed the foundation of the Kingdom of Meath, and the establishment of the great dynasty of Tara, which ruled the clans of the great open plain from the sea to the Shannon, and afterwards sent out branches to rule over the clans of more than half of Ireland. . . . Tuathal is also said to have originated the famous Borumha (Boruma) tribute, which for 500 years was the cause of fierce fighting between the Kings of Tara and the people of Leinster. The traditional cause of the Borumha was an act of treachery on the part of the King of Laighin towards Tuathal, in revenge for which the latter imposed a heavy tribute upon the people of Leinster. . . . Whatever may have been the origin of the Borumha, the rivalry between the two families of Ugaine lasted for many centuries; the Kings of Meath asserting a right to tribute from all Leinster, and their opponents claiming as strongly to be the independent rulers of all its tribes. It is to be noted that the Borumha was supposed to be divided amongst the 'Heremonian' families only—that is Meath and its off-shoots, the rulers of which were all descended from Tuathal, and his grandson Conn. . . . We have seen that those 'ruling clans' claimed to be descended from the early leaders of the 'Milesians.' . . . These spurious ancestors may be rejected. But . . . we still find remaining as cardinal facts in Irish History the great groups of families. We also find that of three of these groups each has a common ancestor in three famous rival Kings. It is certain that the Kings and 'ruling clans' of all the independent Kingdoms of Ireland (except Ulaidh [northeastern Ulster]) during historical times descended from one of three real personages—Cahir Mór, Conn, and Mogh Nuath—who flourished about the middle of the 2nd century. . . . [Conn, the grandson of Tuathal] found himself opposed by Cahir Mór . . . [who succeeded in making Leinster independent but who was slain in battle]. Thereafter Conn fought against Mogh Nuath king of the southern tribes. At first Conn and Mogh Nuath agreed to divide the sovereignty of the island between them, the northern half going to Conn, the southern to his rival. Mogh Nuath, however, was slain in battle, and the division fell into disuse except in name. From Conn were descended the great families of Meath, the north, west and northwest, except the tribes of Ulaidh [northeastern Ulster]; from Mogh Nuadat, better known as Eoghan or Owen Mor, the Dalcassians—kings of Thomond (North Munster) [later the O'Briens] and the Eugenians of Desmond (South Munster) claimed descent.] Hence we find in the second century the origin of the three great dynasties, which supplied the independent rulers of all parts of Ireland (except Ulaidh) for hundreds of years, and which contested with each other the supremacy of the country. Here, too, we have the clues to the alliances and rivalries which took place up to the coming of the Normans, and also to the historical reasons for the conflicting claims which prohibited unity before and after that event. . . . The chief interest in the dynasties thus firmly established in the second century centres around the descendants of Conn and of Mogh Nuadhat. During the next two centuries we find the vigorous descendants of

Conn building up a strong and compact Kingdom whose centre was Tara. . . . In the reign of Cormac Mac Airt (227-266 A.D.), a grandson of Conn, Tara reached its greatest splendour. During a long reign of forty years he carried on wars against the Clanna Rury, the descendants of Cahir Mór and of Oilioll Olim, and also against the tribes of Connacht. But his greatest fame was as an administrator and as patron of laws and learning. To Cormac are ascribed most of the buildings which covered the Hill of Tara, chief among them being the . . . Banqueting Hall, of whose glories the early literature contains glowing descriptions. Colleges for war, history, and law were also established by him, and during his reign the first mill erected in Ireland was built on the slopes of the royal hill. He is said to have had compiled the *'Saltair of Tara'* (now lost), which contained an account of the territories ruled over by the King of Tara, and the tributes payable to him in respect of them. [During the reigns of Cormac and Cairbre his son we find the legendary "fenians," bodies of professional soldiers who sometimes fought with the king, sometimes against him, and were finally destroyed by Cairbre.]"—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 12-16.

Also in: D. Figgis, *Gaelic state in the past and future, pp.* 8-13.—E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v.* 1.—J. J. O'Kelly, *Ireland, pp.* 1-39.—T. Moore, *History of Ireland, v.* 1, *ch.* 4.

Mythology of the Roman and Christian eras. See Mythology: Celtic: Roman period; Christian era.

Ancient religion.—Druidism of Ireland and Gaul contrasted.—Celtic church. See Druids: Points of agreement, etc.; Celtic church.

Niall of the Nine Hostages.—Political divisions.—"So powerful had the Kings of Tara become that in the . . . [fourth] century we find them carrying their arms into the neighbouring island, and even to the Continent of Europe. . . . One of the most famous leaders in these expeditions was Niall, King of Tara, called 'of the Nine Hostages.' He first aided the Gaels of Dal Riada against the Picts, and then led both against the decaying Roman power. Eventually, Niall carried his arms across to the Continent, and was killed on the banks of the Loire. . . . [But even before Niall's time, the growing power of the king of Tara was threatened. On the one hand the Dalcassians were forcing their way up from the South into Connacht, thus increasing their power, while during, or immediately after the death of Niall other descendants of Conn of the hundred battles carved out independent territories for themselves. One of these kingdoms, known later as Oriel stretched across the island from Dundalk to Sligo bay, so that the ancient Clanna Rury of Queen Maeve was reduced to about the present counties of Down and Antrim. Another kingdom comprised Donegal, Derry and most of Tyrone, known as Ailcach, while across the Shannon Connacht came under the rule of Niall's half-brothers, who reigned in Cruachan.] The establishment of the new dynasties in the West and North-west by the brothers and sons of Niall respectively completed the political organisation of Ireland as we find it in strictly historical times. The seven independent states into which the Island was thus divided, remained—modified under changing conditions—the fields of political influence in Ireland until the whole Gaelic fabric was destroyed after the Battle of Kinsale in 1603. . . . To follow the fortunes of those seven dynasties is the aim of any history of Gaelic Ireland. Their supremacy in their own kingdoms remained permanent, the rivalries which often convulsed them were between competitors of their own families. It is possible that Christianity may have helped to secure political stability. Certainly from the time of its introduction the various royal lines in each Kingdom continued without a break. But the extent of the Kingdoms was not rigid, and their boundaries frequently shifted. The federated clans of which they were comprised continued in the main to occupy their original lands. But the ambition, strength or energy of their rulers often led them to endeavour to bring adjoining clans under their sway, and the Kingdoms thus expanded or contracted. Therefore, while the clans remained fixed, the extent of the Kingdoms varied."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 17, 24.

432.—Coming of Saint Patrick.—Conversion of island to Christianity.—"It was in the fifth century since the Redemption that Christianity reached them. Patricius, a Celt of Gaul it is said, carried into Erin as a slave by one of the Pagan kings, some of whom made military expeditions to North and South Britain, and even to the Alps and the Loire, became the Apostle of Ireland. . . . He was received with extraordinary favour, and before his death nearly the whole island had embraced Christianity. The coming of Patrick took place in the year of our Lord 432, and he laboured for sixty years after; planting churches and schools, rooting out the practices and monuments of Paganism, and disciplining the people in religion and humanity. It was a noble service, and it impressed itself for ever on the memory of the race whom he served."—C. G. Duffy, *Bird's eye view of Irish history, p.* 7.

Also in: E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v.* 1, *pp.* 32-33.—"The place of Patrick's birth is still a subject of perennial controversy: the neighbourhood of the Severn and the neighbourhood of the Clyde have long had their claims to his nativity urged with almost equal earnestness, while recently a claim has been forcefully advanced on behalf of the neighbourhood of the Tiber. He was first brought to Ireland in bondage in the course of those maritime expeditions in which Niall of the Nine Hostages and other Irish kings of that period indulged. Having spent about seven years in the service of an Irish chieftain, he escaped and—as appears from the most careful investigations—found his way to Gaul and Italy, eventually returning to Britain. Then it was he felt called back to Ireland, to the children near the wood of Fochlad by the western sea. So he again set out for Gaul and, to fit himself for the mission to him foreshown, studied long and diligently at Auxerre, principally under Germanus. After all his anxious years, however, Celestine, determining in 431 to send a bishop to the Scots believing in Christ, chose and consecrated therefor not Patrick but Palladius. Tigroney, Ceall Fine near Dunlavin, and Donard, all in Wicklow, are regarded as scenes of the early labours of Palladius, whose mission came to a close within a year. Thus unexpectedly came Patrick's turn. Consecrated by Germanus, Patrick set out to continue the mission in 432, some thirty years after the death of Saint Martin, from whom he is said to have received the tonsure. Some accounts represent him as accompanied by 'twenty-four holy clerics,' some by even more. . . . Special reference must be made in advance to two outstanding results of Patrick's mission: the revision, six years after his arrival, of the Brehon Law Code at Tara—where we often find him—and the founding

of Armagh after a further six years, or perhaps more. It will be well to bear in mind that the revised Code regulated, among other things, the subsequent inauguration of kings and the conditions under which lands were held by the Church; while the bequests and submission to Armagh, promiscuously mentioned in the Saint's life, could only have been made after Armagh had been definitely chosen as the Primatial See."—J. J. O'Kelly, *Ireland: Elements of her early story, pp.* 54-55, 57.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 5th-9th centuries; and Map.

ALSO IN: E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v.* 1, *pp.* 32-33.

5th-6th centuries.—Introduction of Latin culture.—"The Roman Agricola had proposed the conquest of Ireland on the ground that it would have a good effect on Britain by removing the spectacle of liberty. But there was no Roman conquest. The Irish remained outside the Empire, as free as the men of Norway and Sweden. They showed that to share in the trade, the culture, and the civilisation of an empire, it is not necessary to be subject to its armies or lie under its police control. While the neighbouring peoples received a civilisation imposed by violence and maintained by compulsion, the Irish were free themselves to choose those things which were suited to their circumstances and character, and thus to shape for their people a liberal culture, democratic and national. It is important to observe what it was that tribal Ireland chose, and what it rejected. There was frequent trade, for from the first century Irish ports were well known to merchants of the Empire, sailing across the Gaulish sea in wooden ships built to confront Atlantic gales, with high poops standing from the water like castles, and great leathern sails—stout hulls steered by the born sailors of the Breton coasts or the lands of the Loire and Garonne. The Irish themselves served as sailors and pilots in the ocean traffic, and travelled as merchants, tourists, scholars and pilgrims. . . . Of art the Irish craftsmen took all that Gaul possessed—the great decorated trumpets of bronze used in the Loire country, the fine enamelling in colours, the late-Celtic designs for ornaments of bronze and gold. . . . In such arts they outdid their teachers; their gold and enamel work has never been surpassed, and in writing and illumination they went beyond the imperial artists of Constantinople. Their schools throughout the country handed on a great traditional art, not transitory or local, but permanent and national. Learning was as freely imported. The Latin alphabet came over at a very early time, and knowledge of Greek as a living tongue from Marseilles and the schools of Narbonne. . . . But while the Irish drew to themselves from the Empire art, learning, religion, they never adopted anything of Roman methods of government in church or state. The Roman centralised authority was opposed to their whole habit of thought and genius. They made, therefore, no change in their tribal administration. As early as the second century Irishmen had learned from Gaulish landowners to divide land into estates marked out with pillar-stones which could be bought and sold, and by 700 A.D. the country was scored with fences, and farms were freely bequeathed by will. But these estates seem still to have been administered according to the common law of the tribe, and not to have followed the methods of Roman proprietors throughout the Empire. In the same way the foreign learning brought into Ireland was taught through the tribal system of schools. Lay schools formed by the Druids in old time went on as before, where students of law and history and poetry grouped their huts round the dwelling of a famous teacher, and the poor among them begged their bread in the neighbourhood. The monasteries in like manner gathered their scholars within the 'rath' or earthen entrenchment, and taught them Latin, canon law, and divinity. Monastic and lay schools went on side by side, as heirs together of the national tradition and language. The most venerable saints, the highest ecclesiastics, were revered also as guardians of Irish history and law, who wrote in Irish the national tales as competent scribes and not mere copyists—men who knew all the traditions, used various sources, and shaped their story with the independence of learning. No parallel can be found in any other country to the writing down of national epics in their pagan form many centuries after the country had become Christian. In the same way European culture was not allowed to suppress the national language; clerics as well as laymen preserved the native tongue in worship and in hymns. . . . Like the learning and the art, the new worship was adapted to tribal custom. . . . Never was a church so truly national. The words used by the common people were steeped in its imagery. In their dedications the Irish took no names of foreign saints, but of their own holy men. St. Bridgit became the 'Mary of the Gael.' There was scarcely a boundary felt between the divine country and the earthly, so entirely was the spiritual life commingled with the national."—A. S. Green, *Irish nationality, pp.* 29-35.—"Of the Irish missionaries who went afield, the fiery Columcille (also called Columba) founded his great monastery in Iona in 563. This was the base from which Scotland was evangelized. Columbanus, from Leinster, went among the Franks with a company of missionaries and from 590 till he died at Bobbio in 615 he labored among barbarians with power and intrepidity. St. Gall, an Irishman who was with Columbanus, gave his name to the famous Swiss monastery. Dagobert, the Merovingian king, who was educated in Ireland, retired in 656 to a cloister founded by an Irish abbot in France. Into Bavaria missionaries spread from Luxeuil, Columbanus's earlier headquarters. The Irish pilgrims continued to pour into the continent as evangelists and scholars and scribes, a process which continued until Ireland itself came within the savage sweep of the vikings."—F. Hackett, *Story of the Irish nation, pp.* 48-49.—See also EDUCATION: Medieval: 5th-6th centuries; BOOKS: In medieval times; and below: 7th-8th centuries.

5th-9th centuries.—Wars of Septs.—Coming of the Danes.—"The political process in Ireland, even after the coming of Patrick, was still one of sept warring with sept. The Gaels sought rather than avoided the arbitrament of war. In the two hundred years of Connacht's dominance in the limestone plain, the men of Leinster, safe in their own fastnesses, tried continually to recover Tara. A new unrest came from within. Connacht's power was dispersed with the subdivisions that were made to provide for Niall's many sons. Through those subdivisions there were more Ui Neill outside Connacht than in Connacht. These Ui Neill, north and south, combined to displace the western branch from the monarchy of Ireland. They smashed Connacht at the battle of Ocha, 483. This gave the high-kingship to the Ui Neill for centuries, but Munster had yet to make a bid for supremacy. The kings of Cashel grew strong and aggressive until,

after a predatory career of extraordinary ferocity, Feidlimid came in conflict with the reigning Niall over the domination of Leinster. In 908, at the battle of Belach Mugna, the king-bishops of Cashel played their last game of royal chess. Their defeat and subordination left the Ui Neill in power. In the weakening of Cashel, however, the rest of Munster was brought into the arena. Under Brian Boru this new power combined with Connacht so as to give him the headship of Ireland. West Munster, in the end, did not hold

CROSS OF KELLS
Meath County, Ireland

the supremacy. This was one of the elements that gave opportunity to the Anglo-Normans. . . . The vikings came sweeping the ocean toward the end of the eighth century. The most formidable pagan fighters of the North, they mastered the seas and the islands of the seas in their swift, light, stalwart seacraft. In 795 they first came to Ireland. In the beginning they had no political purpose: they were content to fall on the rich and pacific monasteries near the coast, kill the monks, whom they surprised, and help themselves to vestments, gold ornaments, chalices, fine hangings, stores, and wines. These expeditions brought terror to Christian Ireland: they stimulated the Northmen to repeat them. An uneven fight raged for fifty years. In the meantime the tidings of Christianity came to the North itself. Thereafter the invasions of Ireland became part of the tremendous and almost successful effort of the Scandinavians to conquer the British Isles. . . . When the Norsemen first got their footing in Ireland it was as predatory chiefs. The names Carlingford, Strangford, Howth, Dublin, the Skerries, Leixlip, Wexford, Waterford, and Limerick testify to their successes, which built up towns where the Irish knew no towns. The heathens, as they were, reached Dublin which was a cluster of huts. They made it a stockaded settlement. By 853 Olaf and Ivar were joint kings of Dublin. For many years they had no great security in Ireland, though Dublin was a safe base for their attacking Britain, but their incursions scarred and seared the eastern half of Ireland from 879 to 920."—F. Hackett, *Story of the Irish nation, pp.* 53-55.—"Intercourse between the northern lands and Ireland must have begun at a very early date. It was only a few days' journey, and, as the Viking vessels were galleys propelled by oars as well as by sails, they were independent of the weather. The Irish traded and married with them a century before the invasion. Even in the old Irish epic of the heroic period, there is mention of warriors from Norway, 'the Northern Way,' and of Irish chieftains who were levying tribute on the Shetlands, the Orkneys, and the Faroes. . . . In the year 794 occurred the first powerful Norse attacks in Irish waters, when the sea-robbers landed on Rechru, now Lambay, off Howth, which they devastated, and some other small islands north of Dublin, and simultaneously they launched attacks at such distant points as the Isle of Skye and Glamorganshire in South Wales."—S. MacManus, *Story of the Irish race, pp.* 268-269.—See also SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-9th centuries.

7th-8th centuries.—Learning and civilization.—Its diffusion over Europe.—"When Huns, Vandals, Franks, Alemanni, Langobards, Angles and Saxons swept across Europe and threw the greater part of the Continent back into barbarism, Ireland remained the only country where culture, learning and scholarship kept *couth* with their elder sources. Alone in Western Europe during the sixth century, in Ireland a pure Latin was written, and Greek so much as understood. Alone in Western Europe, in Ireland a wide culture existed, based not only on the study of classical authors and the sciences of the time, but especially active in the creation of a national literature, legendary and historical. During these years Ireland earned her title, *Insula Sanctorum et Doctorum.* Therefore Continental scholars, flying before the barbarian hordes, passed over into Ireland with their books. They were welcomed and honoured. . . . Ireland became the scene of extraordinary activity in scholarship. North and south, east and west, great seminaries and colleges of learning arose; and as the fame of these grew with the years, scholars came from far afield to study in the Irish schools. They came in such numbers that the [Brehon] lawyers, . . . were compelled to devise laws to knit them into the fabric of the State, seeing that it was contrary to the tradition of hospitality in the nation that they should be put to any charge for their schooling or their entertainment. And when towards the end of the sixth century peace again came to Europe, Irish scholars set forth with their books to repair the ruin that had been caused. . . . Irish missionaries and scholars came to the peoples that

now inhabited Europe as the heralds for the most part of a new theme. They were the first evangelisers of England, and instructed its first poet [Cædmon] in his letters. The schools founded by Charlemagne were in all cases inspired by Irish scholarship, and were in most cases prompted by Irish scholars, and founded and conducted either by them or their pupils. In Germany also, in the northern lowlands, among the Alps, and in Northern Italy, schools and seminaries were established. As far afield as Iceland, Syria and Egypt, these missionaries of civilisation went, carrying their books."—D. Figgis, *Historic case for Irish independence, pp.* 4-6.

7th-15th centuries.—Early Irish manuscripts. —Sagas.—Annals. See Books: In medieval times; Celts: Ancient Irish sagas; Annals: Irish.

9th-10th centuries.—Danish conquests and settlements.—"When, about the year 832, the Norse felt ready to make their first great attack on Ireland in force, they had the advantage of having as their leader [Turgeis] one of the most extraordinary and capable figures in Nordic history. . . . He came with a great fleet of 120 ships, which held some ten thousand or twelve thousand picked men, and which he divided into two divisions. One squadron of sixty ships entered the Liffey, while Turgeis himself with the other sailed up the Boyne. . . . He even got some support from the Irish and for a time it looked as if the whole northern portion of the island might speedily fall under his sway. His design included the supplanting of Christianity by the heathenism of his own country. With that end in view he took possession, some years previously, of Armagh, Ireland's Holy City, . . . where the Abbot, who was regarded as the spiritual head of Ireland, resided. Turgeis drove away 'the Follower of St. Patrick,' converted the church into a pagan temple and made himself high priest of the new religion. . . . These things took place in or about the year 845, and for some years all the foreigners in Ireland recognised Turgeis as their sovereign, though it could hardly be said that he had founded a kingdom. His ablest opponent among the native chieftains was Niall, provincial king of Ulster. . . . About the year 845, he was, somehow, taken prisoner by Maelsechlainn (Malachy) king of Meath, and drowned in Loch Owel. . . . After his death, the Norsemen abandoned their settlements on Lough Ree, moved up the Shannon and fought their way along the rivers and lakes to the Sligo coast where a fleet had assembled to carry them home. Thereafter the tide of victory turned for a while in favour of the Irish, and a new epoch began in the history of the Scandinavian invasion of Ireland."—S. MacManus, *Story of the Irish race, pp.* 269-270.—"The 9th century was the period of Danish plunder, and of settlement along the coasts and in convenient places for purposes of plunder. Towards the latter end of this century the Irish in Ireland, like the English in England, succeeded in driving out the enemy, and there was peace for forty years. Then came the Danes again, but bent more definitely than before on permanent settlement; and their most notable work was the establishment of the Danish kingdom of Dublin, with its centre at one of their old haunts, Ath Cliath on the Liffey, where the city of Dublin was built by them. . . . Nor was Dublin the only Danish city. Limerick, Cork, Waterford, Wexford, all became the centres of petty Danish kingdoms, active in commerce, skilful for those times in domestic architecture, and with political and legislative ideas identical in their essence with those of the people among whom they settled. In the course of the 10th century the Danes nominally became, for the most part, converts to Christianity. But it appears that they derived their Christianity mainly from English sources; and when they began to organize their Church, they did so after the Roman manner, and in connection with the see of Canterbury."—S. Bryant, *Celtic Ireland, ch.* 5.—"Hitherto the Vikings, . . . were all of Norwegian stock, but with a few Danes and Swedes among them. During the tenth and eleventh centuries, however, the Danes . . . who at that time were ravaging the southern and western coasts of England, took the lead in Viking activities. They were better organised than the Norse and had a more centralised government. . . . The year 847 marks the first sudden descent of the Danes, 'in seven score ships,' upon the eastern shores of Ireland. They at once proceeded to attack the Norwegians and to contest the possession of the coast settlements with them. . . . [In 853 "Olaf the white" and Ivar] assumed joint kingship over the foreigners in Ireland and set up their capital at Dublin. From there the Norwegians gradually gained ground and established vassal states and a string of trading posts and stations for their fleets along the coast. Many of these settlements bear Scandinavian names from fiords, Strangford and Carlingford in the north, and Wexford and Waterford in the south, for example. . . . The most important artery reaching into the heart of Ireland is the River Shannon. On its banks the Vikings, who were most probably Danes, founded and fortified, in the second half of the ninth century, a city which they called Limerick, 'Limerick of the mighty ships,' as one of the old chroniclers calls it. The city flourished and exerted an influence over all Munster. . . . [It soon became a rival to Dublin, and the two cities engaged in constant warfare with the aid of Irish chieftains, who in their turn, asked and received aid from the Danes. Aed Finnliath who reigned in Ulster in the ninth century, is said to have been the first to make an alliance with the foreigners.] But, indeed, from the time of the first coming of the Northmen to their final defeat, there probably never was a war in which they and the Irish were not, in some degree, banded together. Irish literature of a thousand years ago is obsessed with the spectre of the Norse occupation of Ireland, and, if we are to believe the native annalists, a night of misery had really settled down on the country with the coming of the Vikings."—S. MacManus, *Story of the Irish race, pp.* 271-273.—Raids were frequent with all their accompaniments of slaughter, enslavement and plunder. The soldiers of the foemen were billeted on the people, and a heavy tax was exacted under penalty of the loss of the nose for non-payment. Little could be done to oppose the strong, compact bodies of invaders. The population was sparse and scattered; there were no fortified towns, then or later, for the Irish are not a town-loving race, moreover the nation was broken up into numerous clans, and divided by the jealousies of chieftains, most of whom claimed descent from a common source, and almost none of whom was willing to pay allegiance to another. Even the ties of an embryo feudalism were lacking to bind the people into a semblance of unity. The early incursions of the Danes seem to have been purely predatory, and even after they began to settle down in their fortified cities, and engage in commerce, raids into the interior of the country were frequent and were often invited by the bickerings and dissensions between the chieftains. Thus, during the

period of relief from invasion which followed the death of Turgesius, we read of the Ardri plundering both Munster and the north; in 895 he overran Connaught; a few years later Connaught and Meath were at war. Again, early in the tenth century the Ardri in alliance with Leinster plundered Munster, which was prosperous under the rule of Cormac, prince-bishop, a strong and also a very learned man. Cormac defeated the allies; then turned and defeated Meath and Connaught. Not satisfied with his success, however, he claimed the seat of the Ardri, and invaded Leinster to collect tribute; but was defeated in battle (908) by the followers of the Ardri, and the men of Leinster and Connaught and was slain. Meantime warfare between the Danes and Irish had again begun, and too often the Danes had Irish allies. Thus Cormac of Ossory gave his grand daughter in marriage to Thurston the Red, and was himself made king of Dublin. But under his successor, Sitric the Dane, Ossory was overrun by his late allies, assisted by the Desies, whose home was in the south of Waterford. In 901 Dublin was taken by the Ardri, Flan; but in 916 was taken from his successor by Tomar the Dane, who ground the country down by every sort of oppression. After this there was constant fighting between the Danes and Irish with success now on one side, now on the other, for over sixty years. Then in a great battle at Tara, Malachy II, the Ardri, defeated the Danes at Tara (980). For sixteen years, he carried all before him, and seemed to be on the way to build up a strong kingdom across the island, in Leinster, Meath and Connaught. But a stronger man than he had risen in Dalcassia to the south. This was Brian, son of Kennedy, chief of Thomond, and high king of Munster. Brian's eldest brother, who had fought continuously against the Danes, and their allies, the men of Leinster, was betrayed in 976 "some say by an Irish prince, and treacherously put to death by his Norse and Irish enemies. Brian, then thirty-five years of age, became king of Munster and took quick vengeance on the assassins. In three years' time he was the undisputed king of the southern half of Ireland. . . . For a few years there was show of friendship between [Brian and Malachy], . . . and in 998 they came to an understanding, and made a truce according to which . . . [Brian was king of the southern, Malachy of the northern half of the island]. Thereupon the Leinstermen allied themselves with the Dublin Danes and revolted. Brian and Malachy united their forces, 'to the great joy of the Irish,' as the Four Masters say, and, in 999, defeated them. . . . The two Irish kings soon quarrelled again, and in the year 1002, Malachy, finding that there was defection in his ranks, was compelled to resign his supremacy to the superior force of Brian and to step down to the position of a provincial king. . . . Both Malachy and Brian were extraordinary men and it would seem as if Ireland was not big enough for both of them. . . . [Had Brian] begun his career at an earlier age and had he not had to contend with foreign invasion, he would no doubt have succeeded in welding the Irish clans into a strongly centralised and compact empire. That design probably never entered into his calculations. As it was, he did achieve that result to a certain extent and his reign was remarkably successful. . . . He had his royal seat at Kincora, a well situated place near Killaloe, on the Shannon, where he ruled with a steady hand, established his power and authority on a firm basis, enforced law and order, imparted rigid and impartial justice, and dispensed a royal hospitality. Though much of his time was given to preparation for war, . . . he still found time to build forts, roads and churches. He founded schools and encouraged learning, dispatched agents abroad to buy books, and during his reign the bardic schools began to rise again. He had difficulties with his own people, and indeed his title as emperor was never admitted by . . . [the kingdoms of the north, from whom he took hostages]. Nor were the Leinstermen any too friendly and he had to maintain permanent garrisons in parts of Munster. . . . Brian even attempted to extend his power beyond the limits of Ireland. In the year 1005 he fitted out a fleet manned by Norsemen from Dublin, Waterford, and Wexford and Irish and pillaged the shores and levied tribute on the inhabitants of northern and western Britain. He did not extirpate the Danes who were domiciled in Ireland or banish them from the kingdom, but treated them with the utmost leniency, and recognised the element of strength they would add to promote commerce and develop the resources of the country. In return for the Dublin Danes binding themselves to follow him in his wars, he was obliged to guarantee them and the other foreigners possession of their territory in Ireland. [Nevertheless he reigned in peace for twelve years.]"—S. MacManus, *Story of the Irish race, pp.* 276-278.—See also NORMANS: 8th-9th centuries: Island empire of the Vikings; SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-9th centuries.

ALSO IN: C. Halliday, *Scandinavian kingdom of Dublin.*—C. F. Keary, *Vikings of western Christendom.*—G. H. Orpen, *Ireland under the Normans, v.* 1, *pp.* 30, 31.

1014.—Battle of Clontarf.—Results.—Influence of the Danes.—Unfortunately Brian made marriage alliances with his late enemies which were fatal to the power of his house. He gave his daughter in marriage to Sitric, son of the king of Dublin, and himself married Gormflaith, daughter of the king of Leinster, and Sitric's mother, "fairest of women, who did all things ill." Her taunts about his vassalage, and a petty quarrel with Murrough, Brian's eldest son, led her brother the king of Leinster to revolt. He and his men "were quickly joined by the Dublin Danes, by Flaherty O'Neill of Tirowen and by O'Rorke of Breffni. Those two latter chiefs suddenly invaded Meath and defeated Malachy, but in a second battle were defeated. . . . Malachy pursued them and ravaged the country . . . but he was met by the Leinstermen and Danes, defeated . . . [and] pursued to his own country which was plundered to its centre. . . . Malachy appealed to Brian, . . . [the Ardri who was in part successful against the enemy, but failed to capture Dublin]. The next few months were spent by both sides in preparing for the great struggle which all felt to be near. From Kincora the summons went forth and was readily answered . . . [and the names of clans and chieftains reads like a roster of the ancient names of Ireland. The princes of Uladh and Tirowen in the north alone remained aloof and the Scots of Caledonia sent a contingent]. When all these forces were assembled there must have been not less than 20,000 assembled under the command of the old warrior King. In bringing together the Danes, nobody was more active than Gormfleth. . . . She had sent her son, Sitric, to the Danish leaders to beg their assistance, bidding him agree to any terms which they might demand. From Norway and Denmark, from the Orkney and Shetland Isles, from Northumbria and Man, from Skye and Lewis and Cantire and Cornwall, these Northmen came. . . . By Palm

Sunday (1014) the Danes and Leinstermen were assembled in Dublin and the whole surface of Dublin Bay was covered with their ships."—E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v.* 1, *pp.* 114-115.—"The great battle of Clontarf, fought on Good Friday of the year 1014, gave . . . a decisive victory [to the Irish]. . . . The day seems to have been decided on by formal challenge. . . . The forces on both sides could not have fallen short of 20,000 men. . . . The utmost fury was displayed on all sides. . . . Hardly a nobly born man escaped, or sought to escape. The ten hundred in armor, and 3,000 others of the enemy, with about an equal number of the men of Ireland, lay dead upon the field. One division of the enemy were, towards sunset, retreating to their ships, when Brodar the Viking, perceiving the tent of Brian, standing apart, without a guard, and the aged king on his knees before the Crucifix, rushed in, cut him down with a single blow, and then continued his flight. . . . The deceased hero took his place at once in history, national and foreign. . . . The fame of the event went out through all nations. The chronicles of Wales, of Scotland, and of Man; the annals of Ademar and Marianus; the Sagas of Denmark and the Isles, all record the event. . . . 'Brian's battle,' as it is called in the Sagas, was, in short, such a defeat as prevented any general northern combination for the subsequent invasion of Ireland. Not that the country was entirely free from their attacks till the end of the 11th century; but, from the day of Clontarf forward, the long cherished Northern idea of a conquest of Ireland seems to have been gloomily abandoned by that indomitable people."—T. D'A. McGee, *Popular his-*

BRIAN BORU ON THE PLAIN OF CLONTARF
(After painting by F. Catherwood)

tory of Ireland, v. 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 6.—"It was a costly victory for the Irish; the king himself, . . . [his eldest son Murchadh, and Murchadh's son Turlough] all fell in battle. . . . On the conclusion of the battle the troops disbanded, each clan going to its own territory, and Donchadh, Brian's son, who had been away on a foraging expedition and had taken no part in the battle, took command. But the days of Ireland's glory were departed."—S. MacManus, *Story of the Irish race, p.* 282.—"The battle of Clontarf marks an important epoch in Irish history. . . . It certainly did not rid Ireland of 'the foreigners.' The Norsemen remained as before in possession of the walled city of Dublin and of the sea-board towns which they had created on the east and south coasts, whence they dominated the adjoining districts, and occasionally joined in the internal contests of the Irish themselves. . . . The battle of Clontarf marks the downfall of the hopes of Brian to establish a strong monarchy in Ireland, and the failure of the most promising attempt ever made to make Celtic Ireland a nation. . . . The edifice he had commenced fell with him. He left no successor strong enough to maintain the position he had won for himself with the sword. Nay, the very success of his career made it much more difficult for even any of the legitimate line of titular monarchs to make his rule a reality. Few pages of Irish history are more bitter reading for an Irishman than those which tell of the subsequent fortunes of the shattered battalion of the Dalcassians, the brave remnants of Brian's own tribe. No sooner had they buried their dead on the field of battle than dissensions, we are told, broke out among the leaders of Brian's army."—G. H. Orpen, *Ireland under the Normans, v.* 1, *pp.* 28-30.—"The Viking age was by no means a starless night in Ireland. . . . Though internecine feuds and battles with the Danes took up much of the chieftains' time, other things besides spears and swords were exchanged between the Irish and the invader. . . . In matters of agriculture and cattle raising the Irish were the teachers of the Norsemen, but in other purely material pursuits the civilisation of the Norse was superior to that of the Irish. Though by the middle of the seventh century, in the pre-Viking period, Ireland had made considerable progress in the art of ship construction, it was above all from the hardy sailors of the north that they learned to build and sail great ships and to organise fleets, to use iron armour, to fight on horseback and no longer from chariots or on foot, to build stone forts and bridges, and to live in fortified cities surrounded by walls. . . . Nor were the Vikings mere sea robbers; they were merchants as well. Since they controlled the seas, for a long time all trade and shipping between Limerick and other Irish ports and the west of France and Spain was in their hands. They exported Ireland's products and imported all that Ireland wanted, as wheat, wine, costly silks, and fine leather, and they helped to introduce foreign fashions into Ireland. The first Irish coins that were struck in Ireland were minted by Norse kings who held court in Dublin. . . . The Irish probably also adopted the northern system of weights and measures. How much Irish society and domestic life were influenced by Norse occupation is seen in the Irish language itself, in which there is scarcely a word meaning a large ship or its parts or markets or trade that is not borrowed from the Norse, if it is not from the Latin."—S. MacManus, *Story of the Irish race, pp.* 283-284.—See also NORMANS: 10th-13th centuries; Influence of the Vikings; PHILOLOGY: 17.

1014-1169.—From fall of the Danes to coming of Normans.—"Just as Brian had disturbed the old rule of alternate succession in Munster between the descendants of Cormac Cas and those of Eoghan Mor, so, but with still more fatal effect, he had put an end to the custom, acquiesced in for upwards of five centuries, according to which the *ard-ri* of Ireland was chosen alternately from the two great houses of the Hy Neill race, or descendants of Niall of the Nine Hostages, King of Ireland at the close of the fourth century. Henceforth the prize of the sovereignty of Ireland was open to all comers. What Brian had won by the sword an O'Brien, or an O'Conor, or a MacMurrough, might win by the same means. For the moment the deposed King Malachy was allowed to resume the crown which he had been forced to yield to Brian. . . . From the death of Malachy (1022), however, up to the year of Dermot's expulsion (1166), there never was a universally acknowledged king of Ireland. In the phrase of the annalists, there were only kings *co fressabhra*, 'with opposition.'"—G. H. Orpen, *Ireland under the Normans, v.* 1, *pp.* 35-37.—Turlough, grandson of Brian made himself strong and when he died in 1086 "he was the foremost in power and influence among the Irish kings, in ability and energy, both in peace and war, not unworthy of the grandson of Brian. Abroad also his fame was great. By Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, who corresponded with him, he is styled the magnificent King of Ireland, and he congratulates the people of Ireland that God had given them such a king. . . . [After him Donal O'Loughlin, chief of Tirowen in the north was ambitious of becoming Ardri. Against O'Loughlin was opposed Murtagh O'Brien son of Turlough who overran the northwest and reduced the northeast to submission. But the Archbishop of Armagh made peace between them.] While the greater chiefs were constantly engaged in war, so also were the minor chiefs. . . . Year after year, every clan and every sept was at war with its neighbour; from Innishowen to Desmond, from Iar Connaught to Athcliath, there was the same monotonous iteration of war and plunder; and disorder and discord were supreme. Nor were the Danes idle as might be expected. . . . At intervals, these Danes either plundered themselves, or allied themselves for purpose of plunder with some native chief. . . . If to this be added, that they occasionally sacked a monastery or church, we have exhausted the list of their achievements. . . . War was so widespread in 1145, that the *Four Masters* lament that 'Ireland was a trembling sod,' but they might have written the same of almost any other year at that time. War was everywhere. In the north, every two clans fought, and scarce a year passed that a quarrel did not arise between Tirconnell and Tirowen. Neither the memory of their common ancestors nor considerations of personal interest were able to restrain them. . . . [By this time the supremacy had shifted from Thomond to Connaught. Turlough O'Connor, king of Connaught, who died in 1156, was a great figure in those weary days, and raised his kingdom to a height it had never reached before.] His death removed the foremost figure from the theatre of Irish affairs, one who for nearly fifty years had been concerned in all the great events that had happened, and in most of which his was the controlling influence. . . . [Turlough O'Connor, than whom no king in Ireland, since Brian Boru had had such influence or power, was followed on the

throne of Connaught by Roderick O'Connor, who, on the death in battle of the last Ardri of the race of Nial, was, with rare unanimity allowed to succeed. The chiefs agreed to give him the hostages which he sought, and] at Dublin, whither he had marched, Roderick was inaugurated king, 'as honorably as any king of the Gael was ever inaugurated.' . . . He convoked at Athboy (1167), a great council of princes and ecclesiastics, where many useful regulations for the government of the entire country were made, and the members of which separated . . . 'without controversy or battle.' . . . Weary of war, it seemed at last that the energies of the people were to be directed into peaceful channels, that the reign of discord was over, and the reign of unity and peace was about to dawn."—E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v.* 1, *pp.* 125, 129-130, 133-137.

Leinster, which was burdened with the payment of the Boru tribute, seems to have felt herself more or less alien to the rest of the nation, and to have been more willing than the other tribes to ally herself to the Dane. At some time the tribute seems to have been dropped; but is said to have been reimposed by Brian Boru, and it has been suggested that the rankling feeling of wrong thereby engendered was at the bottom of Mailmorra's quarrel with Brian, which Gormflaith's taunts only excited. Be that as it may, during the time of disorder which followed Brian's death, Leinster gained rather than lost, and while no Ardri came from the family of her chieftains, she was become sufficiently powerful to hold her own against invaders. Early in the twelfth century Dermot MacMurrough became king; gave hostages to Turlough O'Connor in sign of submission to him as his over king, and received a third of Meath when that kingdom was divided by O'Connor. He sems to have been an able man, and "consolidated the strength of Leinster under his own personal rule. Yet among his own people he was not popular; he was more feared than loved; and though the prestige of success won him followers, it did not win him their affection. . . . [The consolidation of his power was evidently made partly at least at the expense of his sub chiefs, for we read that he killed two, and blinded seventeen chiefs, besides others of inferior rank. Blindness as a physical disability precluded any Irish chief from ruling, and was for an unscrupulous man an easy if sinister means of imposing his will. If this were all Diarmuid did his name would probably have sunk into oblivion. But sometime in 1152 he carried off Dervorgilla, the beautiful but elderly wife of Tighernan O'Rorke, king of Breffni, in the absence of her husband.] O'Rorke appealed to his friend, Turlogh O'Connor, who led an army into Leinster (1153), defeated MacMurrogh, and brought away Dervorgille [who retired to the convent at Mellifont]. . . . With O'Rorke the recollection of the wrong done him by MacMurrogh was ever vivid. . . . [His opportunity came when Roderick O'Connor was made Ardri] and he determined to chastise the ravisher by whom he had been so cruelly wronged. Aided by Roderick, he entered Leinster with a strong force. They were joined by MacTurkill, chief of the Dublin Danes—for they, too, hated Dermot—by the King of Ossory, and by the various Leinster chiefs, all anxious to be emancipated from his tyranny. Unable to cope with so many enemies, Dermot retired to the monastery of Ferns." —E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v.* 1, *pp.* 175, 177.—"It was, apparently, towards the close of the year 1166 that Diarmuid furtively left his dún of Ferns and sailed across the Irish Sea for the coast of Wales. He first made his way to Bristol, then the chief city of the West of England, with close associations with the people of Leinster. Thence he journeyed to seek Henry of Anjou, . . . [who was] busily engaged . . . fighting his own subjects of Aquitaine and also his liege lord, the King of France. He was so much occupied by his ambitions for Continental power that he was unable to give personal assistance to Diarmuid. But he welcomed the exile, and sympathised with his story of revolted subjects and an unjust suzerain. . . . Accordingly, he gave liberty to Diarmuid to recruit such of the Norman adventurers on the Welsh marches as might be enticed into an enterprise in Ireland. . . . Returning to Bristol, Diarmuid first secured the promise of [the services of Richard de Clare, commonly known as Strongbow]. . . . In that warrior's needy circumstances the prospect held out by Diarmuid of a marriage with the latter's daughter and the succession to his Kingdom was sufficiently alluring. Next, MacMurrough won over Robert Fitz-Stephen and Maurice Fitz-Gerald . . . [and others of the Fitzgerald family to whom] he promised the town of Wexford."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 109-110.

1169-1200.—English invasion.—Strongbow.—English Pale.—"In the month of May, 1169, the first body of the adventurers arrived under the leadership of Robert Fitz-Stephen, and others. About 2,000 strong, they landed at Bannow Bay in the extreme south of the present county of Wexford. The district was part of Ui Cinnsealaigh, [Diarmuid's territory] and the people of the open country were loyal to their chief. But on the one side lay Waterford, and on the other Wexford, and the Norse inhabitants of both towns were bitterly hostile to Diarmuid. . . . The combined forces attacked Wexford. Retreating before the mailclad knights, the inhabitants defended the walls and beat off their assailants. At length, however, they yielded on terms, and recognised Diarmuid as their lord. The town and surrounding country were granted to Fitz-Stephen and his principal associates."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, p.* 110.—"Ossory was laid waste, and Diarmuid returned to Ferns, the Irish closing up again and occupying the wasted territory. These proceedings had attracted Roderic O'Connor's attention, and he gathered the forces of Connacht and Meath, and marched against Diarmuid; but instead of crushing him while he was able, he parleyed, and finally made a treaty by which Diarmuid was to be recognized as King of Leinster, was to send the English back, and not to bring any more of them over. . . . Diarmuid [however] continued organizing. Maurice Fitzgerald and Raymond Le Gros came over with detachments, and finally Strongbow himself landed with close on 2,000 men in August 1170. The combined armies marched on Waterford, which was taken at the third assault, and no quarter given. Amidst the ruin and carnage the marriage of Strongbow and Eva was celebrated, and the spoilers marched on Dublin with an army of 5,000 English and perhaps 10,000 Irish. . . . [Dublin was taken.] Hasculf, the Danish King of Dublin, escaped by sea; Roderic, . . . turned back to Connacht for winter quarters, and the enemy were left in undisputed possession of Wexford, Waterford and Dublin—that is to say, practically in possession of the south-eastern coast. [See also DUBLIN: 12th-14th centuries.] In the meantime the English Crown came into play. Diarmuid died towards the end of 1170, and Strongbow claimed Leinster by virtue of his com-

pact and his marriage with Eva. Tidings of this reached Henry, [who had no liking for a powerful vassal] and he issued a mandate condemning Strongbow's proceedings, ordered that no English ship should carry anything to Ireland, and ordered all English subjects in that country to return to England by next Easter. . . . [In the meantime Roderick, with an army estimated at 30,000, invested Dublin, while his allies, the Manxmen, invested it from the sea. Strongbow, it is said, offered to pay homage to O'Connor, who refused the offer. In desperation, the Normans then made a sally, and] routed the whole army, Roderic himself barely escaping with his life. Strongbow now, feeling himself unable to hold Leinster without English help, went to England to Henry and laid his conquests at his feet, declaring that he acted only in his name, and would deliver over Leinster to him. This was precisely what Henry wanted, so Strongbow was 'graciously pardoned,' and his English estates were restored to him. Henry himself equipped an army and landed in Waterford in October 1171, with about 5,000 men, and the occurrences during this visit are somewhat uncertain. English writers maintain that he received the submission of all the Irish chiefs, including Roderic O'Connor himself. *The Annals of the Four Masters,* on the other hand, simply record that he came and went, and do not record any submissions; though the *Annals of Ulster and Loch Ce,* in entries which agree almost word for word, say that he 'received the hostages' of Munster and Leinster and Meath."—P. S. O'Hegarty, *Indestructible nation, pp.* 7-9.

Also in: W. O'C. Morris, *Ireland, pp.* 28-57.

Henry II "asserted his authority as 'Lord of Ireland,' in a series of acts of harshness and clemency; but, true to his mission as a Son of the Church, he sought to enlist her great spiritual power on his side. At a general synod, held at Cashel, under the sanction of the Pope, and attended by several English Bishops, it was solemnly proclaimed that 'Ireland had received a Lord and King at the hand of Providence.' . . . Meanwhile Henry had taken care to secure the submission of the late invaders, by granting them the territories they had seized, to be held as ordinary fiefs of the Crown; and the chain of feudalism was thrown over the whole country, by the assertion of his title as its superior lord, illusory as the pretence was. The magnificence and the power of the great Angevin king seem to have fascinated most of the Irish chiefs; they were entertained by him in royal state in Dublin; they made homage, and offered tribute, in return for his politic arts and courtesies; and though Roderick held aloof for a time, he soon consented to become a vassal king of Connaught. The supremacy of England, at least in name, over all Ireland, was thus affirmed; and, at the same time, Henry made an attempt to give it reality within the tracts of Leinster, which had been, in a certain measure, subdued. Parts of this region were made shireland, and were placed under the system of administration and law, which had grown up in England since the Norman Conquest. A governor was appointed with vice-regal functions; something like a great Council was established; Courts of Anglo-Norman law were created; and the 'men of Bristol' were given a charter for Dublin. The genius of Henry had traced the lines of conquest; it had not completed a single part of the edifice. No train of colonists followed his army to people the districts it had overrun; that army, besides, was much too weak to attempt to keep hold on the whole country. The king, too, had been forced to temporise with Strongbow and his companions in arms; he made them, indeed, his vassals in name; but he did not curtail their overgrown power. . . . The authority of the Crown was feeble even in the Anglo-Norman region, known afterwards as the English Pale; and in the Celtic region beyond it was almost a nullity, for the submissions and tributes of the Irish chiefs, even if continued, made it, in no sense, sovereign. . . . 'He departed from Ireland,' said an acute historian, 'without striking one blow, or building one castle, or planting one garrison among the Irish; neither left he behind him one true subject more than those he found there at his coming over, which were only the English adventurers spoken of before, who had gained the port towns in Leinster and Munster, and possessed some scopes of land thereunto adjoining, partly by Strongbow's alliance with the Lord of Leinster, and partly by plain invasion and conquest.' "—W. O'C. Morris, *Ireland, pp.* 29-31.—It was not long before Strongbow and the Ardri were at war, and the long story of attack and reprisal began. Moreover the Irish chieftains had already commenced the short-sighted policy of seeking aid against each other from the Anglo-Normans. Thus in 1175, according to the Annals of Tigernach, on the invitation of Roderick O'Connor the Ardri, Raymond le Gros assisted by the Connaughtmen, laid waste Thomond. "The hereditary feud between the O'Conors [or O'Connors] and the O'Briens was repeatedly breaking out, and contributed in no small degree to the ultimate loss of both kingdoms. . . . [Just about this time Roderick O'Connor made a treaty of peace with Henry, by which Roderick became Henry's liege man as king of Connaught and overlord of Ireland.] The treaty was, however, subject to this proviso, that Rory was not to interfere with the lands which the king retained in his dominion and in the dominion of his barons, namely Dublin, Meath, 'as fully as Murrough O'Melaghlin held it,' Wexford with the whole of Leinster, and Waterford with all the land between it and Dungarvan. . . . [This treaty, known as the Treaty of Windsor, though not workable, is important as showing the lands at this time actually under English rule. In 1176 Strongbow died, and as far as we can judge his death was a misfortune.] Moreover, to judge by the earl's success in winning over most of the chieftains of Leinster to acquiesce in the Norman settlement, which he did . . . more by persuasion and reasonable treatment than by the sword, he was the man best fitted to carry on the work of pacification. This, it is scarcely needful to say, was not the opinion of the native annalists. . . . But the native annalists not unnaturally fathered on Strongbow the evils which they deemed to have arisen from the English intervention in general. To him personally they do not ascribe any act of treachery or bad faith, or even of unusual severity."—G. H. Orpen, *Ireland under the Normans, v.* 1, *pp.* 347-348, 350, 358, 359.—The years which followed Strongbow's death tell a tale of constant fighting. Between 1177 and 1185 Uladh, the eastern part of Ulster, and part of Oriel, to the south and west of it, were taken by John de Courcy to whom Henry is said to have given jesting permission to go and take what he could. Henry's jests it may be noted were rather grim. In 1177 Henry's son John, a child of ten, was created "Lord of Ireland." Hugh de Lacy was given Meath, for the service of a hundred knights; Fitz Stephen and de Cogan received Cork for the service of sixty knights, and Philip

de Braose was granted Limerick (Thomond of the Delcassians) for the service of sixty knights. It might be supposed that the Irish chieftains would have united in defense of their lands and people against the invaders. But, it must be remembered that Ireland was then no more united in one nation than the City Republics of Italy composed one people, or than the petty princelets of Germany were united in brotherly love throughout the Thirty Years' War. It was palpably true that no combination strong enough to drive out the invaders could be made in the existing state of Ireland, once Leinster and the coast towns had been occupied. This being the case it would have been well for the country if some one of the nobles had been permitted to set up a strong government. But Henry was himself too unruly a vassal to the king of France to permit a vassal of his own to become strong enough to rule. Moreover, his own defiance in France made him suspicious, and only too ready to listen to enemies of the men whom he sent to govern in his name. In 1184 Hugh de Lacy, lord of Meath, who had married a daughter of Roderick O'Connor, was removed from office a second time, and the king's son John was sent over in the hope that he could induce the chieftains to submit. But John failed in every way. His arrogance and petulance insulted and alarmed the chiefs who went to meet him, and they departed bursting with indignation to inform the other chiefs of the treatment they had received. His levity and the robbery and pillage indulged in by his followers almost succeeded in doing what other injuries had not achieved and uniting the disunited chieftains. Cork and Thomond formed a league against him. The older colonists held aloof and before his recall the English power was all but destroyed. In 1189 Henry died, and the same year Roderick O'Connor breathed his last in the Monastery at Cong where he had been driven years before by his sons. He had lived to mourn his lack of energy and initiative in dealing with McDermott and his allies. The next years are marked by constant fighting among the chiefs with the Anglo-Normans now on one side, now on the other. The English, who were never strong enough to conquer the whole country had apparently from the first adopted the policy of seizing lands and building strongholds within the territories assigned to them. In these same territories independent Irish chieftains, held rule over their own people, and lived by their own law.—Based on G. H. Orpen, *Ireland under the Normans, pp.* 109-110.—See also ULSTER: 1171-1186.

ALSO IN: Mrs. J. R. Green, *Henry the Second, ch.* 8.—A. G. Richey, *Short history of the Irish people, ch.* 6-7.—W. A. O'Conor, *History of the Irish people, bk.* 2, *ch.* 1-2.—T. Moore, *History of Ireland, ch.* 26-29.—F. P. Barnard, ed., *Strongbow's conquest of Ireland: From contemporary writers.*

1199-1260.—Continued resistance of Ulster to Normans.—Invasion of Tyrconnell by Brian O'Neill.—Defeat of Ulster chiefs at Downpatrick. See ULSTER: 1199-1260.

1269.—Social system at coming of Normans.—"There were nearly two hundred tuaths or territories, in Ireland, each occupied by a tribe, under its chief who was oftentimes designated king of a tuath. The subdivisions of a tuath were ballybetaighs, of which there were usually thirty to each tuath. The ballybetaigh was again subdivided into twelve seasreachs, each of one ploughland or about one hundred and twenty acres. The ballybetaigh was supposed to be of extent to supply grazing for four herds of seventy-five cows each, 'without one cow touching another.' In general, the whole of the lands of the territory belonged to all the tribe. But there was a limited circle, including the king, the nobles, and a few of the leading professional men, each of whom had private rights in a certain portion of the land—the right to use those lands for the benefit of himself and family, but not to transfer them to any person outside the tribe. The foregoing refers only to special portions of the tribal land. The greater part of the tribal land was free for the use of all the people of the tribe. These privileged ones who had exclusive rights to the use of certain lands, usually rented large portion in parcels to the céiles (tenants)—who formed the féine, or general body of the people. The privileged person usually also rented to the céile cattle for stocking the land. The céile who owned his own stock, or who had to borrow but little, was of much higher standing than the céile who had to borrow or rent all his stock. The former was called a free céile, and the latter an unfree because he was bound to those above him by so many obligations. The stock borrowed from a noble (or from a certain class between the noble and the céile called bo-aire, who had stock to rent) was returned, it or its equivalent, at the end of seven years. Below the céiles—the féine, or general body of the people of the tribe—were two classes usually rated as non-free. One of them was the bothach and soncleithe, who were labourers, horseboys, herdsmen, and hangers-on, supported by particular families to which they were attached, and who were considered members of the tribe, but had neither property rights nor any voice in the tribal council. The other, the fuidir, were strangers, fugitives, war captives, condemned criminals or people who had to give up their freedom in order to work out a debt or fine that they could not pay. These latter, were not of the tribe, only belonged to it, and were serfs, pure and simple. Only, they had the right of renting a little land and gradually acquiring property—till, in the course of a certain number of years, having accumulated some substance, and having proved to the tribe that they were people of character, they could, by the general voice of the tribe, be received into the fold, and become of the féine. Of course the bothach and sencleithe were privileged to raise themselves even more easily than the fuidir. The very humblest might, by inherent worth, work his way up to be eventually among the noblest. So, the class system in Ireland was not a caste system. It was only the fuidir, the mere flotsam and jetsam of the nation, who were in the state of semi-servitude. The feudal system, the system of the lord and the serf, which was the rule throughout almost all the countries of Europe then, was never known in Ireland—at least not until the English, after they had established footing there, endeavoured to introduce from their own country a form of it. The system in Ireland was something more like the patriarchal system of the east. The tribe resolved itself into family groups called derb-fine centering around one leading family from whom the chief was always chosen. The law of inheritance in ancient Ireland was not that of primogeniture, but of gavel-kind—that is, instead of the eldest son inheriting all the father's property, it was divided, cattle and land, among all the sons. But the eldest son got, with his share, the house and offices and household effects. Special responsibilities fell to him as guardian of his sisters, and of his brothers under age, and as the representative of the family in all cases of stress

or need. The laws protected every one, including the base fuidir. They were especially framed to protect the weak against the strong. 'No person,' says the law, 'shall be oppressed in his difficulty.' And the law forbade the rent-payer to give service or rent to one who would exact unjustly. The greedy oppressor had to repent and pay a fine before his céile should resume giving him either rent or service. The céile contributed to the head of the tribe a certain amount of labour, a portion of the household needs, and a certain number of days' military service, which was demanded when the need arose. But the chief, or king of the territory—as well as the provincial king and the Ard-Righ—kept about him a number of paid permanent troops—his household troops composed of his own people, and a small standing army usually composed of mercenaries. And the strongest, most powerful man was chosen as the king's airechta, champion or avenger. The king of the tuath paid tribute to the provincial king, who in turn paid tribute to the Ard-Righ. And on the other hand, each of the higher kings paid back to his tributary a small courtesy tribute called tuarastal. The Book of Rights specifies in full, and curious detail, the cis, or amounts of the tribute in cattle, in cloaks, in swords, etc., due from each inferior king to his superior—and likewise the tuarastal from the superior to his inferior. The headship (whether chief or king) was hereditary only to the extent that the ruler was always chosen by the people, from within one family. From the righ-damna (king material) that is, the royal uncles, brothers, sons, nephews, grand-sons and grand-nephews, the people chose whatever male member of the family would make the wisest, bravest, and best ruler. In later centuries, in order to avoid the evils of disputed succession, the king's successor was always chosen during the king's lifetime—and this king-elect was called tanaiste. He had to be without physical blemish or deformity. When elected he had to swear to observe the law, and to govern in accordance with the law and the ancient customs. At the inauguration the ollam, in presence of the people, read to him the laws that he must swear to observe, and the ancient customs that he must swear to maintain. And for non-observance of these, he was liable to be, at any time, deposed."—S. MacManus, *Story of the Irish race, pp.* 293-295.

12th-14th centuries.—Under Anglo-Norman conquerors.—Jealousy of chiefs.—Lack of unity among nobles.—System of government.—Misery of warfare.—Extent of conquest.—State of the church.—Brehon laws.—Attempts to extend English judicial system.—Feudal system.—Influence of towns.—Anglo-Normans Celticized.—Gallowglasses.—In 1210 John went over to Ireland to seek to make a settlement. "Cathal Crovderg of Connaught and O'Brien of Thomond had tendered him their submission and offered their services if required; their aid was accepted against the De Lacys; and the unusual spectacle was presented of two Irish princes marching with an English king to suppress the revolt of two powerful English lords. . . . The submission of the Irish chiefs left John no enemy to conquer except O'Neill and the northern princes and he made no attempt to conquer them, the flight of De Lacy and De Braose left him no rebels to chastise; and, freed from the necessity of making war, he turned his attention to works of peace, and took measures to establish English institutions in those parts of Ireland, which had been subdued by English arms. Almost all Leinster and Munster and the greater part of Meath, John believed could safely be brought within the Pale of English law, and this wide extent of territory he divided into twelve counties, Louth, Dublin, Kildare, Meath, Carlow, Kilkenny, Wexford, Waterford, Cork Kerry, Limerick and Tipperary. In these counties he decreed that English laws and customs should prevail. . . . In the counties recently formed, courts were set up, judges appointed and sheriffs and the other officers necessary to carry out the Court's decrees. Over all was the Viceroy, sometimes called justiciary, sometimes Lord Deputy, sometimes Lord Lieutenant and with him, as a Council, but subordinate to him, were the Lord Chancellor and the Lord Treasurer. The Lord Chancellor had the custody of the great seal and in power and dignity was first and greatest of the judges. The Lord Treasurer was at the head of the Court of Exchequer, and had charge of the King's revenues, and fines and debts accruing to the King passed through his hands. . . . [King John] may be getting credit from historians for having done more in Ireland than he actually did, but at least this can be said that his conduct in Ireland, during his last visit, favourably contrasts with his record on the other side of St. George's Channel. . . . [Other historians claim that John did not and could not have created twelve counties, and that the introduction of English law within the conquered territory was a slow process, which covered many years.] After John's departure, the country continued to be in a sadly disordered state. Chief fought against Chief and within the clans there was internecine warfare, in which the barons were ever ready to take part, and advance their own interests. Such a war was waged in 1224 after the death of Crovderg of Connaught, the successor of Roderick. Turlogh O'Connor, the son of Roderick, made himself king with the aid of O'Neill of Tirowen who helped him to oust Hugh, the son of Crovderg. Hugh O'Connor asked and obtained assistance from De Marisco, the viceroy, who with his own forces and those of O'Mellaghin of Meath, crossed the Shannon. Turlogh O'Connor got the assistance of Thomond, and between the two armies Connaught was devastated. Hugh O'Connor however was made king and after this period of slaughter and desolation peace was restored. The English in their march through Roscommon and Mayo had plundered everything, and left ruin and misery in their track; the steps of Donogh O'Brien, in Galway, on his march from Thomond, were similarly marked, and there was hardly a church or territory in Connaught that had not been plundered and laid waste. . . . Without corn or cattle, the people were in the last extremity of distress and large numbers perished of hunger; in the wake of famine, the horrid spectre of famine fever appeared, and Connaught seemed as a land accursed, a land of mourning and lamentation and woe. It was about this date that Richard de Burgho assumed the title of Lord of Connaught. . . . The English had already acquired settlements in Connaught, they had built strong castles on Lough Corrib, they were thus enabled to exercise an influence on its local affairs, and, best of all, the King of Connaught was their creature; it was they who placed him on the throne and, as they had put him up, they could as easily pull him down."—E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v.* 1, *pp.* 236-240, 245.—"For twenty-five years—1224-1249—confusion ruled in Connacht, and the De Burghs, the Geraldines and other Normans again took part in the fighting, and

extended their own power. But the rivalries and quarrels amongst the Normans themselves prevented any serious conquest."—M. T. Hayden, and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, p.* 130.—"Compared with Connaught, alternately desolated by English noble and Irish chief, and in which the tumult of war was seldom hushed, the state of Munster, during these years, was one of peace. Yet there were many elements of discord and turmoil within its bounds. . . . Early in the thirteenth century the Fitzgeralds had gained a strong foothold in Desmond, and the position of De Burgho at Limerick was near and his forces strong. The ancient jealousy between the O'Briens of Thomond and the MacCarthys of Desmond still survived and the strength of each of these families was often dissipated by faction and discord and petty ambition; and to carry their point these princes, like the O'Connors of Connaught, were always ready to call the English to their aid. . . . [Tirconnell and Tirowen in the northwest was fairly tranquil during the life of Hugh O'Neill of Tirowen, a strong and masterful man. But in 1230, after the death of Hugh, his successor in conjunction with the English wasted Tirconnell, and in reprisal had his own province overrun.] Had the various English chiefs—De Burgho, FitzGerald and the rest—united under a single leader, with their superior forces and superior arms, they would quickly have overborne the Irish, and the native chiefs, lacking unity and cohesion and fighting only for themselves, would have fallen one by one. . . . Successive English Kings had paid but little attention to Irish concerns, had never effectually conquered it, and had left their Viceroys at Dublin insufficiently supported, while a number of powerful barons, impatient of control, despising the feeble authority of the central government, had gradually and imperceptibly risen to the position of independent rulers. Intent on the acquisition of wealth and lands, they made peace and war as they pleased; if they united it was not for the English King's interests but for their own; even their own countrymen they did not spare. . . . The translator of the Annals of Clonmacnoise does not exaggerate, when he says 'that there reigned more dissensions, strifes, wars and debates between the Englishmen themselves than between the Irishmen.' The dissensions among the Irish were the cause of most of their miseries: the dissensions among the Anglo-Irish were the cause why the conquest of Ireland was indefinitely delayed, and the agony of the country indefinitely prolonged."—E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v.* 1, *pp.* 250, 253, 260.—Most historians seek to place all the blame upon one side or the other but the truth seems to lie just where this writer has laid his finger. Each side was too strong to let the other prevail; too weak, and its force too greatly dissipated by jealousies to hope to prevail itself. By the end of the thirteenth century, the authority of the provincial kings had been weakened in the struggle. "The traditional influence of their families, however, remained, and their leadership was recognised. The heads of the opposition in every district were the representatives of the dynasties which for so many centuries had ruled the various Kingdoms. . . . With a base that stretched from Dublin to Dundalk a great Norman triangle reached to Trim and was continued to Athlone. . . . On the north it was connected, through dangerous passes which were bordered by Irish clans, with the remote settlement around Strangford Lough and Belfast Lough. On the south lay the plains and coast of Leinster, which united by double bonds Dublin and Waterford. From the occupied district around Waterford Norman lines lay along the valleys of the south-eastern rivers and reached, with difficulty, to Limerick. Below Limerick the Geraldines lay from Croom to Tralee. . . . Norman wedges were thus driven through the island, splitting up every district into sections. In these sections—which generally consisted of difficult or naturally protected country—the Irish remained independent. In most cases the lands they retained were part of their original possessions, and in their diminished territories the clans still grouped themselves under the recognised leadership of the titular Kings of the ancient but now shattered Kingdoms. . . . But these leaders, and the adjoining clans who followed them, were encompassed by lines of Norman castles and cut off from many of the clans who had previously acknowledged their rule. . . . In this compulsory new grouping of the clans there were two groups which call for special attention. The first was in the north, over which the supremacy of the O'Neills had greatly extended by their over-lordship. . . . The second was the remarkable grouping of clans of different Kingdoms which took place in the midlands, where they formed an 'island' of Irish independence, which for centuries continued to be a most important factor in Irish affairs. . . . An extraordinary state of affairs is shown by the chequered design. In one small island lie two races of different language and different culture, two systems of government, two systems of law, two social systems, side by side, interspersed, dovetailed. The Norman lord in his castle rules his retainers by feudal law; the Gaelic chief leads his clan and administers it by Brehon law. [See BREHON LAWS.] Each surrounds and is surrounded by the other. Each despises the other until experience modifies the views of both. There is no authority over the chief except the free spirit of the clan and the influence of brehon or bard; little authority over the lord beyond the occasional power of the King's deputy and the more infrequent visit of the King's sheriff. . . . Two attempts, indeed, were made by the Crown to curb the power of the Norman nobles in Ireland. The first was on the occasion of the second visit to Ireland of John. . . . The second attempt was when Sir John Wogan, Lord Deputy, summoned the first representative Parliament of the Normans in Ireland which passed a law prohibiting (amongst other matters) private wars (1295). But immediately afterwards De Burgh and Fitz-Gerald were again fighting one another! . . . The hostility between the two races entered even into the Church. From the first there had been friction between the Irish and Norman clergy. . . . After the death of St. Laurence [O'Toole] the Archbishops of Dublin were all nominees of the King of England, and were for the most part courtiers and politicians rather than ecclesiastics. Wherever Norman power extended, the bishops were also generally the nominees of the King. The Pope, however, who, during this time was struggling against the claims of temporal sovereigns to 'invest' bishops, frequently supported the Irish clergy in their election of Irish bishops to their dioceses. . . . A similar state of affairs prevailed in the monasteries both of the old orders and of the new orders of 'friars'—Franciscans, Dominicans, Carmelites—which were introduced at this time. In the religious houses in Norman lands no Irishman was allowed to enter, while in those in Irish lands no Norman

was admitted. The building of great abbeys, which had begun before the Invasion, was continued by the Irish chiefs. The Normans, too, who were great builders of abbeys as well as castles, erected many abbeys in the districts which they had been able to occupy."—M. T. Hayden, and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 134, 145-147.

"Henry, had he not been called away by the storm following the death of Becket, might have left things in better shape, but nothing could make up for the permanent absence of the king. Two antagonistic systems henceforth confronted each other. On one side was the feudal system, with its hierarchy of land-owners, from lord-paramount to tenant-paravail; its individual ownership of land; its hereditary succession and primogeniture; its feudal perquisites, relief, wardship, and marriage; its tribute of military service; the loyalty to the grantor of the fief which was its pervading and sustaining spirit; its knighthood and its chivalry; its Great Council of barons and baronial bishops; its feudal courts of justice and officers of state; all however highly rude and imperfect. On the other side was tribalism, with its tie of original kinship instead of territorial subordination; its tanistry; its Brehon law. But the feudal system in Ireland lacked the keystone of its arch. It was destitute of its regulating and controlling power, the king. A royal justiciar could not fill the part. From the outset the bane of the principality was delegated rule. Ireland was a separate realm, though attached to the Crown of England. It had a Parliament of its own, which followed that of England in its development, being at first a unicameral council of magnates, lay and clerical; but after the legislation of Edward I. a bicameral assembly with a Lower House formed of representatives of counties and boroughs, whose consent would be formally necessary to taxation. . . . Weak, however, was the Parliament of the colony compared with that of the imperial country. If the Lords ever showed force, the making of a House of Commons was not there. The representation, as well as the proceedings and the records, appears to have been very irregular. Nothing worthy of the name of Parliamentary government seems ever to have prevailed. Among those who signed the Great Charter was the Archbishop of Dublin; but of chartered rights Ireland was not the scene. There is no appearance of a separate grant of subsidies by the clerical estate. The clergy, it seems, were represented by their proctors in the Lower House, as by the bishops and abbots in the Upper House. The Parliament appears to have been generally a tool in the hands of the deputy. The irregularity of its composition seems to have extended to its meetings. From the first the relation between the feudal realm and that of the tribes was border war. They were alien to each other in race, language, and social habits, as well as in political institutions. The Norman could not subdue the Celt, the Celt could not oust the Norman. The conquest of England by William of Normandy had been complete, and had given birth to a national aristocracy, which in time blended with the conquered race and united with it in extorting the Great Charter. The Norman colony in Ireland was left to its feeble resources, and to a divided command, while the monarchy was far away over sea, was squandering its forces in French fields, and could not even project a complete conquest. . . . Anglo-Norman and Celt, feudalist and tribesman, alike were Catholics. A common religion might have been a bond, a common clergy might have been a mediating power. But race and language prevailed over religion. The Churches, though outwardly of the same faith, remained inwardly separate, and not only separate but hostile to each other."—G. Smith, *Irish history and the Irish question, pp.* 13-17.

"Henry III died on November 16, 1272. During his long reign of fifty-six years the area of Anglo-Norman rule in Ireland had been greatly extended. The earldom of Ulster had been strengthened, and the earl's influence began to assert itself over the northern kings. The conquest of Connaught had been finally effected, and the sway of her native kings was restricted to a broad belt about the upper reaches of the Shannon. A beginning was made of the occupation of a portion of Thomond. The barons of County Limerick had established a strong colony in Kerry, and with those of County Cork had erected castles on advantageous sites beside the natural harbours of the south and south-west coasts, and in some inland places. The barons of Ireland were seldom interfered with by the government. They were in general loyal to the Crown . . . and the king had no conflict with them comparable to that which arose with the barons of England during his reign. With the exception of the long-drawn-out contest in Connaught, there was no serious conflict between the Crown and the native kings up to the year 1260, and in spite of local disturbances the wealth and trade and general prosperity of Ireland had greatly increased. In the latter part of Henry's reign, however, while England was distracted by the struggle between the Crown and the baronage, disaffection among the native princes came to a head in the north, south, and west of Ireland. In the north there was the futile attempt of Brian O'Neill to revive the high-kingship of Erin. In the south there was the more effective movement of Fineen McCarthy to resist the encroachments of the Munster barons into Desmond. In Thomond [north Munster] the O'Briens were beginning to be restive, while in Connaught nothing could restrain the turbulence of Aedh O'Conor . . . In spite of . . . capricious changes the barons of Ireland had no reason to complain of Henry's justiciars. They were men who spent most if not all of their lives in Ireland, who held lands there and had the interests of the colony at heart, and who, if they took little thought of the interests of the native Irish population, at least understood them and their ways as no official fresh from England could do. . . . What little legislation there was for Ireland in Henry's reign, as in the reigns of his predecessors, took in general the form of writs and ordinances addressed by virtue of the royal prerogative to the justiciar or other executive officers or to his subjects in Ireland generally. In a few cases enactments made by the king and council in England were by the king's authority transcribed and transmitted for observance in Ireland. Thus the Great Charter, as reissued in England under date November 12, 1216, was extended to Ireland with some slight variations to suit the case of that country. . . . The command in general terms that English laws and customs were to be observed in Ireland was more than once repeated in Henry's reign, and in 1236 the constitutions of Merton were transmitted and ordered to be observed in Ireland. Other ordinances were concerned either with procedure, or with declarations of the substantive law on special points on which doubts had arisen in the Irish courts."—G. H. Orpen, *Ireland under the Normans, v.* 3, *pp.* 291-292, 296, 298-300.

"If we consider the map of Ireland in the reign

of Edward I, we find that about three-fourths of the country were actually dominated by Anglo-Norman lords. In these districts nearly all the best land . . . was parcelled out among their vassals, and here the feudal organization and feudal land-system prevailed . . . [but] most manors throughout the country included among the tenants numerous Irish betaghs . . . and other unfree classes. As in England the Norman landholders formed a ruling aristocracy, . . . [but] Celtic freeholders in feudalized Ireland were more rare than Saxon freeholders in England. In the remaining fourth the Irish clans continued to be virtually autonomous. In their territories the families of their chieftains, and those of their urrighs, or subordinate chieftains, formed the aristocracy, . . . and English judges, sheriffs, and other officers of the Crown never made their appearance. . . . case of serfs, they became by custom free. Where the towns received a charter, the burgesses usually elected their own mayors or provosts and other officers, held their own courts, established trade-guilds, and while paying their burgagerents and certain small dues to the lord, were practically exempt from feudal burdens and feudal control. Others might more properly be described as thriving manorial villages possessing franchises of varying degrees of importance. These towns and manorial villages were very numerous. . . . Most of these towns were indeed diminutive in size, but in their small way they formed centres of industry and trade, and of free orderly municipal life, even, in many cases, when the surrounding country had become subject to a disorderly form of feudalism. . . . *Pari passu* with the growth of towns proceeded the growth of

© E. M. Newman

MUCKROSS ABBEY, COUNTY KERRY, IRELAND
Founded by Franciscans, 15th Century.

But after all deductions and explanations have been made, the fact remains that Anglo-Norman rule in Ireland throughout the thirteenth century, and especially towards its close, was a very real thing. . . . It was not, of course, absolute over all the country. It extended only in a modified form to the districts which remained under Irish rule. Here the old contests between rival factions over the succession to the local chieftainships broke out from time to time, and the settlers by favouring one or other of the claimants, with a view to increasing their own influence, not infrequently added to the turmoil. The subjugation of Connaught involved a decade of intermittent warfare in that province, and there were attempts at domination not permanently successful in other territories. . . . The towns were inhabited largely by men of English rather than of Norman blood, and the names of the burgesses very often denoted a trade. Irishmen too were occasionally made burgesses, and then, as in England in the trade, inland and foreign. To the Normans, indeed, was due the introduction into general use of coined money, without which trade cannot advance very far. . . . A good index of the export trade of Ireland and of the relative importance of the principal ports is given by the receipts of 'the great new custom' granted by the magnates to the king in 1257. . . . Henceforth throughout Edward's reign this was an important source of revenue. In the first five years the foreign merchants, who were collectors of the custom, appear to have received from it upwards of £7,522. . . . Sawn timber was sent to England for building purposes, and to make ships and oars, and bretachiae or wooden towers were sent to Wales and Gascony for military objects. . . . Ireland in the latter half of the thirteenth century and the beginning of the fourteenth exported large quantities of grain. . . . There are . . . examples of the private export of grain to England, Scotland, and France. But the principal cases of the ex-

port of grain and other victuals that come under notice were to supply the king's armies in Gascony, Wales and Scotland. . . . In the course of the thirteenth century a certain amount of amalgamation of a wholesome kind went on. We hear of more intermarriage in high quarters. . . . It seems probable that in the feudalized districts any Irishman of proved loyalty could obtain license to use English laws, if he wished it. Moreover, many of the lesser chieftains, while retaining their own laws and customs, preserved in general friendly relations with their new overlords in all parts of Ireland. Thus in Connaught O'Heyne, O'Shaughnessy, O'Flaherty, O'Madden, and O'Kelly were usually loyal to the de Burghs. There was no general combination against the English of Connaught until the time of the invasion of Edward Bruce, when the confederates suffered a severe defeat at the battle of Athenry."—G. H. Orpen, *Ireland under the Normans, v. 4, pp. 259, 261-262, 271-273, 276-279, 301-302.*—"The Irish who had been conquered in the field revenged their defeat on the minds and hearts of their conquerors; and in yielding, yielded only to fling over their new masters the subtle spell of the Celtic disposition. [The De Burghs became Bourkes or Burkes, the M'Sweenies had been Veres in England, and the Munster Geraldines merged their family name in that of Desmond.] . . . Statute was passed after statute forbidding the 'Englishry' of Ireland to use the Irish language, or intermarry with Irish families, or copy Irish habits. . . . But all in vain. . . . From the century which succeeded the Conquest till the reign of the eighth Henry, the strange phenomenon repeated itself, generation after generation, baffling the wisdom of statesmen, and paralysing every effort at a remedy."—J. A. Froude, *History of England, v. 2, ch. 8.*—But if the Anglo-Normans became Celticized, on the other hand, the Irish were becoming feudalized. "A great deal of this change in the fortunes of the Irish was due to the impotence of the Crown of England, and to the feuds and weakness of the Irish Normans. . . . But it was chiefly due to a change in the military methods and organisation of the clans themselves. They still despised the use of armour. . . . But they were improving in the building of castles and in military tactics. Most important, however, was the introduction of permanent military forces into the clans. Hitherto . . . the Irish clans were not organised on a military basis as were the Normans. The fighting men were called from their occupations when their services were needed, and to these they returned when the immediate fighting was over. Now, however, the continued warfare made it necessary to have permanent troops devoted especially to warfare and always ready for it. Most of these were recruited from the Gaelicised Norse of Argyll and the Scottish islands. These, known as 'gall-óglaigh,' or 'gallowglasses,' had been employed by many of the northern and western chiefs in the preceding period, but from this time forward they were an established feature in every clan. Under their own officers, who were called 'constables,' they were ready to serve any chief who employed them, but frequently bodies of them settled down as the permanent followers of one special family. In addition to this 'standing army' of gall-óglaigh, Irish troops were also permanently employed, and were supported by a subsidy called 'buanacht' or 'bonnaght.' . . . This adoption of a 'standing army' naturally increased the personal power of the chiefs at the expense of the clan, as the continued warfare against the Norse had done in an earlier period. Nor was this the only way in which feudal ideas were having an influence upon the Irish organisations. The great practical advantage of an established system of succession was being forcibly illustrated, and the feudal right of the son to succeed to the father was being partly recognised. Many of the disputes which occurred in the families from which the chiefs were selected were due to the conflict of the two ideas. The chiefs were becoming territorial lords with the right of handing down their authority to their own families. The dues, or tributes, payable from the earliest times by the minor clans to the superior chiefs . . . were also materially altered. The Normans were becoming 'Irishised,' . . . but the clans, on their part, were becoming, to some extent, feudalised."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp. 158-159.*

1314-1318.—Scottish invasion.—"Very serious trouble indeed came in the reign of the second Edward. The battle of Bannockburn—the greatest disaster which ever befell the English during their Scotch wars [see SCOTLAND: 1306-1314] had almost as marked an effect on Ireland as on Scotland. All the elements of disaffection at once began to boil and bubble. The O'Neills—ever ready for a fray, and the nearest in point of distance to Scotland—promptly made overtures to the Bruces, and Edward Bruce, the victorious king's brother, was despatched at the head of a large army, and landing in 1315 near Carrickfergus was at once joined by the O'Neills, and war proclaimed. The first to confront these new allies was Richard de Burgh, the 'Red Earl' of Ulster, who was twice defeated by them and driven back on Dublin. The viceroy, Sir Edmund Butler, was the next encountered, and he also was defeated at a battle near Ardscul, whereupon the whole country rose like one man. Fedlim O'Connor, the young king of Connaught, the hereditary chieftain of Thomand, and a host of smaller chieftains of Connaught, Munster, and Meath, flew to arms. Even the De Lacys and several of the other Norman colonists threw in their lot with the invaders. Edward Bruce gained another victory at Kells, and having wasted the country round about, destroying the property of the colonists and slaughtering all whom he could find, he returned to Carrickfergus, where he was met by his brother, King Robert, and together they crossed Ireland, descending as far south as Cashel, and burning, pillaging, and destroying wherever they went. In 1316 the younger Bruce was crowned king at Dundalk. Such was the panic they created, and so utterly disunited were the colonists, that for a time they carried all before them. It is plain that Edward Bruce . . . fully hoped to have cut out a kingdom for himself with his sword, as others of his blood had hoped and intended before him. His own excesses, however, went far to prevent that. So frightfully did he devastate the country, and so horrible was the famine which he created, that many even of his own army perished from it or from the pestilence which followed. His Irish allies fell away. . . . The colonists began to recover from their dismay. Ormonds, Kildares, and Desmonds bestirred themselves to collect troops. The O'Connors, who with all their tribe had risen in arms, had been utterly defeated at Athenry, where the young king Fedlim and no less than 10,000 of his followers are said to have been left dead. Roger Mortimer, the new viceroy, was re-organizing the government in Dublin. The clergy, stimulated by a Papal mandate, had all now turned against the invader. Robert Bruce had some time previously been recalled to Scot-

land, and Sir John de Bermingham, the victor of Athenry, pushing northward at the head of 15,000 chosen troops, met the younger Bruce at Dundalk. The combat was hot, short, and decisive. The Scots were defeated, Edward Bruce himself killed, and his head struck off and sent to London. The rest hastened back to Scotland with as little delay as possible. The Scotch invasion was over." —E. Lawless, *Story of Ireland, pp.* 108-110.

Also in: M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, p.* 155.

1327-1367.—Under Edward III.—Laws against absentees.—Statutes of Kilkenny.—Policies of Edward.—Decline of English power.—The Scotch wars of the Edwards had an important influence on Irish history, for from the date of the invasion by the Bruces, the power of the English Crown began to wane, and the extent of the English colony to dwindle. "Confederacies led by O'Neill in the North, MacCarthy in the South-West, MacMurrough in the South-East, won victory after victory. . . . In 1341, in the Parliament of Kilkenny, it was stated that one-third of the island had been recovered by the Irish. In addition there were numerous feuds of the Anglo-Irish, soon to bear fatal fruit. . . . In 1331 the King issued in the Parliament of Westminster a scheme of reform for Ireland called *de articulis in Hibernia observandis*. By these Edward, among many other reforms, decided that the same law was to apply to the Irish as well as to the English, excepting the betaghs or Irish serfs. . . . Thus, apparently, a royal fiat from England enfranchised all the Irish, but the language was brief and vague, it was not ratified in the Irish Parliament, and unfortunately seems to have had little effect. With this was coupled another striking decree—an act of Resumption . . . by which all Irish grants made by Mortimer and the Queen mother were resumed by the Crown. . . . An ordinance also dealt with the absentees: they were to cross to Ireland and recover their possessions. . . . Meanwhile in Ireland a vigorous deputy, Sir Anthony Lucy, . . . was convinced that the great magnates were the real foe to the interests of government and of justice to the Irish. After some fighting against the Irish, in which it was obvious that the native lords were taking up a neutral attitude, he summoned a Parliament to Dublin, and then adjourned it to Kilkenny (7 July 1331). But Maurice, Earl of Desmond, and most of the nobles refused to attend. . . . Edward had to retrace his steps. Sir John D'Arcy was sent over for a third time in 1332 empowered to declare a general pardon. Desmond was confined and sent to England, . . . but was released in 1333. . . . In 1333 occurred the murder, at Carrickfergus, of the young Earl of Ulster. . . . The Earldom of Ulster thus passed according to English feudal law to the daughter of the murdered man. But the Anglo-Irish had for some time insisted on and practised male succession, and the uncles of the dead Earl, . . . Edmund and Ulick de Burgh, . . . seized his lands in Connacht, where they were destined to found the two great Norman-Irish houses of Mac William Uachtar and Mac William Iochtar. The Earldom of Ulster itself was thus left without a protector, and from this date we may assign the founding of Clandeboy. . . . Connacht was from this time lost for all practical purposes to England. The later De Burghs became the most Irishized of the great old families. Their very position made them rebellious, and hostile to all English claims. . . . [In fact they became in name and deed Irish chiefs. . The continued confusion in the country determined Edward to continue his repressive policy, and to break the power of the great Anglo-Norman or Anglo-Irish nobles. He betrothed his son Lionel, duke of Clarence, to the young Countess of Ulster, and thus transferred her claim to his own family. He was diverted from Ireland by the hope of conquering both France and Scotland. But, nevertheless, he still continued to pay attention to Ireland. In 1338, the king in council declared that only Englishmen born were to hold offices under the crown.] The idea was of course that Englishmen would be impartial, more skilled in the law, unattached to the local interests, less likely to be intimidated, and more likely to ensure a full revenue for the Crown. . . . The Deputy then summoned a Parliament to Dublin for October 1341, but it was answered by an act of complete defiance. Desmond, Kildare and others, scornful of . . . [a] mere knight, Sir John Moriz, who had been sent in a King's place, summoned a rival Parliament to Kilkenny, . . . representing the whole Anglo-Irish population, nobles, clerics, towns. . . . They determined to appeal to the King in person, and forwarded to him by two envoys a long and searching indictment in French of the Anglo-Irish Government. . . . The result was a victory for the Anglo-Irish party. The King received the envoys graciously, restored the grants of his ancestors and himself, and validated all pardons of debts. He needed the help of Ireland against France. In February 1344 Sir Ralph D'Ufford was sent over to carry out the new policy, . . . and for many years a policy of conciliation followed. The vigour of the royal policy was shown in the raising of large armies to suppress the Irish and recover the lost country. . . . [In 1346, a law against absentees provided that no ecclesiastic, noble nor able-bodied man might leave Ireland without special licence.] In 1357 Royal Regulations were enacted declaring that 'the affairs of our land (of Ireland) shall be referred to our Councils, but shall be determined in our Parliament there,' an acknowledgment of the legislative supremacy of the Irish Parliament. The Patriot party were also conciliated by the statement: 'All the English born in Ireland as well as those born in England be true Englishmen living under our dominion and sovereignty and bound by the same laws, rights and customs.' . . . In 1361, 'hearing lately by the constant relation of certain people that mere Irish have been appointed officials, &c., in cities and boroughs, . . . and to canonries, prebends, benefices,' the King issued a writ to deprive all such persons, but exempted all faithful Irishmen living in the King's peace and obedience. By the same writ no Irishman, *'mere Hibernicus de natione Hibernica existens,'* might be made mayor, bailiff, officer or minister in any place subject to us. This was in answer to a petition of Parliament."—E. Curtis, *Viceroyalty of Lionel, duke of Clarence, in Ireland (Journal of the Royal Society of Antiquaries of Ireland,* 1917, *pp.* 174-177, 178, 179, 180-181).—In 1361 Lionel, duke of Clarence, who was now married to the young countess of Ulster, was sent over to Ireland as lord lieutenant, and the absentees were summoned to attend him. "The policy which Lionel was charged with alarmed both Irish and Anglo-Irish. The former were to be ousted from their conquests, the absentees were to recover the lands which had largely fallen to the FitzGeralds, Butlers and others. A new English Conquest was contemplated, it seemed. . . . Taking up the policy of his father, who had earlier tried to break the power of the Anglo-Irish, and influenced by his wife, who hated the race which had murdered her

father, Lionel forbade any of native birth to come near his army. . . . [He found, however, that he would meet with small success without the aid of the Anglo-Irish. He, therefore, reversed his policy, and united the two elements in his army. The Anglo-Irish enabled him to gain some victories, and win back some part of the land which had been reconquered by the Irish. But the submission of the Anglo-Irish was only outward. Jealousies were apt to blaze up, and a writ of 1364 which ordered "that no Englishman born in England or in Ireland shall make any dissension on pain of fine and imprisonment" gives a clue to the outbreaks that must have disturbed his court. In 1366] the dissensions of colonists and English-born, the steady advance of the Irish, and other questions, made a general review of the state of Ireland necessary . . . and the famous Parliament of Kilkenny was summoned to meet him, [Lionel] on Ash Wednesday. . . . The general character of . . . [the] enactments of this Parliament was as follows:—Alliances by marriage, gossipred or fostering between English and Irish are forbidden. All Englishmen, and Irish living among them, must speak English, use English surnames derived from towns, trades, or colours, and follow English customs. The Brehon law, or that compound of Brehon and feudal law called March law, is not to be used by the English. Irishmen are not to be admitted into cathedrals, benefices, or religious houses. If any of the English, or Irish among the English, use the Irish language, he shall be attainted, and his lands go to his lord, until he undertake to adopt and use English. The English are not to entertain or make gifts to Irish minstrels, rimers or story tellers. In order to make a joint resistance to the Irish, parleys or treatises with them must be made in common, and only by legal permission. The colonists are to forsake hurleys and quoits and learn the use of the bow. There is to be but one peace and one war throughout the whole of the King's land of Ireland. The English must not break any peace legally made between English and Irish. No Irishman may pasture or occupy labour lands belonging to English or Irish being at peace against the will of the lords of the said lands, but if they do so the lord may impound their cattle, but . . . if the party make satisfaction to the lord they shall be handed back to him entire, and anyone dividing the beasts shall be punished as a robber and disturber of the peace. In every county four of the most substantial men are to be made wardens of the peace. . . . Kerns and hired soldiers may only be maintained on the marches (a blow at the Anglo-Irish lords and their practice of coyne and livery). No difference should be made between English born in Ireland and English born in England. . . . The reason for these enactments is given in a preamble which states that . . . 'many English . . . forsaking the English language, manners, mode of riding, laws and usages, live and govern themselves according to the manners, fashion and language of the Irish enemies, and also have made divers marriages and alliances with the said Irish enemies whereby the said land and the liege people thereof, the English language, the allegiance due to our lord the King, and the English laws there are put in subjection and decayed, and the Irish enemies exalted and raised up.' . . . The English land, where obedience to English law might be looked for, was reckoned as the ten counties or liberties of Louth, Meath, Trim, Dublin, Kildare, Carlow, Kilkenny, Wexford, Waterford and Tipperary. . . . The evident purpose of the Statutes of Kilkenny was, not to declare war on the Gaelic race and tradition throughout Ireland, but to delimit the English area, and to preserve therein a population English in speech, law and allegiance. In effect this could only apply to Eastern Leinster, and a few parts of nearer Munster. Connacht, Western Munster and nearly all Ulster were either under the Gaels, or the half-Gaelicised Norman houses. The Irish inside the colony were not to be punished as such, but in order that they should not impair the English character of this area, they were to be forced into English ways. It was a deliberate provision for the legal division of Ireland into two nations. Certain of the provisions about the Irish, both within and without the 'Pale' are marked by a distinct sense of equity, as those dealing with the keeping of peace with the Irish, and, as regards Irish graziers and renters of Englishmen's lands. . . . Edward III had begun with the hope of enfranchising the Celts, and reducing the liberties of the Norman magnates. With the viceroyalty of his son this hope was abandoned. The attempts to extend the Common law by a general measure of enfranchisement for the older race were abandoned. . . . Even the 'Five Bloods,' after the Statutes of Kilkenny, lost their honorary rights. . . . The Statutes of Kilkenny were confirmed again in 1404 and 1407 by Parliament under the Earl of Ormond. A second result was that the Anglo-Irish were installed in power. On Lionel's retirement soon after this Parliament, the Earl of Desmond was made Justiciar (Feb. 1367), and though Englishmen were from time to time appointed, the Anglo-Irish ideal of a native-born viceroy was frequently realised. Little checked by the lieutenancy of Lionel, the tendencies which he came to oppose continued their full course. The Irish advance went on till over one-half of the island was in the hands of the Gaelic princes again. Thus, in 1369, . . . by a treaty at Adare with John MacNamara, the Justiciar abandoned all Thomond to the Irish after a struggle which had lasted nearly a hundred years. In Lionel's Earldom of Ulster, the O'Neills began a great advance across the Bann, and Monaghan fell into Gaelic hands. . . . In effect, Edward III was the last real king in Ireland until Henry VIII. The Statutes of Kilkenny, with which Lionel was so identified, had small practical effect. There is little evidence that the Irish inside the Pale took surnames from trades, colours and places, abandoning their family names. So far from dying out, the Irish language and customs spread over almost the whole island. In the Parliament of Drogheda, under Poynings, in 1494, although the Acts of Kilkenny were re-enacted, the clauses against the use of the Irish language and method of riding horse were repealed, for they could no longer be enforced. Even the English of the Pale had become bi-lingual."—E. Curtis, *Viceroyalty of Lionel, duke of Clarence, in Ireland* (*Journal of the Royal Society of Antiquaries of Ireland,* 1918, *pp.* 66, 67, 69-72).—See also ABSENTEEISM.

1413-1467.—Reign of Henry V.—Condition during Wars of the Roses.—"Henry V., who ascended the throne in 1413, was so engrossed with France that he gave hardly any attention to Ireland; so that there was little or no change in Irish affairs during his reign; and there was strife everywhere. Matters at last looked so serious that in 1414 the king sent over an able and active military man as lord lieutenant, Sir John Talbot, Lord Furnival, subsequently earl of Shrewsbury, who became greatly distinguished in the French wars. He made a vigorous circuit round the Pale,

and reduced O'Moore, Mac Mahon, O'Hanlon, and O'Neill. But this brought the Palesmen more evil than good; for the relief was only temporary; and when the brilliant exploits were all over he subjected them, in violation of the Statute of Kilkenny, to coyne and livery, having no other way of paying his soldiers. No sooner had he left than the Irish resumed their attacks, and for years incessantly harried and worried the miserable Palesmen, except indeed when kept quiet in some small degree by the payment of black rent. The accession of Henry VI., in 1422, made no improvement in the country, which continued to be everywhere torn by strife. Ireland was now indeed, and for generations before and after, in a far worse condition than at any time under native management, even during the anarchical period after the battle of Clontarf. The people of the Pale probably fared neither better nor worse than those of the rest of the country. But to add to their misfortunes, there arose, about the time of the king's accession, a deadly quarrel between the Butlers, headed by the earl of Ormond, and the Talbots, headed by Richard Talbot, archbishop of Dublin and his brother Lord Furnival, who came twice again to Ireland as Lord lieutenant. This feud was so violent that it put a stop to almost all government business for many years. Meantime in 1423 the Irish of Ulster made a terrible raid on Louth and Meath, defeated the army sent against them, and carried off great booty; till at last the inhabitants had to buy peace by agreeing to pay black rent. In 1449 Richard Plantagenet, duke of York, a prince of the royal blood and heir to the throne of England, was appointed lord lieutenant for ten years. He won the affections of the Irish both of native and English descent, treating them with fairness and consideration. In an act of parliament of this time we have a frightful picture of the condition of the colonists of the Pale. In time of harvest companies of the soldiers were in the habit of going with their wives, children, servants and friends, sometimes to the number of a hundred, to the farmers' houses, eating and drinking, and paying for nothing. They robbed and sometimes killed the tenants and husbandmen; and their horses were turned out to graze in the meadows and in the ripe corn, ruining all the harvest. The parliament held by the duke in 1449, asserted for the first time the independence of the Irish legislature: that they had a right to a separate coinage, and that they were absolutely free from all laws except those passed by the lords and commons of Ireland. The duke had not been in Ireland for more than a year when Jack Cade's rebellion broke out; on which he went to England in 1451 to look after his own interests. For the past century and a half the English kings had been so taken up with wars in France, Scotland, and Wales, that they had little leisure to attend to Ireland. Accordingly we have seen the Irish encroaching, the Pale growing smaller, and the people of the settlement more oppressed and more miserable year by year. But now about this time—1454—began in England the tremendous struggle between the houses of York and Lancaster, commonly known as the Wars of the Roses, which lasted for about thirty years, and during which the colony fared worse than ever. . . . The Pale became smaller than ever, till it included only the county Louth and about half those of Dublin Meath and Kildare. At one time not more than 200 men could be got together to defend it. . . . [After the triumph of the Yorkists in 1461] the Geraldines, both of Desmond and Kildare, were in high favour, while the Butlers were in disgrace. These two factions enacted a sort of miniature of the Wars of the Roses in Ireland. . . . Thomas, the eighth earl of Desmond—the Great Earl as he was called—was appointed lord deputy. . . . The Irish parliament passed an act in 1465 that every Irishman dwelling in the Pale was to dress and shave like the English, and take an English surname. . . . Another and more mischievous measure forbade ships from fishing in the seas of Irish countries, because the dues went to make the Irish people prosperous and strong. But the worst enactment of all was one providing that it was lawful to decapitate thieves found robbing 'or going or coming anywhere' unless they had an Englishman in their company. And whoever did

BLARNEY CASTLE, IRELAND
Built by Cormac McCarthy, 1449

so, on bringing the head to the mayor of the nearest town, was licensed to levy a good sum of the barony. This put it in the power of any evil-minded person to kill the first Irishman he met, pretending he was a thief, and to raise money on his head. This indeed was not the intention of the legislators; the act was merely a desperate attempt to keep down marauders who swarmed at this time all through the Pale. With all the earl of Desmond's popularity he was unable to restore tranquillity to the distracted country. He was defeated in open fight in 1466 by his own brother-in-law O'Conor of Offaly. . . . Neither was he able to prevent the septs from ravaging the Pale. . . . He was first replaced in 1467 by John Tiptoft, earl of Worcester, . . . [who] acting on the secret instructions of the queen, . . . caused the earls of Desmond and Kildare to be arrested; and had them attainted for exacting coyne and

livery, and for making alliance with the Irish, contrary to the Statute of Kilkenny. Desmond was at once executed; Kildare was pardoned."—P. W. Joyce, *Concise history of Ireland, pp.* 114-118.

1485-1509.—Accession of Henry VII.—Warbeck.—Poynings Acts.—Change of policy.—Power of Geraldines.—"Henry VII. sat on a tottering throne, long after he had been proclaimed king [in 1485]. His power in England was thwarted by plots and factions; in Ireland it was little more than a name. Gerald, the eighth Earl of Kildare, revered as the 'Great,' in the traditions of a race devoted to leaders of men, was Viceroy, and supreme at the Castle; but his authority in Ireland was very different from that of an ordinary governor of the Pale. He was connected by marriage with chiefs of the O'Neills, and with the Butlers of Ormond, his feudal enemies; he had immense influence with the Desmonds of his blood, having saved them from an arbitrary act of attainder. Nature, too, had made him a remarkable man, abounding in wit, resource, and capacity; he could rule, with excellent results, in the interests of the Crown, . . . but he was equally ready to conspire against it, if crossed in any of his ambitious purposes. . . . [The earl] seems to have aspired to play the great part of a Warwick; he crowned the Pretender, Simnel, with his own hand; and he despatched from Ireland the force which was destroyed at Stoke. The threats and remonstrances of the king proved vain; and notwithstanding this act of flagrant rebellion, Kildare received a pardon, and was kept in his government. Ere long he took up the cause of Perkin Warbeck; and, meanwhile, the impotence of the state being more than ever manifest, the discords and troubles of Ireland continued to increase, and the ruin of the Pale seemed fearfully imminent. Henry was forced at last to take a decided course; he resolved to try to effect a thorough change in the system of government and administration that had so long prevailed in Ireland. Sir Edward Poynings, a member of that able official class, encouraged for centuries by the Plantagenets, and especially favoured by the Tudors, was placed at the head of affairs in Ireland, and charged to make a searching and complete reform. The subordinates who accompanied him —a significant fact—were soldiers, churchmen, and lawyers of English birth; the Anglo-Irish had been removed from the Castle."—W. O'C. Morris, *Ireland, pp.* 57-58.—"The king now saw that his Irish subjects were ready to rise in rebellion for the house of York at every opportunity. He came to the resolution, therefore, to lessen their power by destroying the independence of their parliament; and having given Sir Edward Poynings instructions to this effect, he sent him over as deputy."—P. W. Joyce, *Concise history of Ireland, p.* 119.—After some military operations, which he found to be beset with treacheries and difficulties, the new lord deputy held a Parliament at Drogheda—"perhaps the most memorable that was ever held in Ireland, as certainly no other Parliament in that country made laws which endured so long as two which were then enacted, and were known for centuries afterwards as the 'Poynings Acts.' By the first of these it as ordained that no Parliament should be held in Ireland in future until the king's Council in England had approved not only of its being summoned, but also of the Acts which the Lieutenant and Council of Ireland proposed to pass in it. By the second the laws enacted before that time in England were extended to Ireland also. Thus the Irish legislature was made entirely dependent upon England. The Irish Parliament had no power to originate anything, but was only free to accept or (if they were very bold) to reject measures drawn up by the Irish Council and approved already by the king and his Council in England before they were submitted to discussion. Little as this looks like parliamentary government, such was the state of subjection in which the Irish Parliament remained by virtue of this law for nearly three centuries later. Almost the whole time, that is to say, that Ireland had a separate Parliament at all it remained in this manner restricted in its action by the legislation of Sir Edward Poynings. . . . It should be remembered, however, that Henry VII. merely sought to do in Ireland what there is every reason to suppose he practically did in England. Legislation was not at this time considered to be the chief business of a Parliament."—J. Gairdner, *Henry the Seventh, ch.* 8.—"The real enemies which the English Crown had to fear in Ireland were not the Irish themselves, but those Anglo-Irish colonists who wished to be independent of English control. Henry VII. therefore determined to try a new experiment. Instead of governing Ireland from England, the English power in the country was to be upheld by combining it with that of the strongest of the nobles, who, in return for conducting the government, and preserving order, were to be allowed to do pretty much as they pleased. The Geraldines were by this time the most powerful of all the Anglo-Norman houses. They were descended, it will be remembered, from that Maurice Fitzgerald and his relatives who came over at the time of the Norman invasion. They had gradually divided themselves into two branches, which were converted into Earldoms early in the fourteenth century. The Earls of Desmond ruled over the Munster Branch, and held most of Limerick, Cork, and Kerry, while the Leinster Geraldines, who lay along the frontiers of the English Pale, were presided over by the Earls of Kildare. In accordance with this new policy, Garrett or Gerald Fitzgerald, the Eighth Earl of Kildare, was appointed Deputy in 1496. He had taken part in the Simnel conspiracy, and had been attainted by Poynings' Parliament for his support of Perkin Warbeck; yet he had so great an influence with both nobles and chiefs that if his loyalty could be secured his services would be invaluable. The new experiment was at first a complete success. Kildare was an able man, though hardly a statesman, and he saw that his power in Ireland would be greatly increased if joined to that of the Crown. He carried the English arms far and wide among the Celts, and though his expeditions were often the result of his private quarrels, this mattered little to the government as long as he acted as the representative of English authority. His greatest exploit was the defeat of the tribes of Munster and Connaught at the Battle of Knockdoe in 1504, for this great victory did more towards restoring English prestige in Ireland than any event which had happened for a very long time."—C. Maxwell, *Short history of Ireland, pp.* 27-28.—On the accession of Henry VIII in 1509 Kildare was made lord deputy.

Also in: P. W. Joyce, *Concise history of Ireland.*

1513-1535.—Quarrels of Butlers and Fitzgeralds.—Rebellion of Silken Thomas.—"In 1513 [Kildare] 'The Great Earl,' as he was called, was killed in a raid against one of the tribes, and was succeeded by his son, Garrett Oge or Young Gerald Fitzgerald. Garrett Oge, as Lord Deputy, also conducted many expeditions against

the tribes, and did good service for the Crown in Ireland. He was neither as able nor as tactful, however, as his father, and he was greatly hampered by the enmity of the Butlers, the hereditary foes of his house, who were continually forwarding complaints of his conduct to the English Court. He was charged, for instance, with enriching himself with the Crown revenues, marrying his daughters into hostile tribes, and interfering with the judges in their administration of the law. Some of these charges were doubtless true, and Kildare was twice summoned to England in order to make his defence. Twice he managed to hold his own with the King, but when it was discovered that he was dabbling in treason and treating, through his cousin Desmond, with powers hostile to England, he was summoned a third time to London and sent to the Tower (1534). The enemies of the Geraldines now caused rumours of his execution to be spread in Ireland, which so infuriated the son whom he had left as Deputy in Dublin during his absence that he broke into open rebellion. Riding through the city on the 11th June, 'Silken Thomas,' as he was called from the fringes on the helmets of his followers, summoned the Council to St. Mary's Abbey, and there publicly renounced his allegiance. At this juncture Garrett Oge died in the Tower; he too had probably contemplated rebellion, for before leaving Ireland he had conveyed great stores of arms and ammunition from Dublin to his various strongholds. The chief of these was the Castle of Maynooth, into which his son now threw a large garrison. The rebellion became serious. The Royalist Archbishop Allen was murdered in an attempt to escape to England. Lord Thomas, now Earl of Kildare, harried the Pale, and laid siege to Dublin Castle; he sent envoys to implore the aid of the Emperor and of the Pope, and he offered to divide Ireland with the Butlers. The citizens of Dublin, however, chased his undisciplined forces from their walls. Ormond replied to his suggestions by invading his territories, and reinforcements arrived from England. With the aid of heavy artillery, used now for the first time in Ireland, Sir William Skeffington, on March 23rd, 1535, battered down the walls of Maynooth, and slaughtered the garrison. Kildare's Celtic allies fell away from him, and in a few weeks' time he was forced to surrender. This ended the rebellion. He was conveyed to England with five of his uncles who had been treacherously arrested at a banquet, and after eighteen months' imprisonment they were all executed. This struck a final blow at the great power of the House of Kildare, and through it at the whole Anglo-Norman faction in Ireland. It was now clearly seen that Ireland could not be ruled from within, and as the English colony had almost disappeared, only two courses of action were still open to the English Crown. Either Ireland must be abandoned altogether, or a new conquest of the country must be speedily undertaken."—C. Maxwell, *Short history of Ireland, pp.* 28-30.—In detailed reports sent in 1533 by the council to the king and Thomas Cromwell "they describe the miserable disordered state of the country, which they attribute to the frequent change of deputies, to the constant imposition of coyne and livery, black rents, and other exactions; above all to the vast power and privileges in the hands of the great Anglo-Norman lords—especially Kildare, Ossory, and Desmond—and to their continual quarrels. . . . They wind up by telling the king that reformation should begin with his own subjects:—'When your grace has reformed your earls, English lords, and others your subjects, then proceed to the reformation of your Irish rebels.' "—P. W. Joyce, *Short history of Ireland, p.* 366.

1520-1540.—Negotiations between Irish chieftains and European powers.—Effect of war between England and France.—In the year 1520, Henry VIII "resolved to attempt a complete conquest of Ireland, and thenceforward Tudor methods increased in efficiency at such a rate that the Irish chieftains began to get alarmed for their safety. . . . One of the first of the Irish chieftains to apprehend the existence of a new English policy, and to understand the necessity for common action against England, was James [Fitzgerald], earl of Desmond, who was in alliance with France in 1523 and with Austria in 1529. . . . [In fact] the first fifty years of the sixteenth century is filled with negotiations between Irish chieftains and Continental princes. Again and again during those years the Irish appealed for military assistance to France, Scotland, and the Empire, and we find Irishmen moving through the great events of the century as easily as if they had been brought up in the Italian or French schools of politics. The relations of Irishmen with the Continent during those years centre for the most part about France. . . . The war between England and France was destined to have important consequences for Ireland. . . . Following on the quarrel between Henry and Francis I, the Irish, in 1523 opened negotiations with the French king. . . . [Two French ambassadors] arrived in Ireland in June, 1523 . . . and planned a vast conspiracy by which Desmond was to be assisted to free Ireland and in return was to join in a campaign to dethrone Henry VIII. and set up in his stead Richard de la Pole. . . . [Francis on his side agreed to arrange no truce with Henry that did not include Desmond, Turlough O'Brien and his nephew, and that if Henry should break the peace with them, Francis would come to their assistance.] The French were to occupy . . . Cork, Kinsale, and Youghal . . . as a security for their assistance in men, money, and munitions. . . . [This] treaty was solemnly ratified by Francis I. . . . News of the conspiracy soon reached London and Kildare, as the Lord-Deputy, was ordered to secure the person of the Earl of Desmond. While Kildare pretended to track down the Earl, in reality he entered into closer relations with him, and together they concerted a common plan of action. Kildare brought other Irish chieftains into the conspiracy by marriage alliances. . . . [His] next move was to transfer the artillery and military stores from Dublin Castle to his own castle at Maynooth, which, in the eyes of Irishmen, was tantamount to a declaration that he had abandoned England. . . . (Desmond deferred . . . [action], but in the year 1529 he carried out an Irish invasion of England on a comprehensive scale. . . . In twelve months he landed an army—estimated in round numbers at 20,000 men—in Pembrokeshire. They spread themselves over the country about Milford Haven and between St. David's and Tenby—easily crushing all attempts at local resistance. Irish ships swarmed along the coasts, and for twelve months the countryside was virtually an Irish possession. But matters of moment required Desmond's presence in Ireland, and, drawing his forces together, he returned in a blaze of glory.) . . . [Meantime] the Franco-Irish alliance was shattered at the battle of Pavia. . . . Desmond had staked everything on a turn of the wheel in European politics. He had played for high stakes and he had lost. [But it was not till Henry had wrung the last concession from French weakness that he seriously turned his attention to Ireland. . . . Kildare, as the most outstanding

culprit, he could not allow to go unpunished. Apart from the fact that he had been plotting with France, Henry considered that Kildare had shamefully neglected his duties as Lord-Deputy. . . . It was reported in 1526 that scarcely a word of English was heard in the country of Kildare, that the inhabitants persisted in their Irish customs, and that, except Dublin and Drogheda, the Pale itself had become Irish. In 1526 Kildare was accused by his old enemy, Sir Piers Butler, of conspiring with Irish enemies to help Desmond in his intrigues with France, and of neglecting to arrest him on special instructions from the King. . . . Kildare was called to London to answer these charges, which were serious enough to have brought any other chieftain to the block. . . . Meanwhile Desmond, who was the root of all the trouble, continued travelling steadily along the paths of rebellion. With admirable pertinacity, on the failure of France, he searched for a new ally among the European powers then at variance with England, and in the Emperor of Austria he seemed likely to find a new auxiliary. . . . The English agents were soon in possession of Desmond's secret machinations, which they promptly reported to Henry. . . . [Proceedings for his attainder before the Irish parliament were begun but his death in 1529 made an end of them.]"—J. Hogan, *Ireland in the European system, v.* 1, *pp.* xxviii, xxx, 18, 22, 24-25, 31.

1535-1553.—Reconquest under Henry VIII and fall of Geraldines.—Political pacification and religious alienation.—"Skeffington, the new Lord Deputy, brought with him a train of artillery, which worked a startling change in the political aspect of the island. The castles which had hitherto sheltered rebellion were battered into ruins. . . . Not only was the power of the great Norman house which had towered over Ireland utterly broken, but only a single boy was left to preserve its name. With the fall of the Geraldines Ireland felt itself in a master's grasp. . . . In seven years, partly through the vigour of Skeffington's successor, Lord Leonard Grey, and still more through the resolute will of Henry and Cromwell, the power of the Crown, which had been limited to the walls of Dublin, was acknowledged over the length and breadth of Ireland. . . . Chieftain after chieftain was won over to the acceptance of the indenture which guaranteed him in the possession of his lands, and left his authority over his tribesmen untouched, on conditions of a pledge of loyalty, of abstinence from illegal wars and exactions on his fellow-subjects, and of rendering a fixed tribute and service in war-time to the Crown. . . . [This] firm and conciliatory policy must in the end have won, but for the fatal blunder which plunged Ireland into religious strife at the moment when her civil strife seemed about to come to an end. . . . In Ireland the spirit of the Reformation never existed among the people at all. They accepted the legislative measures passed in the English Parliament without any dream of theological consequences, or of any change in the doctrine or ceremonies of the Church. . . . The mission of Archbishop Browne [of Dublin] 'for the plucking-down of idols and extinguishing of idolatry' was the first step in the long effort of the English Government to force a new faith on a people who to a man clung passionately to their old religion. Browne's attempts at 'tuning the pulpits' were met by a sullen and significant opposition. . . . Protestantism had failed to wrest a single Irishman from his older convictions, but it succeeded in uniting all Ireland against the Crown. . . . The population within the Pale and without it became one, 'not as the Irish nation,' it has been acutely said, 'but as Catholics.' A new sense of national identity was found in the identity of religion."—J. R. Green, *Short history of the English people, ch.* 7, *sect.* 8.—"Whether the religious quarrel between England and Ireland, between Catholic and Protestant, once begun, was carried on with any greater amount of bitterness or of intolerance than the same quarrel in any other part of Europe, is beside the point to discuss; the only matter of relevance is the peculiar effect which this theological controversy has had upon the subsequent course of political events. Very few will deny that the spirit in which it was conducted more than justified the suspicions which later generations have had, the one party towards the other. . . . Of the political aspect of the religious change it is hard to speak too strongly. It was disastrous, for by making Reform identical with Repression, it threw Catholicism into natural alliance with Patriotism, thus creating a confusion which may never be unravelled for centuries. But what was still more fatal was the wholesale system of expropriation by which it was accompanied, and it was probably this more than any other consideration which doomed it—in a word, the Plantations damned the Reformation. As far as any Act of a Legislature can change the faith of a nation, the Parliament which Henry assembled in Dublin, and at which a large number of Irish chiefs were present, both acceded to his new title of head of the Church and sanctioned his new policy of the suppression of the monasteries. This, however, was previous to the confiscations of land. It was another matter when attainder of a chief meant the confiscation of the territories of a tribe, and it was just here that the pinch was felt, and the wanton burning in the market-place of Dublin of the Baculum Christatum, or staff of St. Patrick, part of which Holy Relic was said to have touched the hands of the Saviour, produced an effect on the popular mind such as only the scattering of the ashes of Edward the Confessor by Saracens would have produced had they come to London as conquerors."—L. G. Redmond-Howard, *New birth of Ireland, pp.* 35-36.

ALSO IN: R. Bagwell, *Ireland under the Tudors, p.* 1, *ch.* 9-15.—M. Haverty, *History of Ireland, ch.* 30.

1540-1579.—Influence of French negotiations.—"From 1540 to 1579 to invade Ireland and make it a basis for operations against England may be said to have been the settled policy of France. . . . On 22nd July 1543, Henry VIII. delivered an ultimatum to France, so worded as to be tantamount to a declaration of war. . . . [Francis was eager to use the disaffected Irish in retaliation on Henry. He seems to have promised to send over a fleet to aid them to rise against the English power, and for this purpose stores and ammunition were collected at Brest.] Meanwhile in Ireland the conspiracy had spread widely. The Irish chieftains were in correspondence with FitzGerald and the French king. French agents had been travelling through the country and had held conferences with many of the strongest chieftains. Henry tried a policy of conciliation, [but] its soothing effects were more than counterbalanced by his religious policy. . . . Ireland was in open rebellion during the year 1547, O'Donnell rose out in the north, and 15,000 Scots landed to support him. The Geraldines and the O'Connors were ravaging the Pale. The Earl of Desmond was suspected of being in correspondence with the French, and so notorious an intriguer as James

Delahide had arrived in Ireland and was thought to be in the company of the Earl. . . . The design of a French conquest of Ireland, which may have been no more than a temporary expedient for Francis I., became in the reign of Henry II. a serious object of French policy. This design on Ireland is reflected in the French policy towards Scotland. Since the arrival of Mary Stuart in France Scotland had practically ceased to have an independent government, and Henry determined that this state of things should last not only because Scotland would be an appanage of the French crown, but also because it would serve as a stepping-stone to Ireland. . . . Ireland, as usual, was ripe for rebellion. . . . Of late years Bellingham, an English soldier, had carried on the government of Ireland with Spartan rigour. He had suppressed the rebellions of the O'Connors and the O'Mores of Leix and Offaly, two clans who had given England continual trouble, and in words that have a Cromwellian flavour boasted that 'none (of the king's enemies) escaped but by mistake or hiding them in ambush, etc., such was the great goodness of God to deliver them into our hands.' The two chieftains were dispossessed and it was proposed to plant their lands with English colonists. This object lesson was not lost on the other chieftains, who recognised that some day a similar fate might befall themselves. Ireland in the year 1549 was a powder magazine where a spark from France would precipitate an explosion. . . . The first advances seem to have come from France, . . . [and] by the spring of 1549 the conspiracy, both in Ireland and France, was in full swing. The strongest supporters of the Irish enterprise were members of the Catholic League—such as Cardinal Pole, the House of Guise, the Bishop of Valence, Strozzi, Prior of Capua, and the Queen-Dowager of Scotland. . . . In early spring, 1549, Wauchop arrived in Ireland from France and set about organising a general confederation of the northern and southern chieftains. . . . O'Neill and O'Donnell took an oath of fealty to the French king, and in their own names and in the names of their fellow chieftains pledged themselves to acknowledge his sovereignty. . . . Before Monluc [the French envoy] set out for France another important step was taken. When in Scotland he had sounded the Scottish nobility on the subject of a league with Ireland, and his suggestion had been so well received that now he was able to effect an alliance between M'Connell, Lord of the Isles, and the Irish chieftains. At last Monluc's fondest hopes had been realised. Ireland, Scotland, and France stood united in a close confederacy against England. Assailed at once from those three points, English power would certainly be borne to the earth. . . . But Henry [II], as always, pursued a policy of vacillation. In Ireland they waited confidently for the arrival of the French forces, and occupied the interval of waiting in perfecting arrangements and extending the conspiracy, which now spread throughout the whole country and even included parts of Wales. [Finally Con O'Neil broke out into rebellion, and by the month of March a good part of the country was under arms. But Henry of France again entered into negotiations with England, this time successfully, and the Irish once more found that they had been used by their allies as a weapon to be used and thrown aside.]"—J. Hogan, *Ireland in the European system, v.* 1, *pp.* 35, 60, 63, 74, 97, 99-100, 104, 110, 144.

1541-1555.—Assumption by Henry VIII of title of king of Ireland.—Parliament of 1541.—Causes of discontent.—Plantation scheme.—"Hitherto the English kings, from the time of John, had borne the title of Lord of Ireland. It was now considered that a higher title would add weight to the king's authority; and it was resolved to confer on him the title of King of Ireland. With this object a parliament was assembled in Dublin on the 12th June (1541); and in order to lend greater importance to its decisions, a number of the leading Irish chiefs—among others, Kavanagh, O'Moore, and O'Reilly—were induced to attend it; and O'Brien of Thomond yielded so far that he sent deputies to represent him. This was the first parliament attended by native Irish members. The earl of Desmond also, and several other Anglo-Irish lords—some who had not come to a parliament for many years, and some never before—attended. The presence of all these made the present parliament the most remarkable yet held in Ireland. The Irish lords, and some also of the Anglo-Irish, did not understand a word of English; and they were greatly pleased when the earl of Ormond translated into Irish for them the speeches of the lord chancellor and the speaker. . . . If there had been no additional disturbing influences after the reign of Henry VIII., it is probable that Ireland would have begun to settle down, and that there would have been no further serious or prolonged resistance. But now two new elements of discord were introduced; for the government entered on the task of forcing the Irish people to become Protestant; and at the same time they began to plant various parts of the country with colonies of settlers from England and Scotland, for whom the native inhabitants were to be expelled. The Irish on their part resisted, and fought long and resolutely for their religion and their homes; and the old struggle was intensified and embittered by religious rancour. The Plantations succeeded, though not to the extent expected: the attempt to Protestantise the Irish, though continued with determined persistency for three centuries, was a failure. These two projects were either directly or indirectly the causes of nearly all the dreadful wars that desolated this unhappy country during the period comprised in the present part of our history. Two other evil influences also began to make themselves felt about this time. The titles conferred by Henry VIII. on the native chiefs, with the accompanying land grants, gave rise to long and bitter disputes in the succeeding reigns. It was commonly the acknowledged chief of the district at the time who received the royal title. His successor, both in title and in position as head, was, according to English law, his eldest son or his next heir; but according to the Irish law of tanistry, that member of the family whom the tribe selected was the person to succeed to the chiefship. This was mixed up with the question of land, a further and a worse complication. According to the English law, the chief who relinquished his land to the king, and to whom the king regranted it, became the owner, and it would descend to his heir after his death. But according to Brehon law, as the chief well knew, he had no right of ownership; and the person to succeed him in possession was the tanist. Thus when this titled chief died, English and Irish law came, in a double sense, into direct antagonism; and there was generally a contest, in which the government supported the heir, and the tribe the tanist. This was mainly the origin of the disturbances among the O'Briens of Thomond and the O'Neills of Tyrone, . . . as well as of many others. The disturbing influence next to be mentioned was in some respects the most general and far reaching of all. Ireland was then

as it has always been, the weak point of the empire in case of invasion from abroad. . . . For some time before the accession of Elizabeth, and all through her reign, there were continual rumours, both in England and Ireland, of hostile expeditions from Spain or France to Ireland. These rumours, some of which, as we shall see, were well founded, generally caused great terror, sometimes panic, on the part of the government. . . . If a chief, encouraged by the prospect of help from abroad, rose in rebellion, it was not enough, as it would be under ordinary circumstances, to reduce him to submission, inflict reasonable punishment, and take guarantees of future good behaviour. It was necessary to crush him utterly; and such thorough precautions were taken as that an invader should have neither help nor foothold in the country. . . . And so were the unhappy destinies of this country in great measure shaped; not by what was needed for the protection and welfare of the people, but merely that Ireland might be made unsuitable as a point of attack. . . . A disquieting agency less serious than any of the preceding, but still a decided element of disturbance, was the settled policy of the Tudors to anglicise the Irish people. . . . To anglicise the people the government employed all the agencies at their disposal, and employed them in vain."—P. W. Joyce, *Short history of Ireland, pp.* 386, 390-393.

"On the accession of Edward VI. in 1547, Sentleger was continued as deputy. As there were some serious disturbances in Leinster, Edward Bellingham, an able and active officer, was sent over in May this year as military commander bringing a small force of 600 horse and 400 foot. He reduced O'Moore of Leix and O'Connor of Offaly, and sent them to London, in 1548, where they were treated kindly and got pensions. Meanwhile the two territories were annexed to the Pale, and Bellingham built a number of castles to keep down the people. . . . In the time of queen Mary, who succeeded Edward VI. in 1553, an entire change was made in the mode of dealing with Irish territories whose chiefs had been subdued. Hitherto whenever the government deposed or banished a troublesome chief, they contented themselves with putting in his place another, commonly English or Anglo-Irish, more likely to be submissive, while the general body of occupiers remained undisturbed. But now when a rebellious chief was reduced, the lands, not merely those in his own possession, but also those occupied by the whole of the people over whom he ruled, were confiscated—seized by the crown—and given to English adventurers, undertakers as they were commonly called. These men got the lands on condition that they should bring in or plant on them a number of English or Scotch settlers; for whom it was of course necessary to clear off the native population. After the banishment of O'Moore and O'Conor in 1548 their districts of Leix and Offaly were given to an Englishman named Francis Bryan and to some others, who proceeded straightway to expel the native people and parcel out the lands to new tenants, chiefly English. But the natives resisted; and the fighting went on during the whole of the reign of Edward VI., with great loss of life to both sides. As this settlement did not succeed, the whole district was made crown property in 1555 and 1556, during the reign of queen Mary, and replanted. But the natives still struggled for their homes; and a pitiless war of mutual extermination went on for many years, till the original owners were almost completely banished or exterminated."—P. W. Joyce, *Concise history of Ireland, pp.* 142, 151, 153.

1558-1560.—Accession of Elizabeth.—Effect of Act of Uniformity.—"On the death of Mary in 1558, Elizabeth became queen. Henry VIII. had transferred the headship of the church from the Pope to himself; Edward VI. had changed the state religion from Catholic to Protestant; Mary from Protestant to Catholic: and now there was to be a fourth change, followed by results far more serious and lasting than any previously experienced. A parliament was assembled in Dublin in 1560, to restore the Protestant religion; and in a few weeks, though after much opposition and clamour, the whole ecclesiastical system of Mary was reversed. . . . The queen being by law now head of the Irish church, was supposed to have the appointment of all the Irish bishops. But as the English power reached only a small part of the country, many bishops were appointed by the Pope. . . . Those appointed by the queen were, with few exceptions, men of a very unworthy stamp. . . . Wherever these new regulations were enforced, the Catholic clergy had of course to abandon their churches, for they could not hold them without taking the oath. At the same time, . . . as there was no adequate provision made for the support of the new Protestant pastors. . . . But the crowning folly of the government was exhibited in the regulation that none were to be appointed except those who could speak English, which in those days meant that they could not speak Irish. . . . The priests, who had been turned out of their parishes, and the inmates of the suppressed monasteries who had been sent adrift on the world, especially the 'mendicant friars,' who lived on alms and cared nothing for privations, went about among the people; and while they actively and successfully opposed the reformed doctrines, they ministered to the people in secret and kept alive the spirit and practice of religion. . . . In many places the new statute of uniformity was not brought sharply into play. In Dublin fines were inflicted on those who absented themselves from church; and to avoid the penalty, many went to Mass in the morning and to church in the evening. But the churchwardens tried to prevent even this by calling a roll of the parishioners at the morning service. . . . Even within the Pale the great body of the people took no notice of proclamations, the law could not be enforced, the act of uniformity was a dead letter, and the greater number of the parishes remained in the hands of the priests."—P. W. Joyce, *Short history of Ireland, pp.* 396-398.—"Elizabeth, always a stateswoman first and churchwoman afterwards, was rather inclined at first to follow her father's policy of internal consolidation by the conciliation of the great families, but partly owing to the rebellion of Thane O'Neil, and partly to the perpetual danger which the Spanish Armada reminded her was latent wherever Catholics were in power, she realised that in Ireland, at least, she must be a churchwoman first and stateswoman afterwards."—L. G. Redmond-Howard, *New birth of Ireland, p.* 37.

1559-1603.—Wars of Shane O'Neil and Hugh O'Neil, earls of Tyrone.—League of Geraldines and Ulster Confederacy.—"As authentic Irish history begins with St. Patrick, so with Elizabeth modern Irish history may be said to begin. . . . At her accession, Elizabeth was too much occupied with foreign complications to pay much heed to Ireland. Trouble first began in a conflict between the feudal laws and the old Irish law of Tanistry. Con O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, had taken

his title from Henry VIII., subject to the English law of succession; but when Con died, the clan O'Neil, disregarding the English principle of hereditary succession, chose Shane O'Neil, an illegitimate son of Con, and the hero of his Sept, to be The O'Neil. Shane O'Neil at once put himself forward as the champion of Irish liberty, the supporter of the Irish right to rule themselves in their own way and pay no heed to England. Under the pretence of governing the country, Elizabeth overran it with a soldiery who, as even Mr. Froude acknowledges, lived almost universally on plunder, and were little better than bandits. The time was an appropriate one for a champion of Irish rights. Shane O'Neil boldly stood out as sovereign of Ulster, and pitted himself against Elizabeth. . . . Shane fought bravely against his fate, but he was defeated [1567], put to flight, and murdered by his enemies, the Scots of Antrim, in whose strongholds he madly sought refuge. His head was struck off, and sent to adorn the walls of Dublin Castle. . . . His lands were declared forfeited, and his vassals vassals of the Crown. English soldiers of fortune were given grants from Shane's escheated territory, but when the delinquents with merciless severity as he went along, hanging and imprisoning great numbers. He . . . [took Desmond prisoner and brought him to] Dublin, leaving his brother John Fitzgerald, or John of Desmond as he is called, to govern South Munster in the earl's absence. He convened a parliament in Dublin in which during 1569, 1570, and 1571 were passed acts to spread the Reformation and to attaint Shane O'Neill and confiscate his lands. In 1567, at Ormond's instigation, John of Desmond was treacherously seized without any cause, and he and his brother the earl were sent to London and consigned to the Tower, where they were detained for six years. All this was done without the knowledge of Sydney, who afterwards quite disapproved of it. . . . There had been reports that large districts in Ireland were to be taken from the owners and planted with colonies; and this, coupled with the proceedings in Dublin to force the Reformation produced great alarm and discontent. Matters were brought to a crisis by the arrest of Desmond and John Fitzgerald. James Fitzmaurice Fitzgerald, the earl's first cousin, now went among the southern chiefs and induced them all, both

GRIANAN OF AILEACH, NEAR LONDONDERRY
Residence of the O'Neills

they attempted to settle they were killed by the O'Neils."—J. H. McCarthy, *Outline of Irish history, ch.* 4.—In the south "the Fitzgeralds and the Butlers were at perpetual war. The earl of Desmond, the head of the southern Geraldines, was a Catholic, and took the Irish side; the earl of Ormond, the leader of the Butlers, had conformed to the Protestant faith, and had taken the side of the English all along. By the tyranny and oppression of these two earls, as well as by their never-ending disputes, large districts in the south were devastated, and almost depopulated. On one occasion Desmond, who claimed jurisdiction over Decies in Waterford, crossed the Blackwater with his army to levy tribute, in the old form of coyne and livery. The chief of the district, Sir Maurice Fitzgerald, a relative of the Butlers, called in the aid of the earl of Ormond. Desmond, taken unawares, was defeated in a battle fought in 1565 at Affane in the county Waterford, beside the Blackwater, and he himself was wounded and taken prisoner. . . . At the same time Connaught was in a state almost as bad, by the broils of the earl of Clanrickard and his sons with each other, and with the chiefs all round. The deputy, Sir Henry Sydney [Sidney], a very able man, endeavoured to make peace. He undertook a journey south and west in 1567; and having witnessed the miseries of the country, he treated native Irish and Anglo-Irish, to unite in defence of their religion and their lands: and thus was formed what was called the Geraldine League. Thus also arose the Geraldine rebellion. When Sydney heard of these alarming proceedings he proclaimed the chiefs traitors, and in 1569 made a journey south with his army, during which he and his officers acted with great severity. This circuit of Sydney's went a good way to break up the confederacy, and many of the leaders were terrified into submission."—P. W. Joyce, *Concise history of Ireland, pp.* 146-147.—"About this time or a little before, a project to colonise a large part of Ireland was seriously entertained by the English government: it was a matter of secrecy, but the secret leaked out; disquieting rumours ran through the country; and there was a ferment of alarm among the chiefs both native and Anglo-Irish. That these reports were not without foundation was brought home to them in a manner not to be mistaken by the proceedings of an English adventurer, Sir Peter Carew, . . . [on the ground that he was descended from one of the early invaders to whom a large grant had been made. This shadowy claim, which was actually baseless, he proposed to put into effect, and proceeded to Ireland, where, with a band of followers, he attempted to oust the occupiers, and replace them by his own retainers.] Among the lands seized

by Carew was a large district belonging to Sir Edmund Butler, brother of the earl of Ormond, Ormond himself being at this time in England. [Butler, a "cholerick man" naturally resented the intrusion, and induced two other brothers, Pierce and Edward, to join the league. Elizabeth, however, placated Ormond, who was her cousin, and he in turn induced his brothers to make peace. Sidney declared the southern chiefs traitors in 1569 and prepared for a campaign in Munster to break up the confederation. He reduced the south, then proceeded to Galway, and so returned to Dublin. Sidney was most severe in his methods. He burned and destroyed as he went, and executed every man he found in arms.]"—P. W. Joyce, *Short history of Ireland, pp.* 425-426.—"About this time Sydney appointed 'Presidents' to govern Munster and Connaught. The object was to produce peace; but it did the very reverse; for the presidents used their great power so mercilessly that they drove both chiefs and people to rebellion everywhere. Sir Edward Fitton and Sir Richard Bingham, two presidents of Connaught, were perhaps the worst, and Sir John Perrott, a brave old soldier, who was made President of Munster in 1571, though very severe, was about the best and most reasonable of all. Perrott took Fitzmaurice's castles one after another, and at last, in 1573, forced him to submit. After this, as the rebellion was considered at an end, the earl of Desmond and his brother were released. Sydney had been lord justice in 1558; and after that he was three times lord deputy, 1565, 1568, 1575. In 1577 during his last deputyship, he raised a great disturbance at home by attempting to impose an illegal tax on the people of Dublin and the Pale, without obtaining the consent of the Irish parliament. His harshness on this occasion caused great excitement and discontent among the loyal people of the Pale, and helped to drive some into rebellion. In the end the matter was compromised. Fitzmaurice fled to France after his submission; and the Geraldine rebellion slumbered for about six years."—P. W. Joyce, *Concise history of Ireland, p.* 148.—"Sir Francis Cosby, the Queen's representative in Leix and Offaly, had conceived and executed the idea of preventing any further possible rising of the chiefs in those districts by summoning them and their kinsmen to a great banquet in the fort of Mullaghmast, and there massacring them all. Out of 400 guests, only one man, a Lalor, escaped from that feast of blood. . . . With such memories in their minds, the tribes rose in all directions to the Desmond call."—J. H. McCarthy, *Outlines of Irish history, ch.* 4.—"In 1579 the Pope . . . fitted out for . . . [Fitzmaurice] a small squadron of three ships with 700 Italian soldiers, intended for Ireland, which was placed under the command of Thomas Stukely, . . . [who, however], joined another expedition led by the king of Portugal; and the Irish never heard any more of him or his squadron. Meantime Fitzmaurice embarked for Ireland in 1579 in three small ships which he had procured in Spain, with about eighty Spaniards, accompanied by Dr. Allen, a Jesuit, and by [Dr. Sanders], . . . landed at the little harbour of Smerwick in Kerry, . . . and was joined by Desmond's two brothers, John and James Fitzgerald. But Fitzmaurice . . . was killed, in the same year, in a skirmish . . . [and with his death the rebellion was doomed]. John Fitzgerald now took command of the Munster insurgents; and soon collected a considerable force. . . . Lord justice Drury and Sir Nicholas Malbie pursued the insurgents; and two battles were fought in 1579; one at Gort-na-tubbrid or Springfield in the county Limerick, where Fitzgerald defeated the government forces; the other near Croon where he was defeated by Malbie. Malbie was joined by Sir William Pelham the newly appointed lord justice, and by the earl of Ormond, general of the army: and they goaded Desmond to join the rebellion. The frightful civil war broke out now more virulently than before; and brought the country to such a state as had never yet been witnessed. Several hostile bands belonging to both sides traversed the country for months, destroying everything and wreaking vengeance on the weak and defenceless. Desmond utterly ruined the rich and prosperous town of Youghal, leaving not one house fit to live in; but in his marches through those parts of the country belonging to the English he did not massacre the inhabitants. Not so with Pelham and Ormond, who carried fire and sword through the country, sparing no living thing that fell in their way. For the rebels it was a losing game all through. Pelham and Ormond took Desmond's strongholds one by one. . . . Meantime the insurrection blazed up in Leinster. . . . The newly appointed justice, Lord Grey of Wilton, who succeeded Pelham, at once mustered his men, and in August 1580 marched into the heart of Wicklow in pursuit of the insurgent army, who had retired into Glenmalure. Here he was suddenly attacked by viscount Baltinglass and by the great chief Fiach Mac Hugh O'Byrne; and his army was almost annihilated. The insurgents had long expected aid from the Continent, which at length arrived: 700 Spaniards and Italians landed about the 1st October 1580 from four vessels at Smerwick. They took possession of the ill-omened old fort of Dunanore, and proceeded to fortify it. They expected to see the people join them in crowds: but Ormond and Pelham had done their work so thoroughly that the peasantry held aloof, trembling with fear. After about six weeks Lord Grey laid siege to the fort; at the same time Admiral Winter arrived early in November with the English fleet, so that it was invested both by sea and land. After the cannon had battered the fort for some days the garrison surrendered. The Irish authorities assert they had promise of their lives; the English say they surrendered at discretion. Anyhow, Grey had the whole garrison massacred. . . . During the next year, 1581, Grey and his officers carried on the war with relentless barbarity; till at length it began to be felt that instead of quieting Ireland he was rather fanning rebellion; and in 1582 the queen recalled him. . . . After many narrow escapes . . . [Desmond was] taken and killed in 1583 by some soldiers and peasants in Kerry. This ended the great Geraldine rebellion. The war had made Munster a desert. In the words of the Four Masters:—'The lowing of a cow or the voice of a ploughman could scarcely be heard from Dunqueen in the west of Kerry to Cashel.' To what a frightful pass the wretched people had been brought by the constant destruction and spoiling of their crops and cattle, may be gathered from Edmund Spenser's description of what he witnessed with his own eyes:—'Notwithstanding that the same [province of Munster] was a most rich and plentiful countrey, full of corne and cattle, yet ere one yeare and a halfe they [the people] were brought to such wretchedness as that any stony hart would have rued the same. Out of every corner of the woods and glynnes they came creeping forth upon their hands, for their legges could not beare them, and if they found a plot of watercresses or shamrocks there they

flocked as to a feast for the time: that in short space of time there were none [i.e. no people] almost left, and a most populous and plentiful country suddainely left voide of man and beast.' " —P. W. Joyce, *Concise history of Ireland, pp.* 148-149, 151.—"After the attainder of Shane O'Neill more than half of Ulster was confiscated; and the attempt to clear off the old natives and plant new settlers was commenced without delay. In 1570 the peninsula of Ardes in Down was granted to the queen's secretary Sir Thomas Smith, who sent his illegitimate son with a colony to take possession. But this plantation was a failure; for the owners, the O'Neills of Clandeboy, not feeling inclined to part with their rights without a struggle, attacked and killed the young undertaker in 1573. The next undertaker was a more important man, Walter Devereux, earl of Essex. In 1573 he undertook to plant the district now occupied by the county Antrim, together with the Island of Rathlin. He waged savage war on the natives, stopping short at no amount of slaughter and devastation—burning their corn and depopulating the country to the best of his ability by sword and starvation. He treacherously seized young O'Donnell of Tirconnell and Brian O'Neill, chief of Clandeboy and sent them prisoners to Dublin. And he massacred hundreds of the Scots of Clandeboy and of Rathlin Island to gain possession of their lands. Yet after all this fearful work he failed, and he had to return to Dublin where he died. After the death of the earl of Desmond his vast estates, and those of 140 of his adherents, nearly a million acres, all in Munster, were confiscated by a parliament held in Dublin 1585. In 1586 proclamation was made all through England, inviting gentlemen to 'undertake' the plantation of this great and rich territory. Estates were offered at two pence or three pence an acre, and no rent at all was to be paid for the first five years. Every undertaker who took 12,000 acres was to settle eighty-six English families as tenants on his property, but no Irish; and so in proportion for smaller estates down to 4,000 acres. Sir Walter Raleigh got 42,000 acres in Cork and Waterford, and resided at Youghal, where his house is still to be seen. Edmund Spenser, the poet, received 12,000 acres in Cork, and took up his residence in one of Desmond's strongholds, Kilcolman Castle. . . . In the most important particulars, however, this great scheme turned out a failure. The English farmers and artisans did not come over in sufficient numbers; and the undertakers received the native Irish everywhere as tenants, in violation of the conditions. Some English came over indeed; but they were so harassed and frightened by the continual attacks of the dispossessed owners that many of them returned to England. And lastly, more than half the confiscated lands remained in possession of the owners, as no others could be found to take them. So the only result of this plantation was to root out a large proportion of the old gentry and to enrich a few undertakers. There were many other plantations during these times and subsequently, all resembling in their main features those sketched here."—P. W. Joyce, *Concise history of Ireland, p.* 154.—During all this Geraldine or Desmond rebellion Ulster had remained quiet; but in 1594 it began to show signs of disturbance. "Hugh O'Neil, the grandson of that Con O'Neil whom Henry VIII. had made Earl of Tyrone, had been brought up at the English court, and confirmed in the lordship of Tyrone by the English Government. In the brilliant court of Elizabeth the young Irish chief was distinguished for his gifts of mind and body. When he came of age he was allowed to return to Ireland to his earldom. Once within his own country, he assumed his ancestral title of The O'Neil, and revived all the customs of independent Irish chieftains. For long enough he took no part in any plots or movements against the Crown; but many things, the ties of friendship and of love, combined to drive him into rebellion. . . . Tyrone in the end consented to give the powerful support of his name and his arms to a skilfully planned confederation of the tribes. On all sides the Irish chiefs entered into the insurrection. O'Neil was certainly the most formidable Irish leader the English had yet encountered. . . . Victory followed victory [that of Yellow Ford, 1598, being the most important]. In a little while all Ireland, with the exception of Dublin and a few garrison towns, was in the hands of the rebels. Essex, and the largest army ever sent to Ireland, crossed the Channel to cope with him; but Essex made no serious move, and after an interview with Tyrone, in which he promised more than he could perform, he returned to England to his death. His place was taken by Lord Mountjoy, who, for all his love of angling and of Elizabethan 'play-books,' was a stronger man. Tyrone met him, was defeated [at Kinsale, 1601]. From that hour the rebellion was over. . . . At last Tyrone was compelled to come to terms. He surrendered his estates, renounced all claim to the title of The O'Neil, abjured alliance with all foreign powers, and promised to introduce English laws and customs into Tyrone. In return he received a free pardon and a re-grant of his title and lands by letters patent. Rory O'Donnell, Red Hugh's brother, also submitted, and was allowed to retain the title of Earl of Tyrconnel. Elizabeth was already dead, and the son of Mary Stuart [James I] was King of England when these terms were made; but they were not destined to do much good."—J. H. McCarthy, *Outline of Irish history, ch.* 4.—See also Ulster: 1584; 1585-1608.

Also in: T. D. McGee, *Popular history of Ireland, v.* 1-2, *bk.* 8, *ch.* 3-11.—M. Haverty, *History of Ireland, ch.* 32-35.—R. Bagwell, *Ireland under the Tudors, v.* 2.—T. Leland, *History of Ireland, v.* 2, *bk.* 4, *ch.* 1-5.—W. E. H. Lecky, *Ireland in the eighteenth century, v.* 1, *pp.* 5-18.

1607-1611.—Flight of earls and the Plantation of Ulster.—"With the submission of the Earl of Tyrone terminated the struggle between the Tudor princes and the native Celtic tribes. No chieftain henceforward claimed to rule his district in independence of the Crown of England. The Celtic land tenure, the Brehon laws, the language, customs, and traditions of the defeated race were doomed to gradual yet certain extinction. . . Before Elizabeth was laid in the grave, the object for which during so many years she had striven was thus at length accomplished; . . . but between the wars of the Tudors and the civil government of the Stuarts, still remain (the intermediate link, as it were, between the two) the fall of the able man who had created and so long conducted an almost national resistance, and the colonisation by English settlers of his demesnes and the adjoining parts of Ulster."—A. G. Richey, *Short history of the Irish people, ch.* 20.—"Lord Bacon, with whom ideas grew plentifully, had a suggestion at the service of the new king as profitable as the 'princelie policie' which he taught his predecessor. He was of opinion that a great settlement of English husbandmen in Ireland, able to guard as well as to till the land, would help to secure the interest of the Crown. Till this

was done Ireland was not effectually reduced, as Sir Edward Coke afterwards declared, 'for there was ever a back-door in the north.' The only question was where to plant them. O'Neill and Tyrconnell had proved dangerous adversaries; they possessed a fertile territory, and as their 'loose order of inheritance' had been duly changed into 'an orderly succession,' they were quite ripe for confiscation. But they had been ostentatiously received into favour at the close of the late war, and some decent pretence for destroying them so soon was indispensable. It was found in a letter conveniently dropped in the precincts of Dublin Castle, disclosing a new conspiracy. Of a conspiracy there was not then, and has not been since discovered, any evidence worth recording. The letter was probably forged, according to the practise of the times; but where so noble a booty was to be distributed by the Crown, one can conceive how ill-timed and disloyal any doubt of their treason would have appeared at the Court of James, or of the Lord Deputy. They were proclaimed traitors, and fled to the Continent to solicit aid from the Catholic Powers. Without delay James and his counsellors set to work. The King applied to the City of London to take up the lands of the wild Irish. They were well watered, he assured them, plentifully supplied with fuel, with good store of all the necessaries for man's sustenance; and moreover yielded timber, hides, tallow, canvas, and cordage for the purposes of commerce. The Companies of Skinners, Fishmongers, Haberdashers, Vintners and the like thereupon became Absentee Proprietors. . . . Six counties in Ulster were confiscated, and not merely the chiefs, but the entire population dispossessed. The fruitful plains of Armagh, the deep pastoral glens that lie between the sheltering hills of Donegal, the undulating meadow lands stretching by the noble lakes and rivers of Fermanagh, passed from the race which had possessed them since before the redemption of mankind. . . . The alluvial lands were given to English courtiers whom the Scotch king found it necessary to placate, and to Scotch partisans whom he dared not reward in England. The peasants driven out of the tribal lands to burrow in the hills or bogs were not treated according to any law known among civilised men. Under Celtic tenure the treason of the chief, if he committed treason, affected them no more than the offences of a tenant for life affect a remainder man in our modern practice. Under the feudal system they were innocent feudatories who would pass with the forfeited land to the Crown, with all their personal rights undisturbed. The method of settlement is stated with commendable simplicity by the latest historian. The 'plantators' got all the land worth their having; what was not worth their having —the barren mountains and trackless morass, which after two centuries still in many cases yield no human food—were left to those who in the language of an Act of Parliament of the period were 'natives of the realm of Irish blood, being descended from those who did inherit and possess the land.' Lest the frugality of the Celts should enable them to peacefully regain some of their possessions, it was strictly conditioned that no plantator or servitor should alienate his portion, or any part thereof, to the mere Irish. The confiscated territory amounted to two millions of acres. 'Of these a million and a half' says Mr. Froude, 'bog, forest, and mountain were restored to the Irish. The half million acres of fertile land were settled with families of Scottish and English Protestants.' It was in this manner that the famous Plantation of Ulster was founded."—C. G. Duffy, *Bird's eye view of Irish history, pp.* 74-78 (or *bk.* 1, *ch.* 4, *of "Young Ireland"*).—"The City of London had taken in hand the settlement of Derry, which was now to be rebuilt under the name of Londonderry, and to give its name to the county in which it stood, and which had hitherto been known as the county of Coleraine."—S. R. Gardiner, *History of England, v.* 1, *ch.* 10.—See also ULSTER: 1585-1608; 1609-1611.

ALSO IN: T. D'A. McGee, *Popular history of Ireland, v.* 2, *bk.* 9, *ch.* 1.—J. Harrison, *Scot in Ulster, ch.* 3.—C. P. Meehan, *Fate and fortunes of Hugh O'Neill, earl of Tyrone, and Rory O'Donel, earl of Tyrconnel.*

1625.—Graces of Charles I.—On the accession of Charles I, "one more effort was made by the Irish gentry to persuade, or rather to bribe, the Government to allow them to remain undisturbed in the possession of their property. They offered to raise by voluntary assessment the large sum of £120,000 in three annual instalments of £40,000, on condition of obtaining certain Graces from the King. These Graces, the Irish analogue of the Petition of Rights, were of the most moderate and equitable description. The most important were that undisturbed possession of sixty years should secure a landed proprietor from all older claims on the part of the Crown, that the inhabitants of Connaught should be secured from litigation by the enrolment of their patents, and that Popish recusants should be permitted, without taking the Oath of Supremacy, to sue for livery of their estates in the Court of Arches, and to practise in the courts of law. The terms were accepted. The promise of the King was given. The Graces were transmitted by way of instruction to the Lord Deputy and Council, and the Government also engaged, as a further security to all proprietors, that their estates should be formally confirmed to them and to their heirs by the next Parliament which should be held in Ireland. The sequel forms one of the most shameful passages in the history of English government of Ireland. In distinct violation of the King's solemn promise, after the subsidies that were made on the faith of that promise had been duly obtained, without provocation or pretext or excuse, Wentworth, who now presided with stern despotism over the government of Ireland, announced the withdrawal of the two principal articles of the Graces, the limitation of Crown claims by a possession of sixty years and the legalisation of the Connaught titles."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England in the eighteenth century, v.* 2, *ch.* 6.

ALSO IN: W. E. H. Lecky, *Ireland in the eighteenth century, v.* 1, *pp.* 30-34.

1633-1639.—Wentworth's system of "Thorough."—In the summer of 1633, Thomas Wentworth, afterwards earl of Strafford, was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland. "It was during his tenure of office as viceroy that he attempted to establish absolutism in Ireland, in order that, by the thereby enhanced power of the monarchy, he might be enabled to turn the scale in favour of a despotic government in England. And, never at a loss in the choice of his expedients, he contended for his scheme with an energy and a recklessness characteristic of the man. In the prosecution of his ends, he treated some of the most influential English noblemen resident in Ireland with the utmost indignity, simply with the object of intimidating them, at the outset, from any further opposition. One of them, Lord Mountnorris,

was even condemned to death on a charge of sedition and mutiny, merely for having made use of a disrespectful expression with reference to the lord-lieutenant, the representative of the sovereign. . . . Every longing of the Irish Protestant Church for independence was suppressed by Wentworth. According to his views, supreme authority in Church matters belonged absolutely and unconditionally to the king. He, therefore, abolished, in 1634, the 'Irish Articles,' which granted some concessions to Puritanism, and which had been introduced by Archbishop Usher in the reign of James I., and, at the same time, he united the Irish Established Church indissolubly with that of England. But above all things he considered it to be his duty to increase the army, which had hitherto been in a disorganised condition, and to put it in a state of complete efficiency; in order to do this, however, it was of the first importance to augment the revenue of the Crown, and in pursuance of this object he disdained no means. He extorted large sums of money from the Catholics by reminding them that, in case their contributions were too niggardly, there still existed laws against the Papists which could easily be put into operation again. The City of London Company, which some years before had effected the colonization of Londonderry, was suddenly called to account for not having fulfilled the stipulations contained in its charter, and condemned to pay a fine of £70,000. In the same spirit he conceived the idea of obtaining additions to the royal exchequer by a fresh settlement of Connaught; and, accordingly, he induced the Government, regardless of the engagements made some years previously at the granting of the 'graces,' to re-assert the claims it had formerly advanced to the possession of this province. And now, as in the worst days of James I, there again prevailed the old system of investigation into the validity of the titles by which the landed gentry of Connaught held their estates. Such persons as were practised in disinterring these unregistered titles were looked upon with favour, and as a means of inciting to more vigorous efforts, a premium of 20 per cent. on the receipts realized during the first year by the confiscation of property thus imperfectly registered was guaranteed to the president of the commission. With a cynical frankness, Wentworth declared that no money was ever so judiciously expended as this, for now the people entered into the business with as much ardour and assiduity as if it were their own private concern. . . . Just at that time [however] the Crown was engaged in a contest with Puritanism in Scotland, while, in England, the attempts of Charles to make his rule absolute had produced a state of public feeling which was in the highest degree critical. . . . In view of these considerations, therefore, Strafford postponed the colonization of the western province to a more favourable season. While we turn with just abhorrence from the contemplation of the reckless and despotic acts of this remarkable man, we must not, on the other hand, fail to acknowledge that his administration has features which present a brighter aspect. . . . In the exercise of a certain toleration, dictated, it is true, only by policy, he declined to meddle directly in the religious affairs of the Catholics. His greatest merit, however, consists in having advanced the material well-being of the country. He took a lively interest in agriculture and cattle-rearing, and by causing the rude and antiquated methods of husbandry which prevailed among the Irish agriculturalists to be superseded by more modern appliances, he contributed very materially to the advancement of this branch of industry. He also largely encouraged navigation, in consequence of which the number of Irish ships increased from year to year; and although it can not be denied that he endeavoured to suppress the trade in woollen cloth, from an apprehension that it might come into dangerous competition with English manufactures, he, nevertheless, sought to compensate the Irish in other ways, and the development of the Irish linen industry in the north was essentially his work. [See ULSTER: 1635.] . . . The Irish revenue annually increased, and the customs returns alone were trebled during the administration of Lord Strafford. He was, accordingly, in a position to place at the disposal of his royal master a standing army of 9,000 men. . . . It was, therefore, no idle boast, but a statement in strict accordance with the truth, which he made when writing to Archbishop Laud on 16th December, 1634: 'I can now say that the king is here as truly absolute as any sovereign in the world can be.' "—R. Hassencamp, *History of Ireland, ch. 3.*—See also ENGLAND: 1629-1640.

ALSO IN: S. R. Gardiner, *First two Stuarts and the Puritan revolution, ch. 5, sect. 4.*—Idem, *History of England, v. 8, ch. 76, v. 9, ch. 90.*—W. A. O'Conor, *History of the Irish people, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 1.*—T. Wright, *History of Ireland, bk. 4, ch. 22-24.*—T. Leland, *History of Ireland, bk. 5, ch. 1.*

1641.—Catholic rising.—Divergent accounts.—"The government which Strafford had established in Ireland fell with him, the office of viceroy was entrusted to some of the judges, and shorn of the powers which gave it authority over the whole country. The Irish army, which had been formed with so much difficulty, and maintained in spite of so much opposition, was disbanded without any attention being vouchsafed to the King's wish that it should be allowed to enter the Spanish service. . . . Under the influence of events in England, government based on prerogative, and on its connexion with the English hierarchy, as it had existed in Ireland since Elizabeth's time, fell to the ground. This revolution however might entail important results. The Irish people was Catholic: while the Protestant settlers were split into two hostile factions, and thereby the highest authority in the land, which bore a really Protestant character, was systematically weakened and almost destroyed, the thought of ridding themselves of it altogether was sure to arise in the nation. . . . It was the common object of all Catholics, alike of Anglo-Saxon and of Celtic origin, to restore to the Catholic Church the possession of the goods and houses that had been taken from her, and above all to put an end to the colonies established since James I in which Puritan tendencies prevailed. The Catholics of the old settlements were as eager for this as the natives. The idea originated in a couple of chiefs of old Irish extraction, Roger O'More and Lord Macguire, who had been involved in Tyrone's ruin, but were connected by marriage with several English families. The first man whom O'More won over was Lord Mayo, the most powerful magnate of old English descent in Connaught, of the house of De Burgh. . . . The best military leader in the confederacy, Col. Plunkett, was a Catholic of old English origin. . . . Among the natives the most notable personage was Phelim O'Neil, who, after having been long in England, and learning Protestantism there, on his return to Ireland went back to the old faith and the old customs:

he was reckoned the rightful heir of Tyrone, and possessed unbounded popular influence. The plan for which the Catholics of both Irish and English extraction now united was a very far-reaching one. It involved making the Catholic religion altogether dominant in Ireland: even of the old nobility none but the Catholics were to be tolerated: all the lands that had been seized for the new settlements were to be given back to the previous possessors or their heirs. In each district a distinguished family was to be answerable for order, and to maintain an armed force for the purpose. They would not revolt from the King, but still would leave him no real share in the government. Two lords justices, both Catholic, one of Irish, the other of old English family, were to be at the head of the government. . . . The preparations were made in profound silence: a man could travel across the country without perceiving any stir or uneasiness. But on the appointed day, Oct. 23, the day of St. Ignatius, the insurrection everywhere broke out." Dublin was saved, by a disclosure of the plot to the government, on the evening of the 22d, by a Protestant Irishman who had gained knowledge of it. "Several other places also held out, as Londonderry and Carrickfergus, and afforded places to which the Protestants might fly. But no one can paint the rage and cruelty which was vented, far and wide over the land, upon the unarmed and defenceless. Many thousands perished: their corpses filled the land and served as food for the kites. . . . Religious abhorrence entered into a dreadful league with the fury of national hatred. The motives of the Sicilian Vespers and of the night of St. Bartholomew were united. Sir Phelim, who at once was proclaimed Lord and Master in Ulster, with the title of the native princes, as Tyrone had been, and who in his proclamations assumed the tone of a sovereign, was not at all the man to check these cruelties. . . . With all this letting loose of ancient barbarism there was still some holding back. The Scottish settlements were spared, although they were the most hated of all, for fear of incurring the hostility of the Scottish as well as of the English nation. Immediately there was a rising in the five counties of the old English Pale: the gentry of Louth, under the leadership of the sheriff, took the side of the rebels. The younger men of Meath assembled on the Boyne, and commenced hostilities against the Protestants: so completely had their religious sympathies prevailed over their patriotism."—L. Von Ranke, *History of England, seventeenth century, v.* 2, *bk.* 8, *ch.* 7.—"It has been asserted by numerous writers, and is still frequently believed, that the Ulster rebellion began with a general and indiscriminate massacre of the Protestants, who were living without suspicion among the Catholics, resembling the massacre of the Danes by the English, the massacre of the French in the Sicilian Vespers, or the massacre of the Huguenots at St. Bartholomew. Clarendon has asserted that 'there were 40,000 or 50,000 of the English Protestants murdered before they suspected themselves to be in any danger, or could provide for their defence;' and other writers have estimated the victims within the first two months of the rebellion at 150,000, at 200,000, and even at 300,000. It may be boldly asserted that this statement of a sudden surprise, immediately followed by a general and organised massacre, is utterly and absolutely untrue. As is almost always the case in a great popular rising, there were, in the first outbreak of the rebellion, some murders, but they were very few; and there was at this time nothing whatever of the nature of a massacre."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of Ireland in the eighteenth century, v.* 1, *pp.* 46, 47.—"As to the number of those who actually perished, either from exposure or from the hands of assassins, it has been so variously estimated that it seems to be all but impossible to arrive at anything like exact statistics. . . . The real number of the victims grew to tenfold in the telling. Four thousand murdered swelled to forty thousand; and eight thousand who died of exposure to eighty thousand."—E. Lawless, *Ireland, p.* 245.—"This great rebellion was brought about by the measures taken to extirpate the Catholic religion; by the plantations of Chichester and Strafford; and by the non-confirmation of the graces, which made the people despair of redress. There were complaints from every side about religious hardships. As to the plantations, no one could tell where they might stop; and there was a widespread fear that the people of the whole country might be cleared off to make place for new settlers. Besides all this, those who had been dispossessed longed for the first opportunity to fall on the settlers and regain their homes and farms. Some of the Irish gentry held meetings to force a redress of these hardships by insurrection. . . . They hoped for help from abroad; for many of their banished kindred had by this time risen to positions of great influence in France, Spain, and the Netherlands. And they sent for Owen Roe O'Neill, a soldier who had greatly distinguished himself in the service of Spain, nephew of the great Hugh O'Neill, earl of Tyrone, inviting him home to lead the insurgent army. He replied urging an immediate rising and holding out hopes of French help from cardinal Richelieu. The 23rd of October 1641 was the day fixed on for a simultaneous rising. Dublin Castle with its large store of arms, and many of the fortresses and garrisons all over the country were to be seized, and the arms taken. Instructions were given to make the gentry prisoners, but to kill no one except in open conflict; and in general to have as little bloodshed as possible. The Ulster settlers from Scotland, being regarded as kinsmen, were not to be molested. On the evening of the 22nd of October, when the preparations had been completed in Dublin, a man named Owen O'Connolly, to whom MacMahon had confided the secret, went straight to Sir William Parsons, one of the lords justices, and told him of the plot. . . . But though Dublin was saved, the rising broke out on the 23rd all through the north. Sir Phelim O'Neill, by a treacherous stratagem, obtained possession of Charlemont fort. The rebels gained possession of Nawry, Dungannon, Castleblayney, and many smaller stations. Sir Phelim exhibited a forged commission, giving him authority, which he alleged he had received from king Charles, to which was attached the great seal he had found in one of the castles. At the end of a week nearly all Ulster was in the hands of the rebels, and Sir Phelim had an army of 30,000, armed with knives, pitchforks, scythes, and every weapon they could lay hands on. During the first week of the rising the original intention was carried out, and there was hardly any bloodshed. But most of the people who rose up were persons who had been deprived of their lands, and after a time they broke loose from all discipline and wreaked their vengeance without restraint and without mercy on the settlers. The country farm houses all over the settlements were attacked by detached parties. Multitudes were stripped and

turned out half naked from house and home—old and young, men, women, and children; and hundreds, vainly trying to make their way to Dublin or others of the Government stations, perished by the wayside, of exposure, hardship, and hunger. But there was even worse: for numbers were murdered, often with great cruelty. Some of these excesses were carried out by the orders of O'Neill himself; but the greatest number were the acts of irresponsible persons wreaking vengeance for their own private wrongs. The numbers of victims have been wildly exaggerated: but Dr. Warner, an English writer, a Protestant clergyman, who made every effort to come at the truth, believes that in the first two years of the rebellion, 4,000 were murdered, and that 8,000 died of ill usage and exposure. But even this is probably in excess. There was wholesale murder also on the other side. Some of the refugees who had fled to Carrickfergus, burning with their own wrongs, sallied out in November with the Scottish garrison, and slaughtered a number of harmless people in Island Magee, who had taken no part in any disturbance. . . . Towards the end of 1641, the old Anglo-Irish nobility of the Pale, who were all Catholics and all loyal, hearing of some threats uttered by Sir Charles Coote to extirpate the whole Catholic population, and finding themselves slighted and insulted by the lords justices on account of their religion, and their houses burned by Coote, combined for their own protection; and soon all the Pale was in revolt. In a short time the rebellion extended through all Ireland. All this time king Charles and his parliament were in open hostility in England: and the Puritans and the Scotch Presbyterians were amongst the most successful of his opponents. At the opening of 1642 we find in the distracted country four distinct parties, each with an army:—The old Irish, who aimed at complete separation from England; the old Anglo-Irish Catholics, who wanted religious and civil liberty, but not separation; the Puritans under general Munro, the most determined of the king's enemies, including the Scots of Ulster; and lastly the Protestant loyalist party in the Pale, who held Dublin. The native Irish party, led by Rory O'Moore, were the special opponents of the Puritans. The war went on during the early part of this year, 1642, with varying fortunes, sometimes the rebels victorious, sometimes the Government forces. In Ulster the rebels were losing ground, and losing heart, chiefly through the incompetency of Sir Phelim O'Neill. The Scottish army there soon amounted to 20,000 men under Munro, who acted and fought as it were for themselves, for they were equally opposed to both the king and the Catholics of both sections. Owen Roe O'Neill arrived in Ireland in July 1642, with a single ship and a hundred officers, and taking command in place of Sir Phelim, immediately set about organising the scattered Irish forces. He soon changed the whole aspect of affairs. He strongly denounced the past cruelties, and severely punished some of the worst offenders. Soon afterwards another important leader landed to join the confederates, Colonel Preston, brother of Lord Gormanstown, with 500 officers and some stores."—P. W. Joyce, *Concise history of Ireland, pp.* 194-198.

Also in: T. Carte, *Life of James, duke of Ormond, bk.* 3, *ch.* 1-2.—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England in the eighteenth century, v.* 2, *ch.* 6.—T. Leland, *History of Ireland, v.* 3, *bk.* 5, *ch.* 3-4.

1643.—Charles I makes peace with the rebels. See England: 1643 (June-September).

1644.—Loyalists aid Charles at Nantwich. See England: 1644 (January-July).

1645.—Secret treaty between Earl of Glamorgan and confederate Irish Catholics. See England: 1645 (June-December).

1646-1649.—Rebels become Royalists.—"The truce [offered by King Charles to the rebels in 1643] appears to have been well observed by each party, and resulted in a treaty of peace which was signed in July, 1646, by which the Roman Catholics obtained every demand which they put forward. This peace was nevertheless at once broken, and Ormond (who had been appointed Lord Lieutenant in January, 1643) was closely besieged in Dublin by a force, headed by Cardinal Rinuccini, the Papal Nuncio, who had assumed the command of the Irish Catholics. Finding himself in so dangerous a position, Ormond, by express direction from the king, offered his submission to the English Parliament, to whom he surrendered Dublin, Drogheda, Dundalk, and such other garrisons as remained in his hands. This transaction was completed on the 25th of July, 1647, when Colonel Jones took command of Dublin for the Parliament, and was made by them Commander-in-Chief in Ireland; his total force however amounted to but 5,000 men. The war now continued with varying success, the commanders for the Parliament being, in addition to Jones, Monk in Ulster and Lord Inchiquin in Munster. The latter in 1648 joined Ormond, who in September, upon the invitation of the Catholics, returned to Ireland, the Papal Nuncio having been driven from the country by his own party, who were alienated from him by his folly and insolence. At the end of 1648 there were therefore two parties in Ireland; the Parliamentary, which had been the English, holding Dublin and a few garrisons, and the Catholics, who, formerly rebels, were now held as Royalists, and whose new leader Ormond, on the death of Charles I., proclaimed the Prince of Wales, on the 16th of February, 1649, at Carrick, as King of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland. The English Parliament now at last resolved to put an end to disorder in Ireland, and with this object, in March, 1649, appointed Cromwell to the supreme command. [Before Cromwell arrived in Ireland, however, the Irish Royalists had reduced every garrisoned place except Dublin and Londonderry, defeating Monk, who held Dundalk, but being defeated (Aug. 2) by Jones when they laid siege to the capital. Though fought at the gates of Dublin, this was called the Battle of Rathmines. Ormond retreated with a loss of 4,000 killed and 2,500 prisoners.]"—N. L. Walford, *Parliamentary generals of the Great Civil War, ch.* 7.

Also in: T. Carte, *Life of James, duke of Ormond, v.* 3, *bk.* 4-5.—D. Murphy, *Cromwell in Ireland, ch.* 1-3.

1649-1650.—Cromwell's campaign.—"Cromwell had hardly set foot upon Irish soil before he took complete control of the situation. The enterprise, in his own eyes and in those of many who accompanied him, wore all the sacred hue of a crusade. 'We are come,' he announced solemnly, upon his arrival in Dublin, 'to ask an account of the innocent blood that hath been shed, and to endeavor to bring to an account all who, by appearing in arms, shall justify the same.' . . . Three thousand troops, the flower of the English cavaliers, with some of the Royalists of the Pale . . . had been hastily thrown by Ormond into Drogheda, under Sir Arthur Ashton, a gallant Royalist officer; and to Drogheda accordingly in September Cromwell marched. Summoned to yield,

the garrison refused. They were attacked, and fought desperately, driving back their assailants at the first assault. At the second, a breach was made in the walls, and Ashton and his force were driven into the citadel. 'Being thus entered,' Cromwell's despatch to the Parliament runs, 'we refused them quarter.' . . . From Drogheda, the Lord-General turned south to Wexford. Here an equally energetic defence was followed by an equally successful assault, and this also by a similar drama of slaughter. . . . The effect of these two examples was instantaneous. Most of the other towns surrendered upon the first summons. The Irish army fell back in all directions. An attempt was made to save Kilkenny, but after a week's defence it was surrendered. The same thing happened at Clonmel, and within a few months of his arrival nearly every strong place, except Waterford and Limerick, were in the Lord-General's hands. That Cromwell, from his own point of view, was justified in these proceedings, and that he held himself—even when slaughtering English Royalists in revenge for the acts of Irish rebels—a divinely-appointed agent sent to execute justice upon the ungodly, there can be little doubt. As regards ordinary justice his conduct was exemplary. Unlike most of the armies that had from time to time ravaged Ireland, he allowed no disorder. . . . The final steps by which the struggle was crushed out were comparatively tedious. Cromwell's men were attacked by that 'country sickness' which seems at that time to have been inseparable from Irish campaigns. . . . His own presence, too, was urgently required in England, so that he was forced before long to set sail, leaving the completion of the campaign in the hands of others. In the Royalist camp, the state of affairs was meanwhile absolutely desperate. The Munster colonists had gone over almost to a man to the enemy. The 'panther Inchiquin' had taken another bound in the same direction. The quarrels between Ormond and the old Irish party had grown bitterer than ever. The hatred of the extreme Catholic party towards him appears to have been if anything rather deeper than their hatred to Cromwell, and all the recent disasters were charged by them to his want of generalship. The young king had been announced at one moment to be upon the point of arriving in person in Ireland. . . . He got as far as Jersey, but there paused. Ireland under Cromwell's rule was not exactly a pleasant royal residence, and, on the whole, he appears to have thought it wiser to go no further. His signature, a year later, of the Covenant, in return for the Scotch allegiance, brought about a final collapse of the always thinly cemented pact in Ireland. The old Catholic party thereupon broke wholly away from Ormond, and after a short struggle he was again driven into exile. From this time forward, there was no longer a royal party of any sort left in the country. Under Hugh O'Neill, a cousin of Owen Roe, who . . . had died shortly after Cromwell's arrival, the struggle was carried on for some time longer. As in later times, Limerick was one of the last places to yield. Despite the evident hopelessness of the struggle, Hugh O'Neill and his half-starved men held it with a courage which awoke admiration even amongst the Cromwellians. When it was surrendered the Irish officers received permission to take service abroad. Galway, with a few other towns and castles, which still held out, now surrendered. The eight years' civil war was at last over, and nothing remained for the victors to do but to stamp out the last sparks, and call upon the survivors to pay the forfeit."—E. Lawless, *Story of Ireland, pp.* 261-265.

Also in: D. Murphy, *Cromwell in Ireland.*

1651.—Massachusetts colonists invited to Ireland by Cromwell. See Massachusetts: 1649-1651.

1652.—Kilkenny articles.—"On 12th May, 1652, the Leinster army of the Irish surrendered on terms signed at Kilkenny, which were adopted successively by the other principal armies between that time and the September following, when the Ulster forces surrendered. By these Kilkenny articles, all except those who were guilty of the first blood were received into protection, on laying down their arms; those who should not be satisfied with the conclusions the Parliament might come to concerning the Irish nation, and should desire to transport themselves with their men to serve any foreign state in amity with the Parliament, should have liberty to treat with their agents for that purpose."—J. P. Prendergast, *Cromwellian settlement of Ireland, pt.* 1, *sect.* 2.

1653.—Cromwellian settlement.—"The war ended at last in 1652. According to the calculation of Sir W. Petty, out of a population of 1,466,000, 616,000 had in eleven years perished by the sword, by plague, or by famine artificially produced. 504,000, according to this estimate, were Irish, 112,000 of English extraction. A third part of the population had been thus blotted out, and Petty tells us that according to some calculations the number of the victims was much greater. Human food had been so successfully destroyed that Ireland, which had been one of the great pasture countries of Europe, was obliged to import cattle from Wales for consumption in Dublin. The stock, which at the beginning of the war was valued at four millions, had sunk to an eighth of that value, while the price of corn had risen from 12s. to 50s. a bushel. Famine and the sword had so done their work that in some districts the traveller rode twenty or thirty miles without seeing one trace of human life, and fierce wolves . . . multiplied with startling rapidity through the deserted land, and might be seen prowling in numbers within a few miles of Dublin. Liberty was given to able-bodied men to abandon the country and enlist in foreign service, and from 30,000 to 40,000 availed themselves of the permission. . . . Slave-dealers were let loose upon the land, and many hundreds of destitute or vagrant boys and young women were torn away from their country, shipped to Barbadoes, and sold for terms of years to the planters. Merchants from Bristol entered keenly into the traffic."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of Ireland in the eighteenth century, v.* 1, *p.* 104.—"The officers of the army were eager to take Irish lands in lieu of their arrears. . . . But the adventurers . . . must be first settled with, as they had a claim to about one million of acres, to satisfy the sums advanced for putting down the rebellion on the faith of the Act of 17 Charles I. (1642), and subsequent Acts and Ordinances, commonly called 'The Acts of Subscription.' By these, lands for the adventurers must be first ascertained, before the rest of the country could be free for disposal by the Parliament to the army. . . . On the 26th of September . . . [1653] the Parliament passed an Act for the new planting of Ireland with English. The government reserved for themselves all the towns, all the church lands and tithes. . . . They reserved also for themselves the four counties of Dublin, Kildare, Carlow, and Cork. Out of the lands and tithes thus reserved, the government were to satisfy public

debts, private favourites, eminent friends of the republican cause in Parliament, regicides, and the most active of the English rebels, not being of the army. . . . The amount due to the adventurers was £360,000. This they divided into three lots, of which £110,000 was to be satisfied in Munster, £205,000 in Leinster, and £45,000 in Ulster, and the moiety of ten counties was charged with their payment:—Waterford, Limerick, and Tipperary, in Munster; Meath, Westmeath, King's and Queen's Counties, in Leinster; and Antrim, Down, and Armagh, in Ulster. But, as all was required by the Adventurers Act to be done by lot, a lottery was appointed to be held in Grocers' Hall, London, for the 20th July, 1653. . . . A lot was then to be drawn by the adventurers, and by some officer appointed by the Lord General Cromwell on behalf of the soldiery, to ascertain which baronies in the ten counties should be for the adventurers, and which for the soldiers."—J. P. Prendergast, *Cromwellian settlement of Ireland, preface, pt.* 1-2. —"The Irish who were considered least guilty were assigned land in Connaught, and that province, which rock and morass have doomed to a perpetual poverty, and which was at this time almost desolated by famine and by massacre, was assigned as the home of the Irish race. The confiscations were arranged under different categories; but they were of such a nature that scarcely any Catholic or even old Protestant landlord could escape. All persons who had taken part in the rebellion before November 10, 1642, all who had before that date assisted the rebels with food or in any other way, and also about one hundred specified persons, including Ormond, Bishop Bramhall, and a great part of the aristocracy of Ireland, were condemned to death and to the absolute forfeiture of their estates. All other landowners who had at any period borne arms against the Parliament, either for the rebels or for the King, were to be deprived of their estates, but were promised land of a third of the value in Connaught. If, however, they had held a higher rank than major, they were to be banished from Ireland. Papists who during the whole of the long war had never borne arms against the Parliament, but who had not manifested a 'constant good affection' towards it, were to be deprived of their estates, but were to receive two-thirds of the value in Connaught. Under this head were included all who lived quietly in their houses in quarters occupied by the rebels or by the King's troops, who had paid taxes to the rebels or to the King after his rupture with the Parliament, who had abstained from actively supporting the cause of the Parliament. Such a confiscation was practically universal. The ploughmen and labourers who were necessary for the cultivation of the soil were suffered to remain, but all the old proprietors, all the best and greatest names in Ireland were compelled to abandon their old possessions, to seek a home in Connaught, or in some happier land beyond the sea."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of Ireland in the eighteenth century, v.* 1, *pp.* 105-106.—"Connaught was selected for the habitation of all the Irish nation by reason of its being surrounded by the sea and the Shannon, all but ten miles, and the whole easily made into one line by a few forts. To further secure the imprisonment of the nation, and cut them off from relief by sea, a belt four miles wide, commencing one mile to the west of Sligo, and so winding along the coast and Shannon, was reserved by the Act of 27th September, 1653, from being set out to the Irish, and was given to the soldiery to plant. Thither all the Irish were to remove at latest by the first day of May, 1654, except Irish women married to English Protestants before the 2d December, 1650, provided they became Protestants; except, also, boys under fourteen and girls under twelve, in Protestant service and to be brought up Protestants; and, lastly, those who had shown during the ten years' war in Ireland their constant good affection to the Parliament of England in preference to the king. There they were to dwell without entering a walled town, or coming within five miles of same, on pain of death. All were to remove thither by the 1st of May, 1654, at latest, under pain of being put to death by sentence of a court of military officers, if found after that date on the English side of the Shannon." In the actual enforcement of the law—found impracticable in all its rigor—there were many special dispensations granted, and extensions of time.—J. P. Prendergast, *Cromwellian settlement of Ireland, preface, pt.* 1-2.—See also ENGLAND: 1653 (December).

ALSO IN: J. A. Froude, *English in Ireland in the eighteenth century, v.* 1, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 2.—J. Lingard, *History of England, v.* 10, *ch.* 6.—Earl of Dunraven, *Legacy of past years, pp.* 58-65.

1655.—Cromwell's deportation of girls to Jamaica. See JAMAICA: 1655.

1660-1665.—Restored Stuarts and their Act of Settlement.—"On the fall of Richard Cromwell, a council of officers was established in Dublin; these summoned a convention of deputies from the protestant proprietors; and the convention tendered to Charles the obedience of his ancient kingdom of Ireland. . . . To secure the royal protection, they made the king an offer of a considerable sum of money, assured him, though falsely, that the Irish catholics meditated a general insurrection, and prayed him to summon a protestant parliament in Ireland, which might confirm the existing proprietors in the undisturbed possession of their estates. The present was graciously accepted, and the penal laws against the Irish catholics were ordered to be strictly enforced; but Charles was unwilling to call a parliament, because it would necessarily consist of men whose principles, both civil and religious, he had been taught to distrust. The first measure recommended to him by his English advisers, with respect to Ireland, was the re-establishment of episcopacy. For this no legislative enactment was requisite. His return had given to the ancient laws their pristine authority. . . . In a short time the episcopal hierarchy was quietly restored to the enjoyment of its former rights, and the exercise of its former jurisdiction. To this, a work of easy accomplishment, succeeded a much more difficult attempt,—the settlement of landed property in Ireland. The military, whom it was dangerous to disoblige, and the adventurers, whose pretensions had been sanctioned by Charles I., demanded the royal confirmation of the titles by which they held their estates; and the demand was opposed by a multitude of petitioners claiming restitution or compensation [protestant royalists, loyal catholics, &c.]. . . . [Humanity, gratitude, and justice, called on the king to listen to many of these claims. . . . From an estimate delivered to the king, it appeared that there still remained at his disposal forfeited lands of the yearly rental of from eighty to one hundred thousand pounds; a fund sufficiently ample, it was contended, to 'reprize' or compensate all the Irish really deserving of the royal favour. Under this impression, Charles published his celebrated declaration for the settlement of Ireland. It provided that no person deriving his title from the adventurers

under the parliament, or the soldiers under the commonwealth, should be disturbed in the possession of his lands, without receiving an equivalent from the fund for reprisals; that all innocents, whether protestants or catholics, that is, persons who had never adhered either to the parliament or the confederates, should be restored to their rightful estates." After much contention between deputations from both sides sent to the king, an act was passed through the Irish parliament substantially according to the royal declaration. "But to execute this act was found to be a task of considerable difficulty. By improvident grants of lands to the church, the dukes of York, Ormond, and Albemarle, the earls of Orrery, Montrath, Kingston, Massarene, and several others, the fund for reprisals had been almost exhausted." New controversies and agitations arose, which finally induced the soldiers, adventurers, and grantees of the crown to surrender one third of their acquisitions, for the augmenting of the fund for reprisals. "The king, by this measure, was placed in a situation [August, 1665], not indeed to do justice, but to silence the most importunate or most deserving among the petitioners. . . . But when compensation had thus been made to a few of the sufferers, what, it may be asked, became of the officers who had followed the royal fortune abroad, or of the 3,000 catholics who had entered their claims of innocence? To all these, the promises which had been made by the act of settlement were broken; the unfortunate claimants were deprived of their rights, and debarred from all hope of future relief. A measure of such sweeping and appalling oppression is perhaps without a parallel in the history of civilized nations. Its injustice could not be denied; and the only apology offered in its behalf was the stern necessity of quieting the fears and jealousies of the Cromwellian settlers, and of establishing on a permanent basis the protestant ascendancy in Ireland. . . . The following is the general result. The protestants were previously [i. e., before the Cromwellian Settlement] in possession of about one moiety of all the profitable lands in the island; of the second moiety, which had been forfeited under the commonwealth, something less than two-thirds was by the act confirmed to the protestants; and of the remainder a portion almost equal in quantity, but not in quality, to one-third, was appropriated to the catholics."—J. Lingard, *History of England, v.* 11, *ch.* 4.

Also in: J. A. Froude, *The English in Ireland, v.* 1, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 3.—T. Carte, *Life of James, duke of Ormond, v.* 4, *bk.* 6.

1667-1780.—Effect of mercantile policy.—Ruin of wool trade.—Silk and cotton manufactures.—"When her cattle trade was ruined by the Act of 1667, Ireland turned to the promotion of her woollen manufactures. In this she made good progress and developed a considerable foreign trade. . . . The English traders grew alarmed, and began to send petitions to the King, declaring their fears lest the Irish, owing to the lowness of taxation and the cheapness of labour in Ireland, might be able to undersell them. . . . In September, 1698, the Lord Justices put before the Irish Houses, at his Majesty's command, a bill entitled 'An Act for laying an additional Duty upon Woollen Manufactures exported out of this Kingdom.' The servile Parliament passed the Bill, though the majority in its favour was very narrow in the Lords, and not large even in the Commons. The duties imposed on fine cloths were so heavy as almost to ruin the trade; but friezes were, for the present, exempt. In 1699, however, an English Act was passed, prohibiting absolutely the export of Irish woollen or mixed woollen goods to any country whatever, except England, and there the high duties were retained. At the same time, English woollen stuffs coming to Ireland paid only a very small tax. Terrible distress resulted in Ireland from these regulations. Thousands of families, for the most part Protestants, had subsisted by the woollen trade. Then a great tide of emigration flowed, especially from Ulster. . . . The European countries began, often with the help of the expatriated Irish weavers, to set up manufactures of woollen cloth for themselves, or to improve those which they already possessed. . . . The woollen trade was by no means the only Irish industry which was ruined by the selfish commercial jealousy of England. An infant cotton industry was crushed by the imposition of heavy duties in the reigns of William and of Anne. . . . After the Williamite wars, Ireland had started the manufacture of glass, for which the good quality of her kelp gave her special facilities. An Act of 1737 forbade Ireland to import glass from any country but Great Britain; one of 1746 prohibited her from exporting her own glass at all. . . . A series of embargoes on the export of provisions from Ireland abroad, imposed from 1770 to 1780, was ruinous to the trade and caused great distress. After 1780 it revived. . . . King William made some efforts himself to promote the Irish linen manufactures, and induced Louis Crommelin, a Huguenot refugee, who had been head of a linen factory in France, to settle in Lisburn, giving him an annual salary (1698). . . . Irish linens were admitted freely to England, but the colonial market was closed to her till 1705. . . . In 1743, 1746 and 1770, the British Parliament passed Acts by which bounties were given for the export to foreign countries of all classes of British linens, and of plain Irish linens, coarse and fine. Thus, in her foreign markets, Ireland had to contend in regard to her fancy linens with the bounty-fed products of Great Britain, for she was not permitted by England to give bounties on her own."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 372-374.

1685-1688.—Reign of James II.—Domination of Tyrconnel and Catholics.—"At the accession of James II., in 1685, he found the native Irish, all of whom were Roman Catholics, opposed to the English rule, as to that of a conquering minority. . . . Of the settlers, the Scotch Presbyterians shared the feelings of their brethren in their native country, and hated Episcopalians with the true religious fury. In the Irish Parliament the Presbyterians and Episcopalians were nearly balanced, whilst the Protestant Nonconformists, in numbers almost equalling the other two parties, had but few seats in the Parliament. The Episcopalians alone were hearty supporters of the house of Stuart; the Presbyterians and Nonconformists were Whigs. James was in a most favourable position for tranquilising Ireland, for, as a Roman Catholic, he was much more acceptable to the native Irish than his predecessors had been. Had he followed his true interests, he would have endeavoured, firstly, to unite together, as firmly as possible, the English settlers in Ireland, and secondly, by wise acts of mediation, to bridge over the differences between the English and Irish. Thus he might have welded them into one people. James, however, followed a directly opposite policy, and the results of this misgovernment of Ireland are visible at the present day. The Duke of Ormond was at the time of the death of Charles II. both lord lieutenant and commander

of the forces. . . . Soon after his accession James recalled him, and the office of lord lieutenant was bestowed on his own brother-in-law, Lord Clarendon, whilst the post of general of the troops was given to Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel. Talbot . . . was a coarse, vulgar, truculent ruffian, greedy and unprincipled; but in the eyes of James he had great virtues, for he was devoted to the Romish Church and to his sovereign. 'Lying Dick Talbot,' as he was called, was raised by James to the peerage as Earl of Tyrconnel. Lord Clarendon was, from the time of his appointment, hampered by his associate," who, finally, in 1687, supplanted him, gathering the reins of government into his own hands, "not indeed as lord lieutenant, but with the power which Ormond had formerly held, although under a new title, that of lord deputy. The rule of Tyrconnel entirely subverted the old order of things. Protestants were disarmed and Protestant soldiers were disbanded. The militia was composed wholly of Roman Catholics. The dispensing power in the royal prerogative set aside the statutes of the kingdom, and the bench and privy council were occupied by Roman Catholics. Vacant bishoprics of the Established Church remained unfilled, and their revenues were devoted to Romish priests. Tithes were with impunity withheld from the clergy of the Establishment. . . . The hatred of the Irish Roman Catholics towards the Protestant settlers was excited to the utmost under Tyrconnel's rule. The former now hoped to mete out to the latter a full measure of retaliation. The breach was widened owing to the fear and distrust openly showed by the Protestants, and has never since been effectually repaired." Before the occurrence of the Revolution which drove James from his throne, in 1688, "Tyrconnel had disarmed all the Protestants, except those in the North. He had a large force of 20,000 men under arms, and of this force all the officers were trustworthy and Papists. He had filled the corporations of the towns with adherents of James."—E. Hale, *Fall of the Stuarts, ch.* 10, 13.

1689.—James II in Ireland.—Parliament in Dublin.—Acts of Settlement repealed.—Act of Attainder.—Battle of the Boyne.—Siege of Limerick.—"As a war with England was inevitable, all the military authorities agreed that a diversion in Ireland would be invaluable. The forces of England and Holland would be drawn off there, and Ireland would in the first stages of the war prove of the utmost service in preventing William from acting vigorously in any other quarter, and eventually would serve as a basis for a more serious undertaking against England. In March, 1690, a corps consisting of six regiments, 6300 men under Count Lauzan and several officers, and supported by a fine train of artillery and abundant stores of ammunition, was sent to Ireland. The Count of Avaux with a large sum of money had been in Ireland for some months as diplomatic representative of the French government. He was a man of considerable acuteness, but lacked the power of conciliation and took up a position of hostility to all Protestants in Ireland. Both James and Louis hoped to pacify Ireland and to give the country a government under which Protestants could exist. But the anti-English views of the Catholic Irish were too strong for them and helped to bring about the chaos which followed the arrival of James in the country. To Seignelay it was of the utmost importance that James II. should be maintained in Ireland. Cork and Kinsale he regarded as French ports. Tourville was made Commander-in-chief of the united French fleet, and was ordered to seek out the English ships in their harbours, to inflict as much damage as possible and then to station himself off the mouth of the Thames to prevent communication between the Dutch and English, and to destroy the trade between England and the North. The success of James II. was therefore all-important for the military, naval, and commercial undertakings of the French government. But William III. was equally conscious of the absolute necessity on the one hand of a loyal, or at any rate, of an Ireland powerless for harm, and on the other of the command of the Channel. The way in which he grappled with the combined forces of France and of Catholic Ireland and the orders given to the English Admiral showed that he was well aware of the peril to which England was exposed. . . . Precise orders were sent to Admiral Torrington . . . to attack Tourville wherever he could be found. Through Torrington's leaving the Dutch unsupported the French won a naval battle off Beachy Head on July 10th. . . . The contest for the supremacy of the Channel remained for the moment undecided but the schemes of Louis in Ireland had already suffered an irreparable blow. James had left France early in 1689. 'The best thing,' said Louis, on wishing him farewell, 'that I can wish for you is that I may never see you again.' But the principles which were defended by the greatest monarchy of the age were not destined to take root in Ireland. The political and religious controversy which was being fought out in Europe was to be decided in Ireland in a sense hostile to the wishes and ideas of Louis XIV." —A. Hassall, *Louis XIV and the zenith of the French monarchy, pp.* 271-274.—"James's appearance in Ireland was hailed with a little deserved burst of enthusiasm. As a king, as a Catholic, and as a man in deep misfortune, he had a triple claim upon the kindly feeling of a race never slow to respond to such appeals. . . . Accompanied by the French ambassador, amid a group of English exiles, . . . the least worthy of the Stuarts arrived in Dublin, and took up his residence at the castle. . . . In the interests of his own master, D'Avaux, the French envoy, strongly supported Tyrconnel and the Irish leaders. The game of France was less to replace James on the English throne than to make of Ireland a permanent thorn in the side of England. With this view he urged James to remain in Dublin, where he would necessarily be more under the direct control of the parliament. James, however, declined this advice, and persisted in going north, where he would be within a few hours' sail of Great Britain. Once Londonderry had fallen (and it was agreed upon all hands that Londonderry could not hold out much longer), he could at any moment cross to Scotland, where it was believed that his friends would at once rally around him. But Londonderry showed no symptoms of yielding. In April, 1689, James appeared before its walls, believing that he had only to do so to receive its submission. He soon found his mistake. Lundy, its governor, was ready indeed to surrender it into his hands, but the townsfolk declined the bargain, and shut their gates resolutely in the king's face. Lundy escaped for his life over the walls, and James, in disgust, returned to Dublin, leaving the conduct of the siege in the hands of Richard Hamilton, who was afterwards superseded in the command by De Rosen, a Muscovite in the pay of France, who prosecuted it with a barbarity unknown to the annals of civilized warfare. . . . [Finally] De Rosen broke up his camp and moved off in disgust, leaving behind him the little city exhausted but triumphant,

having saved the honour of its walls and won itself imperishable fame. [See also LONDONDERRY: 1689; ULSTER: 1687-1689.] While all this was going on in the north, James in Dublin had been busily employed in deluging the country with base money to supply his own necessities, with the natural result of ruining all who were forced to accept it. At the same time the Parliament under his nominal superintendence had settled down to the congenial task of reversing most of the earlier Acts and putting everything upon an entirely new footing. It was a Parliament composed, as was natural, almost wholly of Roman Catholics, only six Protestants having been returned. . . . [It at once moved to] establish freedom of worship, giving the Roman Catholic tithes to the priests. So far no objections could reasonably be raised. Next, however, followed the question of forfeitures."—E. Lawless, *Story of Ireland, pp.* 284-287.—"An assembly of men impoverished by war and by the legislation of the victors, and long excluded from public life, found themselves in power, and were above all things anxious to regain the possessions of their ancestors. James opened the proceedings with a speech in which he thanked the Irish nation for their loyalty, and declared for liberty of conscience. . . . He was anxious to relieve sufferers by the Act of Settlement 'as far forth as may be consistent with reason, justice, and the public good of my people.' . . . The great work of the session was the repeal of the Acts of Settlement and Explanation. James saw that such a revolution would destroy his chances in England; but he was in the hands of the Irish, who would not hear of any compromise. Not only members of Parliament, but the soldiers in the street, said that if he would not restore them to their own, they would not fight to restore him to his. The Commons insisted on total repeal, but there was opposition on one point. Since the Parliament of 1661 much property had changed hands for value, and it was now proposed to confiscate the land and all the improvements. . . . The Commons would listen to nothing. Those who bought forfeited lands, they said, bought stolen goods, and had no rights at all. Within a few days of the opening of Parliament, and while the Repeal Bill was as yet not quite ready, an address to the King was presented by Lord Granard on behalf of the purchasers. It was written by Chief Justice Keating, who showed that the credit of the country and the royal revenues would be destroyed if property legally acquired were to be confiscated without regard to two solemn Acts of Parliament or to the promises of two Kings. The Protestants had already been deprived of their movable goods by the Rapparees, 'that is, the armed multitude,' and would be completely and finally ruined if they lost their lands also. 'The thriving Catholics who were purchasers (as most of the province of Connaught are) are likewise to be turned out of their estates and possessions, and their own and the improvements of those who hold under them utterly lost.' . . . A Bill for recognition of the King's title received the royal assent on the fourth day of the session. No difficulty was made about declaring the Irish Parliament independent, nor about annulling all patents conferring office during life or good behaviour, but the Commons would do nothing further until the Act of Settlement had been repealed; and many of the old proprietors seized upon land without waiting for the legal sanction. . . .

"James saw clearly enough that to annul the legislation of his father and brother would be fatal to his chances in England. After consulting Avaux, who saw how Ireland, which he hoped to make a dependency of France, would be impoverished, the King conferred privately with some members of both Houses, and found that he could struggle no longer, but it was agreed that purchases under the Settlement should have reprisals out of forfeited land. Bishop Dopping made a gallant but vain effort to stem the tide. The King, he said, would have no regular revenue, for the Protestants were already stripped by the Rapparees of all but the bare walls. It was now proposed to take them also, and improving Catholics would be in no better case. . . . 'In many parts of the kingdom the land is hardly able to pay the King's quit-rent by reason of the universal depredations that reign everywhere; and can it be imagined but that things will grow far worse when the ablest Catholic merchants, and the most wealthy purchasers of that communion are ruined and undone?' . . . [Nevertheless] the Acts of Settlement and Explanation, and every transaction growing out of them, were 'absolutely repealed, annulled, and made void to all intents, constructions, and purposes whatever, as if the same had never been made or passed,' and the land restored to the representatives of those who possessed it on October 22, 1641, the day before the rebellion broke out. Real property belonging to anyone who had been in rebellion since August 1, 1688, or in communication with those who had, was forfeited without trial and vested in the King. The property of the London companies in Ulster was confiscated. . . . [This was followed by an] Act of Attainder, passed before the end of June. . . . The Act affected some 2400 persons, of whom more than half, from the Primate and the Duke of Ormonde down to yeomen and shopkeepers, whether 'dead or alive, or killed in open rebellion, or now in arms against Your Majesty or otherwise,' were attainted of high treason, and subjected to all its penalties, unless they voluntarily surrendered by the 10th of August. . . . In considering the dealings of England with Ireland, nothing has been more justly blamed than the commercial restraints imposed by the stronger country upon the weaker. Trade from Ireland to the plantations was forbidden except through England. The Irish Parliament now abolished this restriction, but it was not forgotten that James was still nominally King of England, and therefore colonial goods might be transported in Irish bottoms to Great Britain as well as to Ireland, thus dispensing with English legislation to the contrary. It was recognised that Ireland possessed but few merchant vessels, and the building of more was encouraged by large premiums, . . . and schools of navigation were to be established at Dublin, Belfast, Waterford, Cork, Limerick, and Galway. But while thus moving in the direction of free trade the Irish Parliament passed another Act prohibiting the importation of English, Scotch, or Welsh coal. . . . On the last day of the session an Act was passed at the instance of the Commissioners, vesting in the King all the personalty, including arrears of rent, left by absentees mentioned in the Act of Attainder, or who aided and abetted the Prince of Orange. In August, when Parliament had risen, the Commissioners extended their operations to Dublin, but they were instructed not to strip houses or injure trade. The business was so mismanaged, and there was so much dishonesty, that His Majesty had little profit from the widespread ruin. Six months after the passing of the Act, Avaux reported that the King had not received, and he believed never would receive, more than one thousand crowns out

of confiscated property worth two millions. . . . The penal laws that followed are accounted for, though not excused, by the conduct of the native Irish Parliament during its short tenure of power. The treatment of the French Protestants by James's patron had also done much to embitter the feelings of the victors. Clever men saw at the time, and everyone can see now, that James's Irish adventure was hopeless. He thought of Ireland only as a stepping-stone to England, and his French supporters thought only of diverting William's attention from the Continent, and thus strengthening the position of their own King. The Irish very naturally thought first of regaining their lands, and hoped, with the aid of French power, to hold the country in spite of England. The English colony would have been destroyed if James had been victorious, and the Protestant landowners, who received no mercy from an Irish Parliament, were not likely to show much when their turn came."—R. Bagwell, *Ireland under the Stuarts and during the interregnum, v.* 3, *pp.* 224-228, 233, 236, 238.—"These acts were perhaps what is called only natural, but it must be owned that they were also terribly unfortunate. Up to that date those directly penal laws against Catholics which afterwards disfigured the statute book were practically unknown. A Catholic could sit in either Irish House of Parliament; he could inherit lands, and bequeath them to whom he would; he could educate his children how and where he liked. The terror planted in the breast of the Protestant colony by that inoperative piece of legislation found its voice in the equally violent, but unfortunately not equally inoperative Acts passed by them in the hour of their triumph. Acts, by means of which it was fondly hoped that their enemies would be thrown into such position of dependence and humiliation that they could never again rise up to be a peril."—E. Lawless, *Ireland, p.* 287.—"It is not alleged that a single person was executed under the Act; and though the common soldiers on the side of William, and the rapparees on the side of James, were guilty of much violence, it cannot be said that the leaders on either side showed in their actions any disposition to add unnecessarily to the tragedy of the struggle. If the Irish Act of Attainder was almost unparalleled in its magnitude, it was at least free from one of the worst faults of this description of legislation, for it did not undertake to supersede the action of the law courts. It was a conditional attainder, launched in the midst of a civil war, against men who, having recently disregarded the summons of their sovereign, were beyond the range of the law, in case they refused to appear during an assigned interval before the law courts for trial. The real aim of the Act was confiscation; and, in this respect at least, it was by no means unexampled. Every political trouble in Ireland had long been followed by a confiscation of Irish soil."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of Ireland in the eighteenth century, v.* 1, *p.* 131.

BATTLE OF THE BOYNE
(After painting by Benjamin West)

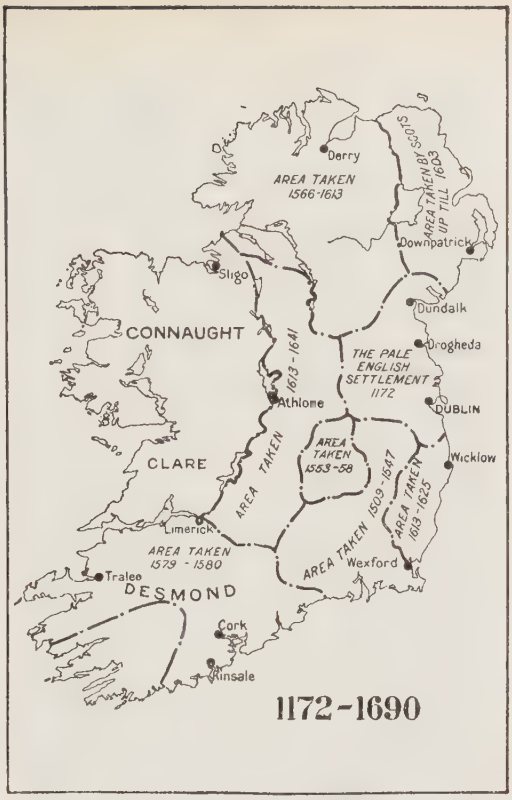
"In the north a brilliant little victory had meanwhile been won by the Enniskillen troops under Colonel Wolseley, at Newtown Butler, where they attacked a much larger force of the enemy and defeated them, killing a large number and driving the rest back in confusion. William was still detained in England, but had despatched the Duke

of Schomberg with a considerable force. Schomberg's men were mostly raw recruits, and the climate tried them severely. He arrived in the autumn, but not venturing to take the field, established himself at Dundalk, where his men misbehaved and all but mutinied and where a pestilence, shortly afterwards breaking out, swept them [off] in multitudes. On both sides, indeed, the disorganization of the armies was great. Fresh reinforcements had arrived for James, under the Comte de Lauzun, in return for which an equal number of Irish soldiers under Colonel Macarthy had been drafted for service to France. In June, 1690, William himself landed at Carrickfergus with an army of 35,000 men, composed of nearly every nationality in Europe—Swedes, Dutch, Swiss, Batavians, French Huguenots, Finns, with about 15,000 English soldiers. He came up to James's army upon the banks of the Boyne, about twenty miles from Dublin, and here it was that the turning battle of the campaign was fought [July 1, 1690]. . . . The Irish foot, upon whom the brunt of the action fell, were untrained, indifferently armed, and had never before been in action; their opponents were veterans trained in European wars. They were driven back, fled, and a considerable number of them slaughtered. The Irish cavalry stood firm, but their valour was powerless to turn the day. Schomberg was killed, but William remained absolute and undisputed master of the field. At the first shock of reverse James flew down the hill and betook himself to Dublin. . . . He fled south, ordering the bridges to be broken down behind him; took boat at Waterford, and never rested until he found himself once more safe upon French soil. His flight at least left the field clear for better men. Patrick Sarsfield now took the principal command and prosecuted the campaign with a vigour of which it had hitherto shown no symptoms. . . . William, now established in Dublin, issued a proclamation offering full and free pardon to all who would lay down their arms. He was genuinely anxious to avoid pushing the struggle to the bitter end, and to hinder further bloodshed. Though deserted by their king, and fresh from overwhelming defeat, the Irish troops showed no disposition, however, of yielding. Athlone, Galway, Cork, Kinsale and Limerick still held out, and behind the walls of the last named the remains of James's broken army was now chiefly collected. Those walls, however, were miserably weak and the French generals utterly scouted the possibility of their being held. Tyrconnel, too, advised a capitulation, but Sarsfield insisted upon holding the town, and the Irish soldiers—burning to wipe out the shame of the Boyne—supported him like one man. William was known to be moving south to the attack, and accordingly Lauzun and Tyrconnel, with the rest of the French troops, moved hastily away to Galway, leaving Sarsfield to defend Limerick as he could. They had hardly left before William's army appeared in sight with the king himself at their head, and drew up before the walls. A formidable siege train, sent after him from Dublin, was to follow in a day or two. Had it arrived it would have finished the siege at once. Sarsfield accordingly slipped out of the town under cover of night, fell upon it while it was on its way through the Silvermine Hills in Tipperary, killed some sixty of the men who were in charge, and filling the cannons with powder, burst them with an explosion which startled the country round for miles, and the roar of which is said to have reached William in his camp before Limerick. This brilliant little feat delayed the siege. Nevertheless it was pressed on with great vigour. . . . It was now autumn, the rainy season was setting in, and William's presence was urgently wanted in England. After another violent attempt, therefore, to take the town, which was resisted with the most desperate valour, the very women joining in the fight, and remaining under the hottest fire, the besiegers drew off, and William shortly afterwards sailed for England, leaving the command in the hands of Ginkel, the ablest of his Dutch generals. . . . In Galway, meanwhile, violent quarrels had broken out. The French troops were sick, naturally enough, of the campaign, and not long afterwards sailed for France. Their places were taken later on by another body of French soldiers under General St. Ruth."—E. Lawless, *Story of Ireland, pp.* 288-292.—"The third and last campaign began late in 1691. The Irish received many promises of assistance from Louis XIV., but his ministers fulfilled few or none of them. With scarcely any loss of men, and with a small expenditure of stores and money, the Irish war enabled Louis to keep William and a veteran army of 40,000 men out of his way. . . . The campaign opened in the beginning of June with the advance of Ginkel on Athlone. The chief defence of the place was the River Shannon, the works being weak, and mounting only a few field-pieces; yet so obstinately was the place defended that, but for the discovery of a ford, and some neglect on the part of D'Usson, who commanded, it is probable that the siege would have been raised. As it was, Ginkel became master of the heap of ruins. . . . St. Ruth [the French officer commanding the Irish] moved his camp to Aughrim [or Aghrim], and there was fought the final battle of the war on Sunday, July 12, 1691. . . . St. Ruth was killed at a critical moment, and his army defeated, with a loss of about 4,000 men, the English loss being about half that number. Part of the defeated Irish infantry retreated to Galway; but the bulk of the troops, including the whole of the cavalry, fell back on Limerick, which surrendered, after a gallant resistance, in October, 1691."—W. K. Sullivan, *Two centuries of Irish history, pt.* 1, *ch.* 1.

Also in: T. B. Macaulay, *History of England, ch.* 12, 16, 17.—W. H. Torriano, *William the Third, ch.* 5, 21-23.—J. A. Froude, *English in Ireland, v.* 1, *ch.* 3.—W. A. O'Conor, *History of the Irish people, v.* 2, *bk.* 3, *ch.* 3.—J. Dalrymple, *Memoirs of Great Britain and Ireland, v.* 2, *pt.* 2, *bk.* 2-5.

1691.—Treaty of Limerick and its violation.—The surrender of Limerick was under the terms of a treaty—or of two treaties, one military, the other civil—formally negotiated for the terminating of the war. This Treaty of Limerick was signed, Oct. 3, 1691, by Baron De Ginkel, William's general, and by the lords justices of Ireland, on behalf of the English, and by Sarsfield and other chieftains on behalf of the Irish. "Its chief provisions were: 'The Roman Catholics of this kingdom shall enjoy such privileges in the exercise of their religion as are consistent with the laws of Ireland; or as they did enjoy in the reign of King Charles II.; and their Majesties, as soon as their affairs will permit them to summon a Parliament in this kingdom, will endeavour to procure the said Roman Catholics such further security in that particular as may preserve them from any disturbance upon the account of their said religion. All the inhabitants or residents of Limerick, or any other garrison now in the possession of the Irish, and all officers and soldiers now in arms under any commission of King James, or those authorized by him to grant the same in

At beginning of English conquest



English plantation of Ireland

After Cromwellian settlement

Irish Free State and Ulster

IRELAND FROM 1172 TO 1923

the several counties of Limerick, Clare, Kerry, Cork, and Mayo, or any of them, and all the commissioned officers in their Majesties' quarters that belong to the Irish regiments now in being that are treated with and who are not prisoners of war, or having taken protection, and who shall return and submit to their Majesties' obedience, and their and every of their heirs shall hold, possess, and enjoy all and every their estates of freehold and inheritance; and all the rights, titles, and interest, privileges and immunities, which they, or every or any of them, held, enjoyed, and were rightfully and lawfully entitled to in the reign of King Charles II.' . . . A general pardon was to be granted to all persons comprised within the treaty, and the Lords Justices and the generals commanding King William's army were to use their best endeavours to get the attainders of any of them attainted repealed. . . . In the copy of the rough draft engrossed for signature the following words, 'and all such as are under their protection in the said counties,' which immediately followed the enumeration of the several counties in the second article, were omitted. This omission, whether the result of design or accident, was, however, rectified by King William when confirming the treaty in February, 1692. The confirming instrument stated that the words had been casually omitted; that the omission was not discovered till the articles were signed, but was taken notice of before the town was surrendered; and that the Lords Justices or General Ginkel, or one of them, had promised that the clause should be made good, since it was within the intention of the capitulation, and had been inserted in the rough draft. William then for himself did 'ratify and confirm the said omitted words.' The colonists, or at all events the 'new interests'—that is, those who shared or expected to share in the confiscations—were indignant at the concessions made to the native race."—W. K. Sullivan, *Two centuries of Irish history, pt.* 1, *ch.* 1.—"The advantages secured to Catholics by the Treaty of Limerick were moderate. But when the flower of the Irish army had withdrawn to France, and the remnant could be hanged without ceremony, they began to look inordinate. The parliament of Cromwellian settlers and Government officials in Dublin having excluded Catholic members, by requiring from them an oath of abjuration, in direct infringement of one of the articles of surrender, were free to proceed at their discretion. They first passed a stringent statute depriving Catholics of arms, and another ordering all 'Popish archbishops, bishops, vicars-general, deans, jesuits, monks, friars, and regulars of whatever condition to depart from the kingdom on pain of transportation,' and then proceeded to consider the treaty. They . . . resolved by a decisive majority not to keep the conditions affecting the Catholics. William . . . struggled for a time to preserve his honour; but it is not convenient for a new king to be in conflict with his friends, and after a time he gave way."—C. G. Duffy, *Bird's-eye view of Irish history, pp.* 155-156 (or *bk.* 1, *ch.* 4, *of "Young Ireland"*).—"The Protestant rancour of parliament was more powerful than the good will of the prince. The most vital articles of the capitulation were ignored, especially in all cases where the Catholic religion and the liberties granted to its professors were concerned; and 4,000 Irish were denounced as traitors and rebels,—by which declaration a fresh confiscation of 1,060,000 acres was immediately effected. . . . It has been calculated that in 1692 the Irish Catholics, who quadrupled the Protestants in number, owned only one-eleventh of the soil, and that the most wretched and unproductive portion."—A. Perraud, *Ireland under English rule, introduction, sect.* 8.

1691-1782.—Peace of despair.—Century of national death.—Oppression of penal laws.—"By the military treaty [of Limerick], those of Sarsfield's soldiers who would were suffered to follow him to France; and 10,000 men, the whole of his force, chose exile rather than life in a land where all hope of national freedom was lost. When the wild cry of the women who stood watching their departure was hushed, the silence of death settled down upon Ireland. For a hundred years the country remained at peace, but the peace was a peace of despair. The most terrible legal tyranny under which a nation has ever groaned avenged the rising under Tyrconnell. The conquered people, in Swift's bitter words of contempt, became 'hewers of wood and drawers of water' to their conquerors; but till the very eve of the French Revolution Ireland ceased to be a source of terror and anxiety to England."—J. R. Green, *Short history of England, ch.* 9, *sect.* 8.—"An act of 1695 'deprived the Roman Catholics of the means of educating their children, either at home or abroad, and of the privilege of being guardians either of their own or of any other person's children.' Another Act of the same year deprived the Roman Catholics of the right of bearing arms, or of keeping any horse which was worth more than £5. An Act of 1697 ordered the expulsion of every Roman Catholic priest from Ireland. The Parliament, which had imposed these disabilities on Irish Roman Catholics, proceeded to confirm the Articles of Limerick, or 'so much of them as may consist with the safety and welfare of your Majesty's subjects of this kingdom,' and by a gross act of injustice omitted the whole of the first of these articles, and the important paragraph in the second article which had been accidentally omitted from the original copy of the Treaty, and subsequently restored to it by letters patent under the Great Seal. Reasonable men may differ on the propriety or impropriety of the conditions on which the surrender of Limerick was secured; but it is difficult to read the story of their repudiation without a deep sense of shame. Three other acts relating to the Roman Catholics were passed during the reign of William. An Act of 1697 forbade the intermarriage of Protestants and Papists. An Act of 1698 prevented Papists from being solicitors. Another Act of the same year stopped their employment as gamekeepers. William died; and the breach of faith which he had countenanced was forgotten amidst the pressure of the legislation which disgraced the reign of his successor. Two Acts passed in this reign, for preventing the further growth of Popery, were styled by Burke the 'ferocious Acts of Anne.' By the first of these Acts a Papist having a Protestant son was debarred from selling, mortgaging, or devising any portion of his estate: however young the son might be, he was to be taken from his father's hands and confided to the care of a Protestant relation. The estate of a Papist who had no Protestant heir was to be divided equally among his sons. The Papist was declared incapable of purchasing real estate or of taking land on lease for more than thirty-one years. A Papist was declared incapable of inheriting real estate from a Protestant. He was disqualified from holding any office, civil or military. With twenty exceptions, a Papist was forbidden to reside in Limerick or Galway. Advowsons the property of Papists were vested in the Crown. Religious intolerance had now ap-

parently done its uttermost. . . . But the laws failed. Their severity insured their failure. . . . The first of the ferocious Acts of Anne was almost openly disregarded. . . . Its failure only induced the intolerant advisers of Anne to supplement it with harsher legislation. The Act of 1704 had deprived the Papist of the guardianship of his apostate child. An Act of 1709 empowered the Court of Chancery to oblige the Papist to discover his estate, and authorized the Court to make an order for the maintenance of the apostate child out of the proceeds of it. The Act of 1704 had made it illegal for a Papist to take lands on lease; the Act of 1709 disabled him from receiving a life annuity. An Act of 1704 had compelled the registry of priests. The Act of 1709 forbade their officiating in any parish except that in which they were registered. These, however, were the least reprehensible features in the Act of 1709. Its worst features were the encouragement which it gave to the meaner vices of human nature. The wife of a Papist, if she became a Protestant, was to receive a jointure out of her husband's estate. A Popish priest abandoning his religion was to receive an annuity of £30 a year. Rewards were to be paid for 'discovering' Popish prelates, priests, and schoolmasters. Two justices might compel any Papist to state on oath where and when he had heard mass, who had officiated at it, and who had been present at it. Encouragement was thus given to informers; bribes were thus held out to apostates; and Parliament trusted to the combined effects of bribery and intimidation to stamp out the last remnant of Popery. The penal code, however, was not yet complete. The armoury of intolerance was not yet exhausted. An Act of George I. disabled Papists from serving in the Irish militia, but compelled them to find Protestant substitutes; to pay double towards the support of the militia, and rendered their horses liable to seizure for militia purposes. By Acts of George II. the Papists were disfranchised; barristers or solicitors marrying Papists were deemed Papists; all marriages between Protestants and Papists were annulled; and Popish priests celebrating any illegal marriages were condemned to be hanged. By an Act of George III. Papists refusing to deliver up or declare their arms were liable to be placed in the pillory or to be whipped, as the Court should think proper. Such were the laws which the intolerance of a minority imposed on the majority of their fellow-subjects. Utterly unjust, they had not even the bare merit of success. . . . 'The great body of the people,' wrote Arthur Young [1780], 'stripped of their all, were more enraged than converted: they adhered to the persuasion of their forefathers with the steadiest and the most determined zeal; while the priests, actuated by the spirit of a thousand inducements, made proselytes among the common Protestants in defiance of every danger. . . . Those laws have crushed all the industry and wrested most of the property from the Catholics; but the religion triumphs; it is thought to increase.' "—S. Walpole, *History of England from 1815, v. 2, ch. 8.*

Also in: R. R. Madden, *Historical notice of penal laws against Roman Catholics.*—A. Perraud, *Ireland under English rule, introduction.*—E. Burke, *Letter to a peer of Ireland on the penal laws (Works, v. 4).*—Idem, *Fragments of a tract on the popery laws (Works, v. 6).*—A. J. Thébaud, *Irish race, ch. 12.*

18th century.—Lack of education.—Charter schools. See Education: Modern: 18th century: Ireland.

1703-1838.—Public poor relief.—Houses of industry and foundling hospitals.—Early workhouses.—Infirmaries.—Fever hospitals. See Charities: Ireland: 1703-1838.

1710.—Colonization of Palatines in Munster. See Palatines: 1709-1710.

1722-1724.—Wood's halfpence.—Drapier's letters.—"A patent had been given [1722, by the Walpole administration] to a certain William Wood for supplying Ireland with a copper coinage. Many complaints had been made, and in September, 1723, addresses were voted by the Irish Houses of Parliament, declaring that the patent had been obtained by clandestine and false representations; that it was mischievous to the country; and that Wood had been guilty of frauds in his coinage. They were pacified by vague promises; but Walpole went on with the scheme on the strength of a favourable report of a committee of the Privy Council; and the excitement was already serious when (in 1724) Swift published the Drapier's Letters, which gave him his chief title to eminence as a patriotic agitator. Swift either shared or took advantage of the general belief that the mysteries of the currency are unfathomable to the human intelligence. . . . There is, however, no real mystery about the halfpence. The small coins which do not form part of the legal tender may be considered primarily as counters. A penny is a penny, so long as twelve are change for a shilling. It is not in the least necessary for this purpose that the copper contained in the twelve penny pieces should be worth or nearly worth a shilling. . . . At the present day bronze worth only twopence is coined into twelve penny pieces. . . . The effect of Wood's patent was that a mass of copper worth about £60,000 became worth £100,800 in the shape of halfpenny pieces. There was, therefore, a balance of about £40,000 to pay for the expenses of coinage. It would have been waste to get rid of this by putting more copper in the coins; but if so large a profit arose from the transaction, it would go to somebody. At the present day it would be brought into the national treasury. This was not the way in which business was done in Ireland. Wood was to pay £1,000 á year for fourteen years to the Crown. But £14,000 still leaves a large margin for profit. What was to become of it? According to the admiring biographer of Sir R. Walpole the patent had been originally given by Lord Sunderland to the Duchess of Kendal, a lady whom the King delighted to honour. . . . It was right and proper that a profit should be made on the transaction, but shameful that it should be divided between the King's mistress and William Wood, and that the bargain should be struck without consulting the Irish representatives, and maintained in spite of their protests. The Duchess of Kendal was to be allowed to take a share of the wretched halfpence in the pocket of every Irish beggar. A more disgraceful transaction could hardly be imagined, or one more calculated to justify Swift's view of the selfishness and corruption of the English rulers. Swift saw his chance and went to work in characteristic fashion, with unscrupulous audacity of statement [in the Drapier Letters], guided by the keenest strategical instinct. . . . The patent was surrendered, and Swift might congratulate himself upon a complete victory. . . . The Irish succeeded in rejecting a real benefit at the cost of paying Wood the profit which he would have made, had he been allowed to confer it."—L. Stephen, *Swift (English men of letters), ch. 7.*

Also in: Dean Swift, *Works, v. 6.*—Lord Mahon, *History of England, v. 2, ch. 13.*—J. McCarthy, *History of the four Georges, ch. 15.*

1759.—Hostility of Dublin to union with England. See DUBLIN: 1700-1798.

1760-1798. — Whiteboys. — Oakboys. — Steel Boys.—Peep of Day Boys.—Catholic Defenders. —"The peasantry continued to regard the land as their own; and with the general faith that wrong cannot last forever, they waited for the time when they would once more have possession of it. 'The lineal descendants of the old families,' wrote Arthur Young in 1774, 'are now to be found all over the kingdom, working as cottiers on the lands which were once their own.' . . . With the growth of what was called civilization, absenteeism, the worst disorder of the country, had increased. . . . The rise in prices, the demand for salt beef and salt butter for exportation and for the fleets, were revolutionizing the agriculture of Munster. The great limestone pastures of Limerick and Tipperary, the fertile meadow universally, was falling into the hands of capitalist graziers, in whose favour the landlords, or the landlords' agents, were evicting the smaller tenants."—J. A. Froude, *English in Ireland, v. 2, bk. 5, ch. 1.*—"The suffering was not confined to the original expropriated owners and tillers of the soil; it was universal. The Plantation of Ulster was thoroughly accomplished. The province became 'shire' land. The Crown [had] granted large tracts to 'Undertakers,' who undertook to divide them into farms, to build houses, drain, provide schools and arms, and let the holdings on suitable leases and at reasonable rents. The tenants held them under a sort of military tenure. As the necessity for armed defence diminished and leases fell in, a tendency to ignore the original tenure, and to treat the descendants of the original planters as tenants at will, manifested itself. Rents were raised, farms were let to the highest bidder, and the highest bidder was a poor 'Papist' descendant of the original occupier of the land. The expropriating planter became expropriated in his turn, and in his turn resorted to burning the goods and driving the cattle of those who supplanted him. Through the folly, greed, or iniquity of some of the representatives of the original 'Undertakers,' a land war set in that lasted a considerable time. The circumstances of the peasantry all over Ireland were wretched. Many died of starvation, many emigrated. The destruction of the trades of the country, for the supposed benefit of British manufacturers, ruined great numbers of fairly well-to-do people; and a strong stream of emigration of Ulster Presbyterians set in to North America, and lasted for many years. Pasture was rapidly taking the place of tillage, to the displacement of labour. Common lands were enclosed and taken from the people. Tithes were a universal grievance. The rich men—the great graziers and cowkeepers, the only occupiers in the kingdom, according to Arthur Young, who had any considerable substance—were exempt from tithes, which fell exclusively and with crushing weight upon the poor cottier struggling to make a bare living out of a wretched potato-patch. Where tithes were not appropriated to laymen they were paid to, in many cases, non-resident clergy. In either event, the poor Catholic peasant, starving on his little holding, paid compulsorily for the support of the religion in which he did not believe, and contributed voluntarily out of his poverty to the support of the religion in which he did believe. The whole state of society was rotten to the core, and the condition of the people miserable in the extreme. Such circumstances produced their inevitable results. Where desperate men can get no redress for legitimate grievances they resort to illegitimate combination and outrage. Secret societies, 'Whiteboys,' 'Oakboys,' 'Hearts of Steel,' and many others sprang up all over the country. Some were directed mainly towards securing 'tenant right' in Ulster, others against the enclosure of commons and the conversion of tillage into pasture; others, again, against tithes and other wrongs. The secret societies became very formidable, and committed many atrocities of a brutal kind. The Whiteboys became for a time powerful over large districts in the South. They marched about like small armies, sometimes so many as 500 foot and 200 horse, levelling fences, mutilating cattle, issuing orders, and forcing obedience by brutal punishment. The Hearts of Steel became equally formidable in the North. Such was the general condition of the country when the faint rumblings of the storm that burst and spent itself in 1798 might have been heard."—Earl of Dunraven, *Legacy of past years, pp. 69-71.*—The Whiteboys took their name from the practice of wearing a white shirt drawn over their other clothing, when they were out upon their nocturnal expeditions. "The Oak Boy movement took place about 1761-2. . . . The injustice which led to the formation of the 'Oak Boys,' one of the best known of the colonial societies, was duty work on roads. Every householder was bound to give six days' labour in making and repairing the public roads; and if he had a horse, six days' labour of his horse. It was complained that this duty work was only levied on the poor, and that they were compelled to work on private job roads, and even upon what were the avenues and farm roads of the gentry. The name Oak Boys, or Hearts of Oak Boys, was derived from the members in their raids wearing an oak branch in their hats. The organization spread rapidly over the greater part of Ulster. Although the grievances were common to Protestant and Catholic workmen, and there was nothing religious in the objects or constitution of the Oak Boys, the society was an exclusively Protestant body, owing to the total absence at the period of any association between the Protestants and Catholics. . . . The Steel Boys, or Hearts of Steel Boys, followed the Oak Boys [about 1771]. They also were exclusively Protestant; the origin of this organization was the extravagance and profligacy of a bad landlord, the representative of the great land thief, Chichester, of the Plantation of King James I. . . . The Oak Boys and Steel Boys did not last long."—W. K. Sullivan, *Two centuries of Irish history, pt. 1, ch. 5, with foot-note.*—"The Marquis of Donegal was one of the largest proprietors in the North of Ireland. He was an absentee, and when his leases fell in, instead of adopting the usual plan of renewing them at a moderate increase of rent, he determined to raise a sum which was stated at no less than 100,000£ in fines upon his tenants, and as they were utterly unable to pay them, two or three rich merchants of Belfast were preferred to them. The improvements were confiscated, the land was turned into pasture, and the whole population of a vast district were driven from their homes. This case, though the most flagrant, was by no means the only one, and on several estates in the North, during the last ten or fifteen years, rents had been increased to such a point that the tenants were unable to pay them. They alleged that it was a frequent custom for landlords, when leases fell in, to 'publish in newspapers or otherwise that such a parcel of land is to be set, and that proposals in writing will be received for it.' . . . The conduct of Lord Donegal brought the misery of

the Ulster peasantry to a climax, and in a short time many thousands of ejected tenants, banded together under the name of Steelboys, were in arms. They were mainly, at first almost exclusively, Presbyterians. Their distress was much greater than that of the Oakboys, who preceded them, and, as is usually the case, their violence was proportioned to their distress. They destroyed or maimed great numbers of cattle. They attacked many houses, and were guilty of many kinds of violence, and they soon administered illegal oaths, and undertook the part of general reformers. . . . The complete subsidence of this formidable insurrection in the North forms a remarkable contrast to the persistence with which the Whiteboy disturbances in the South continued to smoulder during many generations. It is to be largely attributed to the great Protestant emigration which had long been taking place in Ulster. The way had been opened, and the ejected tenantry who formed the Steelboy bands and who escaped the sword and the gallows, fled by thousands to America. They were soon heard of again. In a few years the cloud of civil war which was already gathering over the colonies burst, and the ejected tenants of Lord Donegal formed a large part of the revolutionary armies which severed the New World from the British Crown."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of Ireland in the eighteenth century, v. 2, pp.* 47-48, 50-51.—"A violent sectarian spirit was beginning to show itself afresh. . . . A furious faction war had broken out in the north of Ireland, between Protestants and Roman Catholics. The former had made an association known as the 'Peep-of-day boys,' to which the latter had responded by one called the ['Catholic] Defenders.' In 1795, a regular battle was fought between the two, and the 'Defenders' were defeated with the loss of many lives. The same year saw the institution of Orange lodges spring into existence, and spread rapidly over the north."—E. Lawless, *Ireland, p.* 345.—See also ULSTER: 1791-1797.

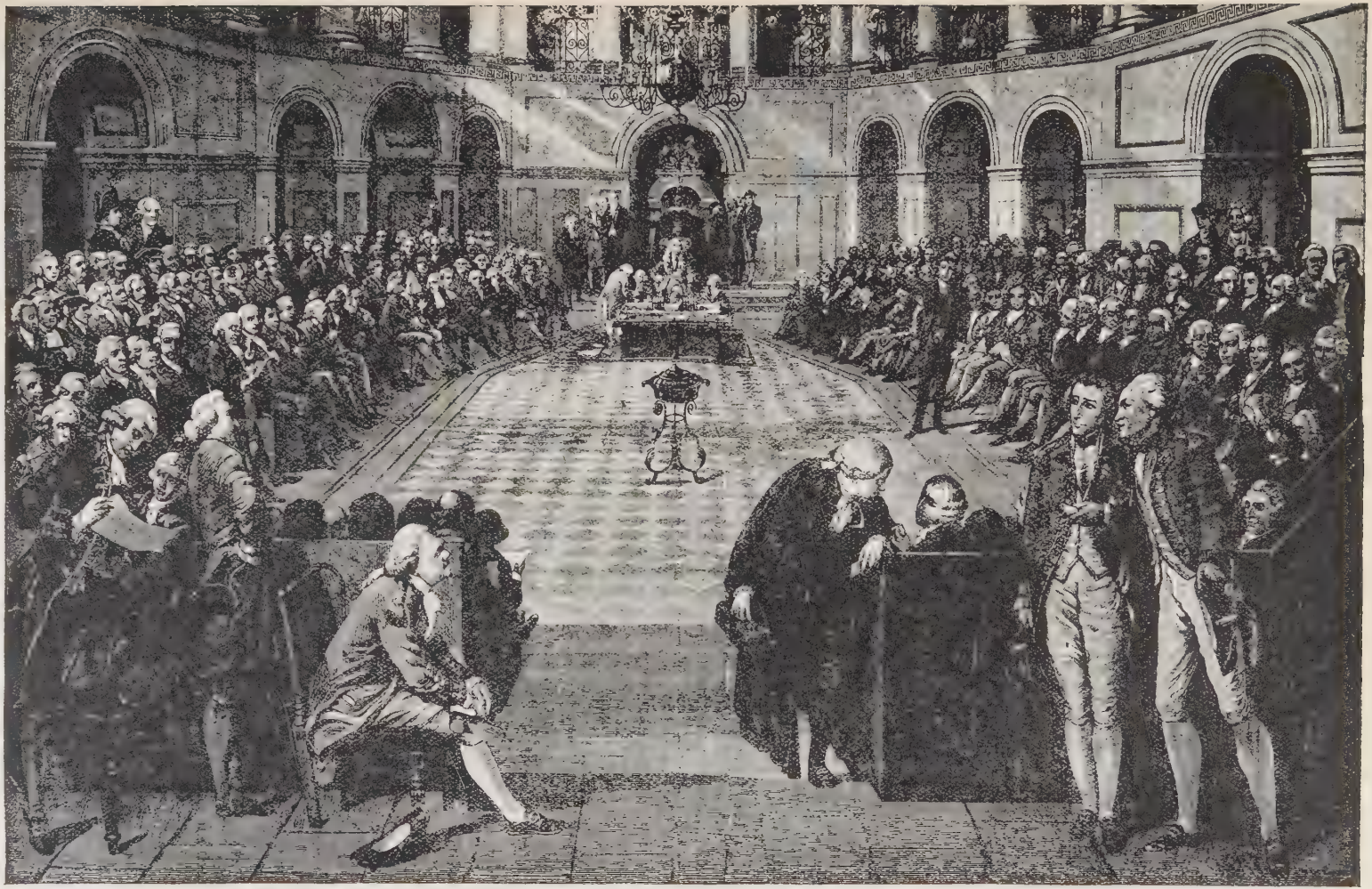
1765-1921.—Care of poor.—Dispensaries and hospitals. See CHARITIES: Ireland: 1765-1921.

1778-1782.—Volunteers' movement.—Concession of legislative independence by the Act of 1782.—"England's difficulty was Ireland's opportunity. . . . On the hither side of the Atlantic the American flag was scarcely less dreaded than at Yorktown and Saratoga. . . . Ireland, drained of troops, lay open to invasion. The terrible Paul Jones was drifting about the seas; descents upon Ireland were dreaded; if such descents had been made the island was practically defenceless. . . . Ireland must look to itself. Thereupon Ireland, very promptly and decisively, did look to itself. A Militia Act was passed empowering the formation of volunteer corps—consisting, of course, solely of Protestants—for the defence of the island. A fever of military enthusiasm swept over the country; north and south and east and west men caught up arms, nominally to resist the French, really, though they knew it not, to effect one of the greatest constitutional revolutions in history. Before a startled Government could realise what was occurring 60,000 men were under arms. For the first time since the surrender of Limerick there was an armed force in Ireland able and willing to support a national cause. Suddenly, almost in the twinkling of an eye, Ireland found herself for the first time for generations in the possession of a well-armed, well-disciplined, and well-generalled military force. The armament that was organised to insure the safety of England was destined to achieve the liberties of Ireland. . . . All talk of organisation to resist foreign invasion was silenced; in its place the voice of the nation was heard loudly calling for the redress of its domestic grievances. Their leader was Charlemont; Grattan and Flood were their principal colonels."—J. H. McCarthy, *Ireland since the union, ch. 3.*—"When the Parliament met, Grattan moved as an amendment to the Address, 'that it was by free export and import only that the Nation was to be saved from impending ruin'; and a corps of Volunteers, commanded by the Duke of Leinster, lined Dame Street as the Speaker and the Commons walked in procession to the Castle. Another demonstration of Volunteers in College Green excited Dublin a little later on, and (15th November, 1779) a riotous mob clamoured for Free Trade at the very doors of the House. . . . These events resulted in immediate success. Lord North proposed in the British Parliament three articles of relief to Irish trade—(1) to allow free export of wool, woollens, and wool-flocks; (2) to allow a free export of glass; (3) to allow, under certain conditions, a free trade to all the British colonies. When the news reached Ireland excessive joy prevailed. . . . But this was only a beginning. Poynings' Law, and the 6th of George I., required to be swept away too, so that Ireland might enjoy not only Free Trade, but also Self-government. Grattan moved his two famous resolutions:—1. That the King, with the consent of the Lords and Commons of Ireland, is alone competent to enact laws to bind Ireland. 2. That Great Britain and Ireland are inseparably united under one Sovereign. In supporting these resolutions, Grattan cited England's dealings with America, to show what Ireland too might effect by claiming her just rights. . . . The Earl of Carlisle became Viceroy in 1781, with Mr. Eden as Secretary. Viewing England's embroilment in war—in America, in India, with France, and Spain, and Holland—the Irish Volunteers, whose numbers had swelled, Grattan said, to well-nigh 100,000 men, held meetings and reviews in various parts of the country. . . . The 16th of April, 1782, was a memorable day for Dublin. On that date, in a city thronged with Volunteers, with bands playing, and banners blazoned with gilded harps fluttering in the wind, Grattan, in an amendment to the Address which was always presented to the King at the opening of Parliament, moved, 'That Ireland is a distinct Kingdom, with a separate Parliament, and that this Parliament alone has a right to make laws for her.' On the 17th of May, the two Secretaries of State, Lord Shelburne in the Lords, and Charles James Fox in the Commons of Great Britain—proposed the repeal of the 6th of George I., a statute which declared the right of the English Parliament to make laws for Ireland. The English Government frankly and fully acceded to the demands of Ireland. Four points were granted—(1) an Independent Irish Parliament; (2) the abrogation of Poynings' Law, empowering the English Privy Council to alter Irish Bills; (3) the introduction of a Biennial Mutiny Bill; (4) the abolition of the right of appeal to England from the Irish law courts. These concessions were announced to the Irish Parliament at once: in their joy the Irish Houses voted £100,000, and 20,000 men to the navy of Great Britain. Ireland had at last achieved political freedom. Peace and prosperity seemed about to bless the land. . . . That there might be no misunderstanding as to the deliberate intention of the English Parliament in granting Irish legislative independence, Lord Shelburne had passed an Act of Renunciation, declaring that 'the Right claimed by the people of Ire-

land, to be bound only by laws enacted by His Majesty and the Parliament of that Kingdom, is hereby declared to be established and ascertained for ever, and shall at no time hereafter be questioned or questionable.' During the same session (1782), the two Catholic Relief Bills proposed by Luke Gardiner, who afterwards became Viscount Mountjoy, were passed. These measures gave catholics the right to buy freeholds, to teach schools, and to educate their children as they pleased. The Habeas Corpus Act was now extended to Ireland; and marriages by presbyterian ministers were made legal."—W. F. Collier, *History of Ireland for schools, period 5, ch. 3.*—"A feeling of warm attachment to England rapidly took the place of distrust. There never existed in Ireland so sincere and friendly a spirit of spontaneous union with England as at this moment, when the formal bond of union was almost wholly dissolved. From the moment when England made a formal surrender of her claim to govern Ireland a series of inroads commenced on the various interests supposed to be left to their own free development by that surrender. Ireland had not, like England, a body of Cabinet Ministers responsible to her Parliament. The Lord Lieutenant and the Irish Secretary held their offices and received their instructions from the English minister. There was greater need than ever before for a bribed majority in the Irish Commons, and the machinery for securing and managing it remained intact."—W. A. O'Conor, *History of the Irish people, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 2, sect. 2.*—"At one time the Irish Parliament could not be summoned till the Bills it was called upon to pass were approved under the Great Seal of England; and, although it afterwards obtained the power of originating heads of Bills, it was necessary before they became law that they should be submitted to the English Privy Council, which had the right either of rejecting or of altering them, and the Irish Parliament, though it might reject, could not alter a Bill returned in an amended form from England. The appellate jurisdiction of the Irish House of Lords was withdrawn from it by a mere act of power in the Annesley case in 1719. The constitution of the House of Commons was such that it lay almost wholly beyond the control of public opinion. By an English law passed at a time when the Irish Parliament was not sitting, the Catholics were precluded from sitting among its members, and as they were afterwards deprived of the suffrage, the national legislature was thus absolutely cut off from the Bulk of the Irish people. The Nonconformists were not formally excluded, but the test clause, which was also of English origin, shut them out from the corporations by which a large proportion of the members were elected. At the same time the royal prerogative of creating boroughs was exerted to an extent unparalleled in England. No less than forty boroughs had been created by James I., thirty-six by the other sovereigns of his house, and eleven more boroughs were for the first time represented in the Parliament which met in 1692. The county representation appears to have been tolerably sound; but out of the 300 members of the Irish House of Commons, 216 were elected by boroughs and manors, and of these members 176, according to the lowest estimate, were elected by individual patrons, while very few of the remainder had really popular constituencies. It was stated in 1784 that fifty Members of Parliament were then elected by ten individuals."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of Ireland in the eighteenth century, v. 1, pp. 194-195.*—"The Legislature of Ireland before the Union had the same title as that of Great Britain. There was no juridical distinction to be drawn between them. Even in point of antiquity they were as nearly as possible on a par, for the Parliament of Ireland had subsisted for 500 years. It had asserted its exclusive right to make laws for the people of Ireland. That right was never denied, for gentlemen ought to recollect, but all do not, perhaps, remember, that Poynings's Law was an Irish Law imposed by Ireland on herself. That claim of the Parliament of Ireland never was denied until the reign of George I, and that claim denied in the reign of George I was admitted in the reign of George III. The Parliament—the great Parliament of Great Britain—had to retract its words and to withdraw its claim, and the Legislature which goes by the name of Grattan's Parliament was as independent in point of authority as any Legislature over the wide world. . . . It is impossible not to say this word for the Protestant Parliament of Ireland. Founded as it was upon narrow suffrage, exclusive in religion, crowded with pensioners and place-holders holding every advantage, it yet had in it the spark, at least, and the spirit of true patriotism. It emancipated the Roman Catholics of Ireland when the Roman Catholics of England were not yet emancipated. It received Lord Fitzwilliam with open arms; and when Lord Fitzwilliam promoted to the best of his ability the introduction of Roman Catholics into Parliament, and when his brief career was unhappily intercepted by a peremptory recall from England, what happened? Why, sir, in both Houses of the Irish Parliament votes were at once passed by those Protestants, by those men, mixed as they were, with so large an infusion of pensioners and of placemen, registering their confidence in that nobleman and desiring that he should still be left to administer the government of Ireland. What the Irish Parliament did when Lord Fitzwilliam was promoting the admission of Roman Catholics into Parliament justifies me in saying there was a spirit there which, if free scope had been left to it, would in all probability have been enabled to work out a happy solution for every Irish problem and difficulty, and would have saved to the coming generation an infinity of controversy and trouble."—*Speeches of the Rt. Hon. W. E. Gladstone* (A. W. Hutton and H. J. Cohen, ed.), *v. 9, pp. 13-14, 20.*

1783.—Founding of Bank of Ireland. See BANK OF IRELAND.

1793.—Passage of the Catholic Relief Bill. —"On February 4 (1793) Hobart [chief secretary] moved for leave to bring in his Catholic Relief Bill, and stated the nature of its provisions. It was of a kind which only a year before would have appeared utterly impossible, and which was in the most glaring opposition to all the doctrines which the Government and its partisans had of late been urging. . . . This great measure was before Parliament, with several intermissions, for rather more than five weeks. . . . The vast preponderance of speakers were in favour of relief to Catholics, though there were grave differences as to the degree, and speakers of the highest authority represented the genuine Protestant feeling of the country as being in its favour. . . . Few things in Irish parliamentary history are more remarkable than the facility with which this great measure was carried, though it was in all its aspects thoroughly debated. . . . The Bill became law almost exactly in the form in which it was originally designed. It swept away the few remaining disabilities relating to property which grew out of



IRISH PARLIAMENT OF 1790, COMMONLY CALLED "GRATTAN'S PARLIAMENT"

John Philpot Curran is shown addressing the House, over which Speaker Foster presides. Henry Grattan (holding the scroll) is on the right, listening to Henry Flood. To the left, seated, is Lord Charlemont.

(After painting by H. Barraud and J. Hayter)

the penal code. It enabled Catholics to vote like Protestants for members of Parliament and magistrates in cities or boroughs; to become elected members of all corporations except Trinity College; to keep arms subject to some specified conditions; to hold all civil and military offices in the kingdom from which they were not specifically excluded; to hold the medical professorships on the foundation of Sir Patrick Dun; to take degrees and hold offices in any mixed college connected with the University of Dublin that might hereafter be founded. It also threw open to them the degrees of the University, enabling the King to alter its statutes to that effect. A long clause enumerated the prizes which were still withheld. Catholics might not sit in either House of Parliament; they were excluded from almost all Government and judicial positions; they could not be Privy Councillors, King's Counsel, Fellows of Trinity College, sheriffs or sub-sheriffs, or generals of the staff. Nearly every post of ambition was still reserved for Protestants, and the restrictions weighed most heavily on the Catholics who were most educated and most able. In the House of Lords as in the House of Commons the Bill passed with little open opposition, but a protest, signed among other peers by Charlemont, was drawn up against it. . . . The Catholic Relief Bill received the royal assent in April, 1793, and in the same month the Catholic Convention dissolved itself. Before doing so it passed a resolution recommending the Catholics 'to co-operate in all loyal and constitutional means' to obtain parliamentary reform. . . . The Catholic prelates in their pastorals expressed their gratitude for the Relief Bill. The United Irishmen on their side issued a proclamation warmly congratulating the Catholics on the measure for their relief, but also urging in passionate strains that parliamentary reform was the first of needs."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England in the eighteenth century, v. 6, ch. 25.*

1793-1798.—Organization of the united Irishmen.—Attempted French invasions.—Rising of '98.—"Nothing could be less sinister than the original aims and methods of the Society of United Irishmen, which was conceived in the idea of uniting Catholics and Protestants 'in pursuit of the same object—a repeal of the penal laws, and a (parliamentary) reform including in itself an extension of the right of suffrage.' This union was founded at Belfast, in 1791, by Theobald Wolfe Tone, a young barrister of English descent, and, like the majority of the United Irishmen, a Protestant. [See also Ulster: 1791-1797.] Some months later a Dublin branch was founded . . . and branches were formed throughout Ulster and Leinster. The religious strife of the Orange boys and Defenders was a great trouble to the United men, who felt that these creed animosities among Irishmen were more ruinous to the national cause than any corruption of parliament or coercion of government could possibly be. Ireland, united, would be quite capable of fighting her own battles, but these party factions rendered her contemptible and weak. The society accordingly set itself the impossible task of drawing together the Defenders and the Orangemen. Catholic emancipation . . . was the great wish of the Defenders, the chief dread of the Orangemen. . . . The United Irishmen devoted themselves to the regeneration of both parties, but the Orangemen would have none of them, and the Protestant United men found themselves drifting into partnership with the Catholic Defenders . . . who, like the Orange boys, were merely a party of outrage. . . . One night in the May of '94 a government raid was made upon the premises of the union. The officers of the society were arrested, their papers seized, the type of their newspaper destroyed, and the United Irish Society was proclaimed as an illegal organisation. Towards the close of this year all need for a reform society seemed to have passed. Fitzwilliam was made viceroy, and emancipation and reform seemed assured. His sudden recall, the reversal of his appointments, the rejection of Grattan's Reform Bill, and the renewal of the old coercive system, convinced the United men of the powerlessness of peaceful agitation to check the growth of the system of government by corruption. They accordingly reorganised the union, but as a secret society, and with the avowed aim of separating Ireland from the British empire. The Fitzwilliam affair had greatly strengthened the union, which was joined by many men of high birth and position, among them lord Edward Fitzgerald, brother of the duke of Leinster, and Arthur O'Connor, nephew to lord Longueville, both of whom had been members of the House of Commons. . . . But the ablest man of the party was Thomas Addis Emmet, a barrister, and the elder brother of Robert Emmet. The society gradually swelled to the number of 5,000 members, but throughout its existence it was perfectly riddled with spies and informers, by whom government was supplied with a thorough knowledge of its doings. It became known to Pitt that the French government had sent an Englishman, named Jackson, as an emissary to Ireland. Jackson was convicted of treason, and hanged, and Wolfe Tone was sufficiently implicated in his guilt . . . to find it prudent to fly to America. But before leaving Ireland he arranged with the directors of the union to go from America to France, and to try to persuade the French government to assist Ireland in a struggle for separation. While Tone was taking his circuitous route to Paris, government, to meet the military development of the society, placed Ulster and Leinster under a stringent Insurrection Act; torture was employed to wring confession from suspected persons, and the Protestant militia and yeomanry were drafted at free quarters on the wretched Catholic peasantry. The barbarity of the soldiers lashed the people of the northern provinces into a state of fury. . . . In the meantime the indomitable Tone—unknown, without credentials, without influence, and ignorant of the French language—had persuaded the French government to lend him a fleet, 10,000 men, and 40,000 stand of arms, which armament left Brest for Bantry Bay on the 16th December, 1796 . . . but just as the ships put in to Bantry Bay, so wild a wind sprang up that they were driven out to sea, and blown and buffetted about. For a month they tossed about within sight of land, but the storm did not subside, and, all chance of landing seeming as far off as ever, they put back into the French port."—W. S. Gregg, *Irish history for English readers, ch. 23.*—"After the failure of Hoche's expedition, another great armament was fitted out in the Texel, where it long lay ready to come forth, while the English fleet, . . . was crippled by the mutiny at the Nore. But the wind once more fought for England, and the Batavian fleet came out at last only to be destroyed at Camperdown. Tone was personally engaged in both expeditions, and his lively Diary, the image of his character, gives us vivid accounts of both. The third effort of the French Government was feeble, and ended in the futile landing of a small force under Humbert. . . . In the last expedition Tone himself was taken prisoner, and, having been condemned to death, committed suicide in

prison. . . . From the Republicans the disturbance spread, as in 1641, to that mass of blind disaffection and hatred, national, social, agrarian, and religious, which was always smouldering among the Catholic peasantry. With these sufferers the political theories of the French Revolutionists had no influence; they looked to French invasion, as well as to domestic insurrection, merely as a deliverance from the oppression under which they groaned. . . . The leading Roman Catholics, both clerical and lay, were on the side of the government. The mass of the Catholic priesthood were well inclined to take the same side. . . . If some of the order were concerned in the movement, it was as demagogues, sympathizing with their peasant brethren, not as priests. Yet the Protestants insisted on treating the Catholic clergy as rebels by nature. They had assuredly done their best to make them so. . . . The suspected conspirators were intimidated, and confessions, or pretended confessions, were extorted by loosing upon the homes of the peasantry the license and barbarity of an irregular soldiery more cruel than a regular invader. Flogging, half-hanging, pitch-capping, picketing, went on over a large district, and the most barbarous scourgings, without trial, were inflicted in the Riding-house at Dublin, in the very seat of government and justice. This was styled, 'exerting a vigour beyond the law'; and to become the object of such vigour, it was enough, as under Robespierre, to be suspected of being suspect. . . . The murders and other atrocities committed by the Jacobins were more numerous than those committed by the Orangemen, and as the victims were of higher rank they excited more indignation and pity; but in the use of torture the Orangemen seem to have reached a pitch of fiendish cruelty which was scarcely attained by the Jacobins. . . . The Jacobin party was almost entirely composed of men taken from the lowest of the people, whereas among the Irish terrorists were found men of high social position and good education."—G. Smith, *Irish history and Irish character, pp.* 166-175.—"The accounts of the Rebellion occupy a page of Irish history unexampled in horror, and upon which no Irishman can wish to dwell. Yet it had its redeeming features, and like all Irish episodes it was full of anomalies and contradictions. The savagery on both sides was, as I believe, largely due to panic. Protestants believed that the murder of all Protestants and the destruction of their religion was the object of the rising. Catholics were as firmly convinced of the existence of a fabulous Orange oath to massacre all Catholics and extirpate their religion. In Wexford and Wicklow religious fanaticism dominated the movement. The rebels were mainly an ill-armed rabble of Catholic peasants. Priests, goaded to madness by the desecration of their churches and the cruelties inflicted on their flocks, led them into action, crucifix aloft. Horrible massacres, mainly of Protestants, took place in Scullabogue Barn and on Wexford Bridge. And yet the main body of the rebels, after the capture of Enniscorthy, elected Bagenal Harvey, an influential Protestant landlord, to lead them, and another Protestant, Keogh, a retired officer in the English Army, who had served in the American War, was left in command of Wexford when the rebel army quitted it. The chapels in Wexford and the neighbourhood were crowded with Protestants seeking refuge, and priests in Wexford were 'employed from morning to night' endeavouring to secure Protestants who came to them for protection. . . . The truth is that in the Rebellion of '98, as in all former rebellions, wars, and exterminations, religion was inextricably mixed up with politics and land. Below everything else the idea of repossessing themselves of land their forefathers had held, and getting back Ireland for themselves, possessed the minds of the poor peasantry who filled the rebel ranks."—Earl of Dunraven, *Legacy of past years, pp.* 90-92.—See also ULSTER: 1791-1797.

ALSO IN: R. R. Madden, *United Irishmen, their lives and times.*—T. W. Tone, *Memoirs.*—Marquis Cornwallis, *Correspondence, v.* 2, *ch.* 19.—A. Griffiths, *French revolutionary generals, ch.* 16.—Viscount Castlereagh, *Memoirs and correspondence, v.* 1.—W. H. Maxwell, *History of the Irish rebellion in 1798.*—E. Lawless, *Ireland, pp.* 354-366.—E. R. Turner, *English in Ireland.*

1795-1796.—Formation of Orange Society.—Battle of the Diamond.—Persecution of Catholics by Protestant mobs.—"The year 1795 is very memorable in Irish history, as the year of the formation of the Orange Society, and the beginning of the most serious disturbances in the county of Armagh. . . . The old popular feud between the lower ranks of Papists and Presbyterians in the northern counties is easy to understand, and it is not less easy to see how the recent course of Irish politics had increased it. A class which had enjoyed and gloried in uncontested ascendency, found this ascendency passing from its hands. A class which had formerly been in subjection was elated by new privileges, and looked forward to a complete abolition of political disabilities. Catholic and Protestant tenants came into a new competition, and the demeanour of Catholics towards Protestants was sensibly changed. There were boasts in taverns and at fairs, that the Protestants would speedily be swept away from the land and the descendants of the old proprietors restored, and it was soon known that Catholics all over the country were forming themselves into committees or societies, and were electing representatives for a great Catholic convention at Dublin. The riots and outrages of the Peep of Day Boys and Defenders had embittered the feeling on both sides. . . . Members of one or other creed were attacked and insulted as they went to their places of worship. There were fights on the high roads, at fairs, wakes, markets, and country sports, and there were occasionally crimes of a much deeper dye. . . . In September 1795 riots broke out in this county [Armagh], which continued for some days, but at length the parish priest on the one side, and a gentleman named Atkinson on the other, succeeded in so far appeasing the quarrel that the combatants formally agreed to a truce, and were about to retire to their homes, when a new party of Defenders, who had marched from the adjoining counties to the assistance of their brethren, appeared upon the scene, and on September 21 they attacked the Protestants at a place called the Diamond. The Catholics on this occasion were certainly the aggressors, and they appear to have considerably outnumbered their antagonists, but the Protestants were better posted, better armed, and better organised. A serious conflict ensued, and the Catholics were completely defeated, leaving a large number—probably twenty or thirty—dead upon the field. It was on the evening of the day on which the battle of the Diamond was fought, that the Orange Society was formed. It was at first a league of mutual defence, binding its members to maintain the laws and the peace of the country, and also the Protestant Constitution. No Catholic was to be admitted into the society, and the members were bound by oath

not to reveal its secrets. The doctrine of Fitzgibbon, that the King, by assenting to Catholic emancipation, would invalidate his title to the throne, was remarkably reflected in the oath of the Orangemen, which bound them to defend the King and his heirs, 'so long as he or they support the Protestant ascendency.' The society took its name from William of Orange, the conqueror of the Catholics, and it agreed to celebrate annually the battle of the Boyne. . . . The animosities between the lower orders of the two religions, which had long been little bridled, burst out afresh, and after the battle of the Diamond the Protestant rabble of the county of Armagh, and of part of the adjoining counties, determined by continuous outrages to drive the Catholics from the country. Their cabins were placarded, or, as it was termed, 'papered,' with the words, 'To hell or Connaught,' and if the occupants did not at once abandon them, they were attacked at night by an armed mob. The webs and looms of the poor Catholic weavers were cut and destroyed. Every article of furniture was shattered or burnt. The houses were often set on fire, and the inmates were driven homeless into the world. The rioters met with scarcely any resistance or disturbance. Twelve or fourteen houses were sometimes wrecked in a single night. Several Catholic chapels were burnt, and the persecution, which began in the county of Armagh, soon extended over a wide area in the counties of Tyrone, Down, Antrim, and Derry. . . . The outrages continued with little abatement through a great part of the following year."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England in the eighteenth century, v. 7, ch. 27.*—See also ULSTER: 1791-1797.

1799-1800.—Legislative union with Great Britain.—"No sooner had the rebellion been suppressed than the Government proposed, to the Parliament of each country, the union of Great Britain and Ireland under a common legislature. This was no new idea. It had frequently been in the minds of successive generations of statesmen on both sides of the Channel; but had not yet been seriously discussed with a view to immediate action. Nothing could have been more safely predicted than that Ireland must, sooner or later, follow the precedent of Scotland, and yield her pretensions to a separate legislation. The measures of 1782, which appeared to establish the legislative independence of Ireland, really proved the vanity of such a pretension. . . . On the assembling of the British Parliament at the commencement of the year [1799], the question of the Union was recommended by a message from the Crown; and the address, after some opposition, was carried without a division. Pitt, at this, the earliest stage, pronounced the decision at which the Government had arrived to be positive and irrevocable. . . . Lord Cornwallis [then lord lieutenant of Ireland] also expressed his conviction that union was the only measure which could preserve the country. . . . the Irish Houses assembled; and the Viceroy's speech, of course, contained a paragraph relative to the project. The House of Lords, completely under the control of the Castle, agreed to an address in conformity with the speech, after a short and languid debate, by a large majority; but the Commons were violently agitated. . . . An amendment to the address pledging the House to maintain the Union was lost by one vote, after the House had sat twenty-one hours; but, on the report, the amendment to omit the paragraph referring to the Union was carried by a majority of four. . . . When it was understood that the Government was in earnest . . . there was little difficulty in alarming a people among whom the machinery of political agitation had, for some years, been extensively organised. The bar of Dublin took the lead, and it at once became evident that the policy of the Government had effected a union among Irishmen far more formidable than that which all the efforts of sedition had been able to accomplish. The meeting of the bar included not merely men of different religious persuasions, but, what was of more importance in Ireland, men of different sides in politics. . . . However conclusive the argument in favour of Union may appear to Englishmen, it was difficult for an Irishman to regard the Union in any other view than as a measure to deprive his country of her independent constitution, and to extinguish her national existence. Mr. Foster, the Speaker, took this view. . . . Sir John Parnell, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, followed the Speaker. Mr. Fitzgerald, the Prime Sergeant, a law officer of the Crown, was on the same side. Ponsonby, the leader of the Whigs, was vehement against the scheme; so was Grattan; so was Curran. Great efforts were made by the Government to quiet the Protestants, and to engage the Catholics to support the Union. These efforts were so far successful that most of the Orange lodges were persuaded to refrain from expressing any opinion on the subject. The Catholic hierarchy were conciliated by the promise of a provision for the clergy, and of an adjustment of the Tithe question. Hopes were held out, if promises were not actually made, to the Catholic community, that their civil disabilities would be removed. . . . If the Union was to be accomplished by constitutional means, it could be effected only by a vote of the Irish Parliament, concurring with a vote of the English Parliament. . . . The vote on the address was followed, in a few days, by an address to the Crown, in which the Commons pledged themselves to maintain the constitution of 1782. The majority in favour of national independence had already increased from five to twenty. . . . The votes of the Irish Commons had disposed of the question for the current session; but preparations were immediately made for its future passage through the Irish Houses. The foremost men in Ireland . . . had first been tempted, but had indignantly refused every offer to betray the independence of their country. Another class of leading persons was then tried, and from these, for the most part, evasive answers were received. The minister understood the meaning of these dubious utterances. There was one mode of carrying the Union, and one mode only. Bribery of every kind must be employed without hesitation and without stint."—W. Massey, *History of England, reign of George III, v. 4, ch. 38.*—"Lord Cornwallis had to work the system of 'negotiating and jobbing,' by promising an Irish Peerage, or a lift in that Peerage, or even an English Peerage, to a crowd of eager competitors for honours. The other specific for making converts was not yet in complete operation. Lord Castlereagh [the Irish chief secretary] had the plan in his portfolio:—borough proprietors to be compensated; . . . fifty barristers in parliament, who always considered a seat as the road to preferment, to be compensated; the purchasers of seats to be compensated; individuals connected either by residence of property with Dublin to be compensated. 'Lord Castlereagh considered that £1,500,000 would be required to effect all these compensations.' The sum actually paid to the borough-mongers alone

was £1,260,000. Fifteen thousand pounds were allotted to each borough; and 'was apportioned amongst the various patrons.' . . . It had become a contest of bribery on both sides. There was an 'Opposition stock-purse,' as Lord Castlereagh describes the fund against which he was to struggle with the deeper purse at Whitehall. . . . During the administration of Lord Cornwallis, 29 Irish Peerages were created; of which seven only were unconnected with the question of Union. Six English Peerages were granted on account of Irish services; and there were 19 promotions in the Irish Peerage, earned by similar assistance." The question of Union was virtually decided in the Irish House of Commons on the 6th of February, 1800. Lord Castlereagh, on the previous day, had read a message from the Lord Lieutenant, communicating resolutions adopted by the Parliament of Great Britain in the previous year. "The question was debated from four o'clock in the afternoon of the 5th to one o'clock in the afternoon of the 6th. During that time the streets of Dublin were the scene of a great riot, and the peace of the city was maintained only by troops of cavalry. . . . On the division of the 6th there was a majority of 43 in favour of the Union." It was not, however, until the 7th of June, that the final legislative enactment—the Union Bill—was passed in the Irish House of Commons. The first article provided "that the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland should, upon the 1st of January, 1801, be united into one kingdom, by the name of The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The United Kingdom was to be represented in one and the same parliament. In the United Parliament there were to be 28 temporal Peers, elected for life by the Irish Peerage; and four spiritual Peers, taking their places in rotation. There were to be 100 members of the Lower House; each county returning two, as well as the cities of Dublin and Cork. The University returned one, and 31 boroughs each returned one. Of these boroughs 23 remained close boroughs till the Reform Bill of 1831. . . . The Churches of England and Ireland were to be united. The proportion of revenue to be levied was fixed at fifteen for Great Britain and two for Ireland, for the succeeding twenty years. Countervailing duties upon imports to each country were fixed by a minute tariff, but some commercial restrictions were to be removed."—C. Knight, *Popular history of England, v. 7, ch. 21.*—"If the Irish Parliament had consisted mainly, or to any appreciable extent, of men who were disloyal to the connection, and whose sympathies were on the side of rebellion or with the enemies of England, the English Ministers would, I think, have been amply justified in employing almost any means to abolish it. . . . But it cannot be too clearly understood or too emphatically stated, that the legislative Union was not an act of this nature. The Parliament which was abolished was a Parliament of the most unqualified loyalists; it had shown itself ready to make every sacrifice in its power for the maintenance of the Empire, and from the time when Arthur O'Connor and Lord Edward Fitzgerald passed beyond its walls, it probably did not contain a single man who was really disaffected. . . . It must be added, that it was becoming evident that the relation between the two countries established by the Constitution of 1782 could not have continued unchanged. . . . Even with the best dispositions, the Constitution of 1782 involved many and grave probabilities of difference. . . . Sooner or later the corrupt borough ascendency must have broken down, and it was a grave question what was to succeed it. . . . An enormous increase of disloyalty and religious animosity had taken place during the last years of the century, and it added immensely to the danger of the democratic Catholic suffrage, which the Act of 1793 had called into existence. This was the strongest argument for hurrying on the Union; but when all due weight is assigned to it, it does not appear to me to have justified the policy of Pitt."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England in the eighteenth century, v. 8, ch. 32.*

Also in: T. D. Ingram, *History of the legislative union.*—R. Hassencamp, *History of Ireland, ch. 14.*—Marquis Cornwallis, *Correspondence, v. 2-3, ch. 19-21.*—Viscount Castlereagh, *Memoirs and correspondence, v. 2-3.*

1801.—Pitt's promise of Catholic emancipation broken by the king. See England: 1801-1806.

1801-1803. — Emmet's insurrection. — "Lord Hardwicke succeeded Lord Cornwallis as viceroy in May [1801]; and for two years, so far as the British public knew, Ireland was undisturbed. The harvest of 1801 was abundant. The island was occupied by a military force of 125,000 men. Distant rumours of disturbances in Limerick, Tipperary, and Waterford were faintly audible. Imports and exports increased. The debt increased likewise, but, as it was met by loans and uncontrolled by any public assembly, no one protested, and few were aware of the fact. Landlords and middlemen throve on high rents, and peasants as yet could live. . . . Early in 1803 the murmurs in the southwest became louder. Visions of a fixed price for potatoes began to shape themselves, and the invasion of 'strangers' ready to take land from which tenants had been ejected was resisted. The magistrates urged the viceroy to obtain and exercise the powers of the Insurrection Act; but the evil was not thought of sufficient magnitude, and their request was refused. Amidst the general calm, the insurrection of Robert Emmett in July broke like a bolt from the blue. A young republican visionary, whose brother had taken an active part in the rebellion, he had inspired a few score comrades with the quixotic hope of rekindling Irish nationality by setting up a factory of pikes on a back street of Dublin. On the eve of St. James's Day, Quigley, one of his associates, who had been sowing vague hopes among the villagers of Kildare, brought a mixed crowd into Dublin. When the evening fell, a sky-rocket was fired. Emmett and his little band sallied from Marshalsea Lane into St. James's Street, and distributed pikes to all who would take them. The disorderly mob thus armed proceeded to the debtors' prison, which they attacked, killing the officer who defended it. Emmett urged them on to the Castle. They followed, in a confused column, utterly beyond his power to control. On their way they fell in with the carriage of the Chief Justice, Lord Kilwarden, dragged him out, and killed him. By this time a few handfuls of troops had been collected. In half an hour two subalterns, with fifty soldiers each, had dispersed the whole gathering. By ten o'clock all was over, with the loss of 20 soldiers and 50 insurgents. Emmett and Russell, another of the leaders who had undertaken the agitation of Down and Antrim, were shortly afterwards taken and executed; Quigley escaped. . . . Emmett died as Shelley would have died, a martyr and an enthusiast; but he knew little of his countrymen's condition, little of their

aspirations, nothing of their needs."—J. H. Bridges, *Two centuries of Irish history, pt. 3, ch. 2.*

Also in: R. R. Madden, *United Irishmen, their lives and times, v. 3.*—J. Wills, *History of Ireland in the lives of Irishmen, v. 6, pp. 68-80.*

1811-1829.—O'Connell and agitation for Catholic emancipation and repeal of Union.—Catholic disabilities removed.—"There is much reason to believe that almost from the commencement of his career" Daniel O'Connell, the great Irish agitator, "formed one vast scheme of policy which he pursued through life with little deviation, and, it must be added, with little scruple. This scheme was to create and lead a public spirit among the Roman Catholics; to wrest emancipation by this means from the Government; to perpetuate the agitation created for that purpose till the Irish Parliament had been restored; to disendow the Established Church; and thus to open in Ireland a new era, with a separate and independent Parliament and perfect religious equality. It would be difficult to conceive a scheme of policy exhibiting more daring. . . . Several times the movement was menaced by Government proclamations and prosecutions. Its great difficulty was to bring the public opinion of the whole body of the Roman Catholics actively and habitually into the question. . . . All preceding movements since the Revolution (except the passing excitement about Wood's halfpence) had been chiefly among the Protestants or among the higher order of the Catholics. The mass of the people had taken no real interest in politics, had felt no real pain at their disabilities, and were politically the willing slaves of their landlords. For the first time, under the influence of O'Connell, the great swell of a really democratic movement was felt. The simplest way of concentrating the new enthusiasm would have been by a system of delegates, but this had been rendered illegal by the Convention Act. On the other hand, the right of petitioning was one of the fundamental privileges of the constitution. By availing himself of this right O'Connell contrived, with the dexterity of a practised lawyer, to violate continually the spirit of the Convention Act, while keeping within the letter of the law. Proclamation after proclamation was launched against his society, but by continually changing its name and its form he generally succeeded in evading the prosecutions of the Government. These early societies, however, all sink into insignificance compared with that great Catholic Association which was formed in 1824. The avowed objects of this society were to promote religious education, to ascertain the numerical strength of the different religions, and to answer the charges against the Roman Catholics embodied in the hostile petitions. It also 'recommended' petitions (unconnected with the society) from every parish, and aggregate meetings in every county. The real object was to form a gigantic system of organisation, ramifying over the entire country, and directed in every parish by the priests, for the purpose of petitioning and in every other way agitating in favour of emancipation. The Catholic Rent [a system of small subscriptions—as small as a penny a month—collected from the poorest contributors, throughout Ireland] was instituted at this time, and it formed at once a powerful instrument of cohesion and a faithful barometer of the popular feeling. . . . The success of the Catholic Association became every week more striking. The rent rose with an extraordinary rapidity [from £350 a week in October to £700 a week in December, 1824]. The meetings in every county grew more and more enthusiastic, the triumph of priestly influence more and more certain. The Government made a feeble and abortive effort to arrest the storm by threatening both O'Connell and Sheil [Richard Lalor] with prosecution for certain passages in their speeches. . . . The formation of the Wellington Ministry [Wellington and Peel, 1828] seemed effectually to crush the present hopes of the Catholics, for the stubborn resolution of its leader was as well known as his Tory opinions. Yet this Ministry was destined to terminate the contest by establishing the principle of religious equality. . . . On the accession of the Wellington Ministry to power the Catholic Association passed a resolution to the effect that they would oppose with their whole energy any Irish member who consented to accept office under it. . . . An oportunity for carrying the resolution into effect soon occurred. Mr. Fitzgerald, the member for Clare, accepted the office of President of the Board of Trade, and was consequently obliged to go to his constituents for re-election." O'Connell entered the lists against him. "The excitement at this announcement rose at once to fever height. It extended over every part of

HENRY GRATTAN DANIEL O'CONNELL ROBERT EMMET

Ireland, and penetrated every class of society. The whole mass of the Roman Catholics prepared to support him, and the vast system of organisation which he had framed acted effectually in every direction." For the first time, the landlords found that the voting of their tenants could not be controlled. Fitzgerald withdrew from the contest and O'Connell was elected. "Ireland was now on the very verge of revolution. The whole mass of the people had been organised like a regular army, and taught to act with the most perfect unanimity. . . . The Ministers, feeling further resistance to be hopeless, brought in the Emancipation Bill, confessedly because to withhold it would be to kindle a rebellion that would extend over the length and breadth of the land."—W. E. H. Lecky, *Leaders of public opinion in Ireland: O'Connell.*—"Peel introduced the Relief Bill on the 5th March [1829]. . . . In its main provisions it was thorough and far-reaching. It admitted the Roman Catholic to Parliament, and to all lay offices under the Crown, except those of Regent, Lord Chancellor, whether of England or of Ireland, and Lord Lieutenant. It repealed the oath of abjuration, it modified the oath of supremacy. . . . It approximated the Irish to the English county franchise by abolishing the forty-shilling freeholder, and raising the voters' qualifications to £10. All monasteries and institutions of Jesuits were suppressed; and Roman Catholic bishops were forbidden to assume titles of sees already held by bishops of the Church of Ireland. Municipal and other officials were forbidden to wear the insignia of their office at Roman Catholic ceremonies. Lastly, the new Oath of Supremacy was available only for persons thereafter to be elected to Parliament"—which nullified O'Connell's election at Clare. This petty stroke of malice is said to have been introduced in the bill for the gratification of the king. The vote in the Commons on the Bill was 353 against 180, and in the Lords 217 to 112. It received the Royal assent on the 13th of April.—J. A. Hamilton, *Life of Daniel O'Connell, ch.* 5.

Also in: J. McCarthy, *Sir Robert Peel, ch.* 2-7.—W. J. Fitzpatrick, *Correspondence of Daniel O'Connell, with notices of his life and times, v.* 1, *ch.* 1-5.—W. J. Amherst, *History of Catholic emancipation.*—W. C. Taylor, *Life and times of Sir Robert Peel, v.* 1, *ch.* 16-18, *v.* 2, *ch.* 1-2.

1820-1870. — Rise of Ribbon Society. — "Throughout the half-century extending from 1820 to 1870, a secret oath-bound agrarian confederacy, known as the 'Ribbon Society,' was the constant affliction and recurring terror of the landed classes of Ireland. . . . In Ulster it professed to be a defensive or retaliatory league against Orangeism. In Munster it was at first a combination against tithe-proctors. In Connaught it was an organisation against rack-renting and evictions. In Leinster it often was mere trade-unionism. . . . The Ribbon Society seems to have been wholly confined to small farmers, cottiers, labourers, and, in the towns, petty shop-keepers, in whose houses the 'lodges' were held. . . . Although from the inception, or first appearance, of Ribbonism the Catholic clergy waged a determined war upon it . . . the society was exclusively Catholic. Under no circumstances would a Protestant be admitted to membership. . . . The name 'Ribbon Society' was not attached to it until about 1826. It was previously known as 'Liberty Men'; the 'Religious Liberty System'; the 'United Sons of Irish Freedom'; 'Sons of the Shamrock'; and by other names. . . . There was a period when Ribbon outrages had, at all events, a conceivable provocation; but there came a time when they sickened the public conscience by their wantonness. The vengeance of the society was ruthless and terrible. . . . From 1835 to 1855 the Ribbon organisation was at its greatest strength. . . . With the emigration of the labouring classes it was carried abroad, to England and to America. At one time the most formidable lodges were in Lancashire."—A. M. Sullivan, *New Ireland, ch.* 4.

1830-1836.—Poor relief.—Infirmary system.—Dispensaries.—Spring Rice Committee.—Dublin Mendicity Institution. See Charities: Ireland: 1830-1836.

1831.—National Education Act.—"In 1830 Stanley, then Chief Secretary for Ireland, drew up a very extensive plan for Primary Education. A central Board was to be established in Dublin, consisting of Commissioners, of whom a third were to be Catholics. (This was subsequently changed to one half.) These were to administer the Government grant, and arrange all details regarding the schools. Primary schools were to be built all over the country. The cost of these, as well as the salary of the teachers, should be paid by the State. Children of all creeds should be received in the schools (it was not, however, till 1892 that the Compulsory Attendance Act was passed), and taught secular subjects together. At stated times, the ministers of each religion should attend and give religious instruction apart to the pupils of their own persuasion. These proposals were embodied in a Bill, which passed successfully through Parliament (1831). On the whole it was well received, both by the authorities of the Catholic Church and by the laity. . . . There can be no doubt that 'National Education' has done much good in Ireland. The proportion of illiterates amongst the population has steadily diminished, and the poor Irishman seeking employment no longer finds his chances of obtaining it diminished by his inability to read, write, or cypher. On the other hand, the system had grave defects. The most serious of all was, not the lack merely to encourage, but the systematic attempt to discourage Nationality and Patriotism amongst the pupils."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 487-488.—See also Education: Modern: 19th century: Ireland.

1832.—Parliamentary representation increased by Reform Bill. See England: 1830-1832.

1838.—Poor law. See Charities: Ireland: 1838-1849.

1838.—First agricultural college. See Education, Agricultural: Ireland.

1840-1841.—Discontent with results of the Union.—Condition of people.—National Schools.—Teetotalism.—O'Connell's revival of agitation for repeal.—"The Catholics were at length emancipated in 1829. . . . On the passing of the Emancipation Act not a single Catholic was admitted to an office of authority, great or small. . . . The Catholic Association, which had won the victory, was rewarded for its public spirit by being dissolved by Act of Parliament. Its leader, who had been elected to the House of Commons, had his election declared void by a phrase imported into the Emancipation Act for this special purpose. The forty-shilling freeholders, whose courage and magnanimity had made the cause irresistible, were immediately deprived of the franchise. By means of a high qualification and an ingeniously complicated system of registry, the electors in twelve counties were reduced from upwards of 100,000 to less than 10,000. . . . Emanci-

pation was speedily followed by a Reform of the House of Commons. In England a sweeping and salutary change was made both in the franchise, and in the distribution of seats; but Ireland did not obtain either the number of representatives she was demonstrably entitled to by population and resources, or such a reduction of the franchise as had been conceded to England. The Whigs were in power, and Ireland was well-disposed to the party. . . . But the idea of treating Ireland on perfectly equal terms, and giving her the full advantage of the Union which had been forced on her, did not exist in the mind of a single statesman of that epoch. In 1840-1 O'Connell revived the question of Repeal, on the ground that the Union had wholly failed to accomplish the end for which it was said to be designed. Instead of bringing Ireland prosperity, it had brought her ruin. The social condition of the country during the half-century, then drawing to a close was, indeed, without parallel in Europe. The whole population were dependent on agriculture. There were minerals, but none found in what miners call 'paying quantities.' There was no manufacture except linen, and the remnant of a woollen trade, slowly dying out before the pitiless competition of Yorkshire. What the island chiefly produced was food; which was exported to richer countries to enable the cultivator to pay an inordinate rent. . . . In 1842 half a million of children were receiving education in the National Schools under a system designed to establish religious equality, and administered by Catholic and Protestant Commissioners. And the Teetotal movement was at its height. Thousands were accepting every week a pledge of total abstinence from Father Mathew, a young priest whom the gifts of nature and the accidents of fortune combined to qualify for the mission of a Reformer. . . . There was the beginning of political reforms also. The Whigs sent a Lord Lieutenant and Chief Secretary to Ireland who, for the first time since the fall of Limerick, treated the bulk of the nation as the social and political equals of the minority. The minority had been so long accustomed to make and administer the laws, and to occupy the places of authority and distinction, that they regarded the change as a revolt; and Lord Mulgrave and Thomas Drummond as the successors of Tyrconnel and Nugent. In the interval, since Emancipation, a few Catholics were elected to Parliament, two Catholic lawyers were raised to the bench, and smaller appointments distributed among laymen. . . . The exclusion of Catholics from juries was restrained, and the practice of appointing partisans of too shameful antecedents to public functions was interrupted. . . . It was under these circumstances that O'Connell for the second time summoned the Irish people to demand a Repeal of the Union." —C. G. Duffy, *Bird's-eye view of Irish history, pp.* 242-275.

Also in: E. Fitzmaurice and J. R. Thursfield, *Two centuries of Irish history, pt.* 4, *ch.* 1-2.—R. M. Martin, *Ireland before and after the Union.*

1841-1848.—O'Connell's last agitation.—His trial, imprisonment and release.—His death.—"Young Ireland" party and its rebellion.—In 1841, O'Connell "left England and went to Ireland, and devoted himself there to the work of organization. A succession of monster meetings were held all over the country, the far-famed one on Tara Hill being, as is credibly asserted, attended by no less than a quarter of a million of people. . . . Resistance he had always steadily denounced, yet every day his own words seemed to be bringing the inevitable moment of collision nearer and nearer. The crisis came on October the 5th. A meeting had been summoned to meet at Clontarf, near Dublin, and on the afternoon of the 4th the Government suddenly came to the resolution of issuing a proclamation forbidding it to assemble. The risk was a formidable one for responsible men to run. Many of the people were already on their way, and only O'Connell's own rapid and vigorous measures in sending out in all directions to intercept them hindered the actual shedding of blood. His prosecution and that of some of his principal adherents was the next important event. By a Dublin jury he was found guilty, sentenced to two years' imprisonment, and conveyed to prison, still earnestly entreating the people to remain quiet, an order which they strictly obeyed. The jury by which he had been condemned was known to be strongly biassed against him, and an appeal had been forwarded against his sentence to the House of Lords. So strong there, too, was the feeling against O'Connell, that little expectation was entertained of its being favourably received. Greatly to its honour, however, the sentence was reversed and he was set free. . . . The enthusiasm shown at his release was frantic and delirious. None the less those months in Richmond prison proved the death-knell of his power. He was an old man by this time; he was already weakened in health, and that buoyancy which had hitherto carried him over any and every obstacle never again revived. The 'Young Ireland' party, the members of which had in the first instance been his allies and lieutenants, had now formed a distinct section, and upon the vital question of resistance were in fierce hostility to all his most cherished principles. The state of the country, too, preyed visibly upon his mind. By 1846 had begun that succession of disastrous seasons which, by destroying the feeble barrier which stood between the peasant and a cruel death, brought about a national tragedy. . . . This tragedy; though he did not live to see the whole of it, O'Connell—himself the incarnation of the people—felt acutely. Deep despondency took hold of him. He retired, to a great degree, from public life, leaving the conduct of his organization in the hands of others. . . . In 1847 he resolved to leave Ireland, and to end his days in Rome. His last public appearance was in the House of Commons. . . . In a few deeply moving words he appealed for aid and sympathy for his suffering countrymen, and left the House.

"The camp and council chamber of the 'Young Ireland' party was the editor's room of 'The Nation' newspaper. There it found its inspiration, and there its plans were matured—so far, that is, as they can be said to have been ever matured. . . . The whole movement in fact was, in the first instance, a literary quite as much as a political one. Nearly all who took part in it—Gavan Duffy, John Mitchell, Meagher, Dillon, Davis himself—were very young men, many fresh from college, all filled with zeal for the cause of liberty and nationality. The graver side of the movement only showed itself when the struggle with O'Connell began. At first no idea of deposing, or even seriously opposing the great leader seems to have been intended. The attempt on O'Connell's part to carry a formal declaration against the employment under any circumstances of physical force was the origin of that division; and what the younger spirits considered 'truckling to the Whigs' helped to widen the breach. When, too, O'Connell had partially retired into the background, his place

was filled by his son, John O'Connell, the 'Head conciliator,' between whom and the 'Young Irelanders' there waged a fierce war, which in the end led to the indignant withdrawal of the latter from the Repeal council. Before matters reached this point, the younger camp had been strengthened by the adhesion of Smith O'Brien, who, though not a man of much intellectual calibre, carried no little weight in Ireland. . . . Early in January, 1847, O'Connell left on that journey of his which was never completed, and by the middle of May Ireland was suddenly startled by the news that her great leader was dead. The effect of his death was to produce a sudden and immense reaction. . . . Upon the 'Young Ireland' party, as was inevitable, the weight of that anger fell chiefly, and from the moment of O'Connell's death whatever claim they had to call themselves a national party vanished utterly. The men 'who killed the Liberator' could never again hope to carry with them the suffrages of any number of their countrymen. This contumely, to a great degree undeserved, naturally reacted upon the subjects of it. The taunt of treachery and ingratitude flung at them wherever they went stung and nettled. In the general reaction of gratitude and affection for O'Connell, his son John succeeded easily to the position of leader. The older members of the Repeal Association thereupon rallied about him, and the split between them and the younger men grew deeper and wider. A wild, impracticable visionary now came to play a part in the movement. A deformed misanthrope, called James Lalor, endowed with a considerable command of vague, passionate rhetoric, began to write incentives to revolt in 'The Nation.' These growing more and more violent were by the editor at length prudently suppressed. The seed, however, had already sown itself in another mind. John Mitchell . . . broke away from his connection with 'The Nation,' and started a new organ under the name of 'The United Irishmen,' one definitely pledged from the first to the policy of action. . . . Mitchell's newspaper proceeded to fling out challenge after challenge to the Government, calling upon the people to gather and to 'sweep this island clear of the English name and nation.' For some months these challenges remained unanswered. It was now, however, ''48,' and nearly all Europe was in revolution. The necessity of taking some step began to be evident, and a Bill making all written incitement of insurrection felony was hurried through the House of Commons, and almost immediately after Mitchell was arrested. . . . . He was tried in Dublin, found guilty, sentenced to fourteen years' transportation, and a few days afterwards put on board a vessel in the harbour and conveyed to Spike Island, whence he was sent to Bermuda, and the following April in a convict vessel to the Cape, and finally to Tasmania. The other 'Young Irelanders,' stung apparently by their own previous inaction, thereupon rushed frantically into rebellion. The leaders—Smith O'Brien, Meagher, Dillon, and others—went about the country holding reviews of 'Confederates,' as they now called themselves, a proceeding which caused the Government to suspend the Habeas Corpus Act, and to issue a warrant for their arrest. A few more gatherings took place in different parts of the country, a few more ineffectual attempts were made to induce the people to rise, one very small collision with the police occurred, and then the whole thing was over. All the leaders in the course of a few days were arrested and Smith O'Brien and Meagher were sentenced to death, a sentence which was speedily changed into transportation. Gavan Duffy was arrested and several times tried, but the jury always disagreed, and in the end his prosecution was abandoned. The 'Young Ireland' movement, however, was dead, and never again revived."—E. Lawless, *Story of Ireland, ch.* 55-56.

Also in: C. G. Duffy, *Young Ireland.*—Idem, *Four years of Irish history.*—Idem, *Thomas Davis: Memoirs of an Irish patriot.*

1843-1848.—Devon Commission.—Encumbered Estates Act.—In 1843, Mr. Sharman Crawford "succeeded in obtaining the appointment of a Royal Commission to investigate the 'occupation of land in Ireland.' This Commission, known from its chairman, Lord Devon, as the Devon Commission, marks a great epoch in the Irish land question. The Commissioners, in their Report, brought out strongly the facts that great misery existed in Ireland, and that the cause of the misery was the system of land tenure. . . . And the remedy for the evil is to be found, continues the Report, in 'an increased and improved cultivation of the soil,' to be gained by securing for the tenant 'fair remuneration for the outlay of his capital and labour.' No sooner was this Report issued than great numbers of petitions were presented to the House of Lords, and supported by Lord Devon, praying for legislative reform of the land evils; and in June, 1845, a bill was introduced into the House of Lords by Lord Stanley, on behalf of the government of Sir Robert Peel, for 'the purpose of providing compensation to tenants in Ireland, in certain cases, on being dispossessed of their holdings, for such improvements as they may have made during their tenancy.' By the selfish opposition of the Irish landlords this bill was thrown out. Two days after its rejection in the House of Lords Mr. Sharman Crawford brought into the House of Commons a Tenant Right Bill, and met with as little success. [See also England: 1846.] In 1846 a government bill was introduced, bearing a strong resemblance to that of Lord Stanley; but the ministry was overthrown, and the bill was dropped. . . . In 1847 the indefatigable Mr. Crawford brought in a bill, whose purpose was to extend the Ulster custom to the whole of Ireland; it was thrown out. A well-meant but in the end unsuccessful attempt to relieve the burdens of embarrassed landlords without redressing the grievances of rack-rented tenants, was made in 1848 by the measure well known as the Encumbered Estates Act. This Act had for its object to restore capital to the land; but with capital it brought in a class of proprietors who lacked the virtues as well as the vices of their predecessors, and were even more oppressive to the tenantry."—E. Thursfield, *England and Ireland, ch.* 10.

Also in: H. L. Jephson, *Notes on Irish questions, ch.* 15.—D. B. King, *Irish question, ch.* 9.

1844.—Maynooth grant.—Towards the close of the session of Parliament in 1844, Sir Robert Peel undertook a measure "dealing with higher education in Ireland. Means were to be found, in some way, for the education of the upper classes of the Irish, and for the more efficient education of candidates for the Roman Catholic priesthood. . . . Trinity College retained most of its advantages for the benefit of its Protestant students, and the 395,000 scholars, whom the National Board was educating, did not, after all, include one person in every twenty alive in Ireland. The Roman Catholic, since 1793, had been allowed to

graduate at Trinity; but he could hold neither scholarship nor professorship. . . . Some steps had, indeed, been taken for the education of the Roman Catholic priesthood. In 1795, Fitzwilliam had proposed, and his successor, Camden, had approved, the appropriation of an annual sum of money to a college formed at Maynooth for the education of Roman Catholic priests. The Irish parliament had readily sanctioned the scheme; the payment of the grant had been continued, after the Union, by the Parliament of the United Kingdom, and, though the sums voted had been reduced to £9,000 a year in 1808, this amount had been thenceforward regularly allotted to Maynooth. In some respects the grant was actually disadvantageous to the college; it was too small to maintain the institution; it was large enough to discourage voluntary contributions. The surroundings of the college were squalid; its professors were wretchedly paid; it was even impossible to assign to each of the 440 students a separate room; it was dubbed by Macaulay, in a memorable speech, a 'miserable Dotheboys' Hall,' and it was Peel's deliberate opinion that the absolute withdrawal of the grant would be better than the continuance of the niggardly allowance." The Government "asked Parliament to vote a sum of £30,000 to improve the buildings at Maynooth; it proposed that the Board of Works should in future be responsible for keeping them in repair; it suggested that the salaries of professors should be more than doubled; that the position of the students should be improved; that the annual grant should be raised from about £9,000 to about £26,000, and that this sum, instead of being subject to the approval of the legislature once a year, should be placed on the Consolidated Fund. Then arose a series of debates which have no parallel in the history of the British Parliament. . . . Yet, vast as was the storm which the Minister had provoked, the issues which he had directly raised were of the smallest proportions. Hardly anyone ventured to propose that the original vote to Maynooth should be withdrawn. A grant, indeed, which had been sanctioned by George III., which had been fixed by Perceval, which had been voted in an unreformed Parliament, almost without debate, and which had been continued for fifty years, could not be withdrawn. . . . A majority in both Houses steadily supported the Minister, and zealous Protestants and old-fashioned Tories were unable to defeat a scheme which was proposed by Peel and supported by Russell."—S. Walpole, *History of England from 1815, v.* 4, *ch.* 19.

Also in: H. Martineau, *History of the thirty years' peace, bk.* 6, *ch.* 8.

1845-1847.—Famine.—Emigration to America. —"In 1841 the population of Ireland was 8,175,124 souls. By 1845 it had probably reached to nearly nine millions. . . . To any one looking beneath the surface the condition of the country was painfully precarious. Nine millions of a population living at best in a light-hearted and hopeful hand-to-mouth contentment, totally dependent on the hazards of one crop, destitute of manufacturing industries, and utterly without reserve or resource to fall back upon in time of reverse; what did all this mean but a state of things critical and alarming in the extreme? Yet no one seemed conscious of danger. The potato crop had been abundant for four or five years, and respite from dearth and distress was comparative happiness and prosperity. Moreover, the temperance movement [of Father Mathew] had come to make the 'good times' still better. Everything looked bright. No one concerned himself to discover how slender and treacherous was the foundation for this general hopefulness and confidence. Yet signs of the coming storm had been given. Partial famine caused by failing harvests had indeed been intermittent in Ireland [1822, 1831, 1835, 1836, 1837], and, quite recently, warnings that ought not to have been mistaken or neglected had given notice that the esculent which formed the sole dependence of the peasant millions was subject to some mysterious blight. In 1844 it was stricken in America, but in Ireland the yield was healthy and plentiful as ever. . . . When first in the autumn of 1845 the partial blight appeared, wise voices were raised in warning to the Government that a frightful catastrophe was at hand; yet even then began that fatal circumlocution and inaptness which it maddens one to think of. It would be utter injustice to deny that the Government made exertions which judged by ordinary emergencies would be prompt and considerable. But judged by the awful magnitude of the evil then at hand or actually befallen, they were fatally tardy and inadequate. When at length the executive did hurry, the blunders of precipitancy outdid the disasters of excessive deliberation. . . . In October 1845 the Irish Mansion House Relief Committee implored the Government to call Parliament together and throw open the ports. The Government refused. Again and again the terrible urgency of the case, the magnitude of the disaster at hand, was pressed on the executive. It was the obstinate refusal of Lord John Russell to listen to these remonstrances and entreaties, and the sad verification subsequently of these apprehensions, that implanted in the Irish mind the bitter memories which still occasionally find vent in passionate accusation of 'England.' Not but the Government had many and weighty arguments in behalf of the course they took. . . . The situation bristled with difficulties. . . . At first the establishment of public soup-kitchens under local relief committees, subsidised by Government, was relied upon to arrest the famine."—A. M. Sullivan, *New Ireland, ch.* 6. —"America sent two ships of war, the 'Jamestown' and the 'Macedonian,' full of provisions; and the Irish residents in the United States sent upwards of £200,000 to their relatives, to allow them to emigrate."—L. Levi, *History of British commerce, pt.* 4, *ch.* 4.—"By the end of 1847 cheap supplies of food began to be brought into the country by the ordinary operation of the laws of supply and demand, at far cheaper rates, owing to an abundant harvest abroad, than if the Government had tried to constitute itself the sole distributor. The potato harvest of 1847, if not bountiful, was at least comparatively good. . . . By March, 1848, the third and last period of the famine may be said to have terminated. But, though the direct period of distress was over, the economic problems which remained for solution were of overwhelming magnitude. . . . A million and a half of the people had disappeared. The land was devastated with fever and the diseases which dog the steps of famine."—E. Fitzmaurice and J. R. Thursfield, *Two centuries of Irish history, pt.* 4, *ch.* 4.—"This was the era of the Corn Laws, which had first been passed in 1815 by a parliament of English landlords, for the purpose of excluding wheat from abroad unless it sold at very high prices at home; and now it was difficult to bring in supplies of food which the impoverished Irish could buy. Under the leadership of Peel there was indeed a great revolution in British economic policy, marked by the re-

peal of the Corn Laws in the summer of 1846, [see TARIFF: 1845-1846] but meanwhile conditions in Ireland were far more grave. In 1846 the potato crop totally failed. The British authorities . . . [were] hampered by belief in the prevailing economic theory of *laissez-faire*, and inclined to leave things to work themselves out; and when they found it necessary to do something nevertheless, they were hampered by inexperience in dealing with such matters, so that what they did was afterwards seen to be partial and unwise. The government bought up large quantities of Indian corn to sell in Ireland at low price, and established relief works for the purpose of giving employment. But the food that was brought in came too late to save the multitudes who were starving, and the public works undertaken were largely temporary or useless. . . . Pestilence, the wan sister of hunger, appeared to complete the destruction. In 1846-7 a virulent plague, the 'road-fever,' fell upon the land. People died as they crawled out for assistance; or were abandoned by their friends who fled from the pest. There had fallen upon Ireland a calamity which was owing to numerous causes, for some of which contemporary England was certainly not to blame. Population had increased so fast that in a purely agricultural country it could scarce be supported any longer. But the disaster was largely due to the ignorance and lowly condition into which most of the people had been forced by circumstances over which they had no control, and especially to the fact that Ireland was still owned by the landlords, many of whom lived outside the island and took no pains to have care for the peasants who toiled on their lands. And it seemed a grievous thing that the exportation of corn [grain] from Ireland was not forbidden, for the blight had not affected the other crops of the island, and grain that went out to pay rents was to a considerable extent exported to England at the very time that Sir Robert Peel was partly assuaging the famine by importing Indian meal from places far off. The public works undertaken to give employment to the starving were done largely with money considered as a loan to Ireland, to be repaid later on. [Repayment, however, was afterward remitted.] Hills were cut down, and then filled up; and roads were built in useless places. In after days it was said that the famine itself could not indeed have been averted, as things then were, with the failure of the staple crop of food, but if there had been Home Rule with an Irish parliament, cognizant of Irish needs and sympathetic with them, much could have been done to prevent the dreadful things which ensued; and that if there had been such a famine in England, the measures taken would have been very different also. Much of this may be true. Certainly nothing that happened in the nineteenth century did so much to arouse the world to the belief that something was wrong with Irish conditions. Not that the suffering was viewed with indifference. There was genuine compassion in England when the calamity was really comprehended; and it is a mistake to think that in Ireland landlords continued to reap profits from starving tenants with cool indifference. Actually many of them, who had been wont to reap profit from the land, now went down into ruin along with the peasants. Middlemen and landlords gave what they could until often they were reduced to destitution themselves."—E. R. Turner, *Ireland and England, pp.* 135-136, 138-139.

"The famine had at least one good effect. It drew attention to the main source of the evil in Ireland, which was agrarian and social, not political and religious. But now it was supposed that the mischief lay in the inability of the landlords, overwhelmed with debt, burdened with family settlements, and crushed by the demands of the Poor Law, to perform their duty to their tenants. [See CHARITIES: Ireland: 1838-1849.] To remedy this evil was created the Encumbered Estates Court, with power to order the sale of encumbered property on the petition of the creditors and give a clear title to the purchaser. [See above: 1843-1848.] The policy seemed sound, yet the result was not good. The court cleared out the old proprietors who lacked means to do their duty; it put in their place a new class of proprietors who, having been induced to buy the land on pure speculation, felt that they had no duty to do, and who, unlike their predecessors, had no kindly tie to the people. The new owners naturally proceeded to make the most of their purchase; and the way to make the most of their purchase clearly was to sweep out the cotter tenants and throw the land into large holdings. This some of them proceeded to do, and the consequence was a period of evictions almost vying in cruelty with the famine. Whole districts were cleared and relet in large holdings. Cabins were being thrown down in all directions. A thousand of them were levelled in one union within a few months, and the inmates were cast out helpless, half-naked, starving, to go to the union or perish. The cabins were burned that the people might not return to them. The suffering and misery, says a reporter, attendant upon these wholesale evictions, is indescribable. . . . Relief works were no cure, [see also CHARITIES: Ireland: 1845-1852] nor were they in themselves very rational, since the people, unfed, half-clothed, and living in pestilential mud-holes, were really too weak to work. Parliament so far interfered as to pass an act requiring forty-eight hours' notice of eviction to the relieving officers, prohibiting evictions two hours before sunset or sunrise, and on Christmas Day and Good Friday, and prohibiting the demolition of the house of a tenant about to be evicted. But this rather throws a lurid light on the state of things than effects a cure. The public even might have some reason to complain of the land-owner who recklessly cast upon the poor rates or public charity the human encumbrances of his land. Apart from overpopulation and its effects, the Irish land-law unquestionably needed reform. The people, struggling with each other for their sole means of subsistence, undertook to pay exorbitant rents, and their improvements, if they made any, became without compensation the property of the landlord. In Ulster, always exceptional, there prevailed a certain measure of tenant-right, something like the English copyhold. In Ireland [as a whole] the demand for tenant-right now began to be loudly heard. . . . [But] on the Irish side there was no leader of worth or force. Patriotism was in a trance, and the chronicler of the Nationalist party indignantly proclaims that the cause was betrayed by a series of low adventurers who embraced it as the way to preferment. 'The most common type of Irish politician,' he says in his anguish, 'in these days was the man who entered Parliamentary life solely for the purpose of selling himself for place and salary.' "—G. Smith, *Irish history and the Irish question, pp.* 183-184, 186-187.—Following on the passage of the Encumbered Estates Act began the unexampled emi-

gration from Ireland which made of the Irish a dispersed nation, and gave the Irish question its world wide significance. "It is absolutely necessary to bear this [exodus] strictly in mind, if we would judge of the intense hatred which prevails amongst the Irish in America to Great Britain. The children of many of those who were exiled then have raised themselves to positions of affluence and prosperity in the United States. But they have often heard from their fathers, and some of them may perhaps recall, the circumstances under which they were driven from their old homes in Ireland. . . . But there is a further and awful memory connected with that time. The people who had been suffering from fever carried the plague with them on board, and the vessels sometimes became floating charnel-houses. During the year 1847, out of 106,000 emigrants who crossed the Atlantic for Canada and New Brunswick, 6,100 perished on the ocean, 4,100 immediately on landing, 5,200 subsequently in the hospitals, and 1,900 in the towns to which they repaired. . . . Undoubtedly, historical circumstances have . . . had much to do with the political hatred to Great Britain; but its newly acquired intensity is owing to the still fresh remembrances of what took place after the famine, and to the fact that the wholesale clearances of Irish estates were, to say the least, not discouraged in the writings and speeches of English lawgivers, economists and statesmen."—R. Blennerhassett, *Ireland* (T. H. Ward, ed., *Reign of Queen Victoria, v.* 1, *pp.* 563-565).—See also IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1907-1917.

1846-1922.—Lack of conservation of natural resources.—Land Purchase Act of 1903.—Reckless denudation. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Ireland.

1847-1860.—"The Clearances" and continued emigration the causes of Fenian rising.—Ulster custom.—Tenant League.—Ecclesiastical Titles Act.—"The Phœnix."—"The famine of the year 1846 had left as its legacy a new and tragic Ireland. Three quarters of a million of the population had died of hunger. The famine was followed by two consequences. One was the Clearances; the other was emigration. The Clearances, or evictions, had some economic justification. The small extent of the peasant's holding, inadequate, in a bad year, to supply the minimum needs of subsistence, had been one of the causes of famine; and some consolidation of holdings was an economic necessity. But whatever its economic justification, the grievance of eviction rankled bitterly in the hearts of the peasantry, who, losing their holdings, lost everything, since they had no alternative occupation to which they could turn. The scale on which eviction was practised made the misery which it involved still more bitter. From 1849 to 1856 over 50,000 families were evicted. In 1863 and again in 1864 the number of families evicted was little short of 2,000; in 1865 and 1866 it sank, but it still remained at the rate of nearly 1,000. Meanwhile the flood of emigration flowed high. Between 1846 and 1851 a quarter of a million of the population emigrated in each year. Between 1851 and 1861 over 100,000 were annually leaving Ireland. Famine, eviction, emigration—this was a triple wave of woes before which men's spirits quailed. They have left their mark deep in Irish memory. . . . Causes so dire were likely to produce a dire effect. That effect was Fenianism. The Fenians were a separatist and revolutionary party, whose motto, it may be said, was *il faut faire peur,* and whose methods were those of physical force. They drew their name of Fenians from the legends of old Irish history, but their origin was comparatively recent."—E. Barker, *Ireland in the last fifty years, pp.* 14, 15, 16.—"'By the end of 1849 it was said the Irish tenants looked as if they had just come out of their graves, and the landlords as if they were going into theirs.' It is true that at this very time, what with tenants leaving their farms in despair, and the whole system of things seeming to crumble to ruin, clearance went on, and consolidation of small pieces of land into larger holdings. Yet this is the time when the middlemen disappeared, and many of the proprietors never recovered from the effects of their charity and the crushing burden of poor relief imposed by the state. Some things there are so complicated and extended that it is difficult to be certain, and no proofs can be given with respect to assertions about them; but it would seem that the famine and pestilence of these fatal years changed the character of the Irish people. . . . There was universal pessimism, hatred, and despair, and although times were to change before very long, by no means is all of it gone in Ireland at present. A million and a half persons, it is thought, were stricken with the fever; a half million, it may be a million, perished from the hunger and sickness. But this was not all. From the stricken land Irishmen began to flee in a mighty exodus which drained the island of its people. . . . In the decade 1851-1860 it is said that a million and a half Irishmen emigrated, fleeing from the old home to a new and greater Ireland, going most of them to the United States of America. . . . By the end of 1847 cheap food was being brought into Ireland and a good potato crop had been gathered. By next spring the famine was largely past. . . . But Ireland did not recover. Again a great economic change was at work to her disadvantage. At the beginning of the famine the Corn Laws had been repealed in England. . . . In England now manufacturers expanded with cheaper food for the artisans, and great prosperity resulted; but in Ireland, where farming and grazing continued to be the principal occupations, agriculture declined in competition with the greater grain lands abroad. The Irish export trade in cereals was largely destroyed, and wheat growing decayed at the same time that such small manufactures as lingered on in Ireland were extinguished in competition with the greater ones across the Channel in Britain. Population was declining and continued to decline, for every class saw ruin staring in the face. The laborers who had fled from the famine found far greater chances in America, and sent back intelligence of what they had found. At first the emigrants fled from the famine and fever and desolation of their land, but as years went by and conditions were better, they went over the ocean nevertheless, answering the call of them who had gone before."—E. R. Turner, *Ireland and England, pp.* 139-143.—"As the new legislation . . . [Encumbered Estates Act] scarcely at all diminished the grievances under which the people suffered, the discontent continued to grow, and soon a great outcry arose all over the country against the injustice of the Land Laws, accompanied by an insistent demand for their alteration. In the Northern Province a custom prevailed by which a tenant acquired what was called an 'interest' in the land which he cultivated, and could dispose of this when he vacated the farm. The value of this 'Interest' varied largely, according chiefly to the amount of 'unexhausted im-

provements' made by the seller, but even when no improvements had been made, something was paid. The land was disposed of often without consulting the landlord, whose only concern was considered to be that he should receive his rent as originally fixed. As long as a tenant paid this rent he had practical fixity of tenure. This was, in truth, a survival of the old Irish system of land tenure; but, as it had remained only in Ulster, it came to be known as 'Ulster Tenant Right.' At the period of which we are speaking, it was a custom only, unrecognised by law, and enforced merely by public opinion and the inconvenience, or even peril, which might result to any person violating it. It is not to be supposed that, even in Ulster, many grievances did not exist in connection with land tenure, and we find northerns now joining with the more oppressed tenants of the south in a general demand for redress. At a Conference held in Dublin in 1850, Catholic priests and Presbyterian clergymen, landlords and tenants met. Resolutions were drawn up and agreed to, demanding such alterations in the Land Laws as would establish a fair rent for agricultural holdings; protect the tenant from eviction as long as he paid this rent, and enable him to sell his 'interest' at its full value when giving up the land. In order to carry out this programme by the exercise of pressure on Parliament, a society to be called 'The Irish Tenant League' was founded. . . . In the autumn of 1850, the Pope (Pius IX) issued a Bull directing the Catholic Archbishops and Bishops of England to use the titles of the Sees which they administered. The change was merely as to name, for they already performed all the functions appertaining to their office, each in a diocese assigned to him. Nevertheless the order received from Rome produced a regular burst of anti-Popery fury in England, . . . [and] the introduction of the 'Ecclesiastical Titles' Bill' (February, 1851), by which any ecclesiastic of the Catholic Church was forbidden to assume a title from any place in the United Kingdom. [See also PAPACY: 1850.] The Bill passed, but . . . no one took any notice of its provisions; no one was punished for disobedience to them. In Ireland, however, the effects of the measure were important and disastrous. The comments of the English Press on the Papal Bulls, which were echoed by the Orange journals, still more than the action of the Parliament had excited great indignation amongst the Irish Catholics. Some were really fearful of possible injury to the interests of the Church. Others merely desired to make capital for themselves out of the situation, and acquire a cheap popularity. Of these latter, two, William Keogh, a barrister by profession, and John Sadleir, a Tipperary banker, were the chief. . . . As a result chiefly of their efforts, a Catholic Defence Association was formed. In vain such men as Gavan Duffy pointed out that this movement would endanger the work of the Tenant League; that a renewal of sectarian animosities would dissolve that union in it of men of different creeds which alone made it formidable, and gave it hopes of success. . . . In spite of the division in its ranks, the League was still strong. At the General Election of 1852, almost half of the members returned for Irish constituencies were pledged to support the resolutions of the Dublin Conference. . . . But defeat came when triumph seemed at hand. When the list of appointments made by Lord Aberdeen, the new Premier, appeared (January, 1853), it was read in Ireland with rage and horror. . . . Keogh was Solicitor-General for Ireland; Sadleir was a Lord of the Treasury; some of their followers received minor appointments. By this treachery the Tenant League was ruined. The peasants whose cause it had championed remained without defence. Disunion and disaffection spread. Of the members who entered Parliament pledged to support the League, more than half deserted it. . . . For the next few years there was tranquillity in Ireland. The activity of the constitutional politicians had ceased; the 'physical force' party gave no sign of life. Within a decade each had made a great effort; both had failed. . . . [But] under the surface and little extended at first, a new revolutionary movement had begun. In Skibbereen, Co. Cork, a few young men founded, in 1856, a club, half literary, half political, to which they gave the name of the 'Phœnix.' The moving spirit was one Jeremiah O'Donovan, later to be known as 'Rossa,' from the place, Ross, where his family resided. The 'Phœnix' men might have done little were it not that their activities came under the notice of James Stephens, who had taken part in the '48 rising, and had afterwards escaped to France, where he gained much information on the methods of secret conspiracy. In 1858, he visited Skibbereen, and aided O'Donovan to reorganise the club as a secret society. Branches were formed in many places in Cork and Kerry, and secret drilling was begun. Stephens had had opportunities of gauging the hatred of England which filled the hearts of those whom the Famine and the 'clearances' which followed had driven across the Atlantic, and which their children had imbibed. He now confidently promised that, if a new rising were attempted in Ireland, American aid would not be wanting. . . . The idea of engineering an Irish revolution by means of American help was too promising to be easily abandoned. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries Ireland had looked to Spain. In the eighteenth she turned to France. Now she held out her supplicating hands to America, but with a surer hope, for those whose aid she sought were not strangers, but her own exiled sons. The actual originator of 'The Irish Republican Brotherhood,' founded in New York in 1858, was John O'Mahony, who, like Stephens, had joined in the '48 rising, and had been obliged, in consequence, to fly from Ireland. He was the first 'Head Centre' or chief. A translation which he had once made of Geoffrey Keating's History had interested him in the Fianna, the militia of ancient Ireland, and he adopted as a title for the new society that of the 'Fenian Brotherhood,' by which it is still generally known and remembered. The Fenian organisation resembled greatly that of the United Irishmen."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 505-509.

1850-1896.—Increase in taxation.—Report of Financial Commission, 1896.—"The misfortune of Ireland was furthered by a rearrangement of finance, which took place soon after [the famine of 1846]. There was a great increase in Irish taxation in the decade 1850-1860, resulting from the Gladstone budgets, the increase being due especially to the equalization of the spirit duties in England and Ireland, and extending the income tax to Ireland. Such burden had hitherto been escaped owing to the fact that by the terms of the Act of Union, the Irish were entitled to special exemptions because of their backward economic condition. It was not to be expected that Irishmen would be permanently exempted from the burdens imposed upon the British taxpayers, perhaps, but now when Gladstone was

striving to extricate the finances of the United Kingdom from the confusion and unsatisfactory position in which his predecessors had left them, he abruptly raised the taxation of Ireland, it is said, from 14s. 9d. per head to 26s. 7d. It is true, the equalization of spirit duties and extension of the income tax to Ireland were accompanied by the remission of a debt of more than four million sterling owed by Ireland to the British treasury. None the less Englishmen themselves have not failed to observe that the increase created a new crushing burden at a time when Great Britain was going forward in wondrous prosperity but Ireland was only beginning to emerge from the valley of the shadow through which she had passed. Irish writers have seen in it an intolerable burden laid upon their country despite the pledge once given that Ireland's ability to pay should always be considered. Since that time over-taxation has been the subject of frequent complaint. In 1896 a Financial Commission of the government reported that because of the equalization of taxes the result had been very unequal: that Ireland was paying one-eleventh of the revenues of the United Kingdom, though her taxable capacity was not more than one-twentieth; that from her taxable surplus Great Britain paid less than two shillings in the pound, Ireland five times that much. This report has been much enlarged upon by recent Nationalist writers, and their striking conclusions have been spread broadcast for purposes of denunciation and propaganda. But there have always been justifiable differences of opinion about the Report, and strong dissenting opinions have been maintained about the matter. On the other side it is asserted nowadays that actually most of the taxation paid by Irishmen . . . [was] upon their tobacco and liquor, and that far from being overtaxed, Irishmen in Ireland . . . [were] taxed less than the inhabitants of Great Britain, and less than Irishmen in any other country in the world."—E. R. Turner, *Ireland and England, pp.* 143-145.

1858-1867.—Fenianism.—"Manchester Martyrs."—"It was the name of Fenianism that was new rather than the thing itself. In reality Fenianism was but a revival and re-organisation, on a more systematic plan, with improved resources, and above all, with American assistance, of that 'Physical Force' policy, which had at all times exercised an influence on Irish politics. . . . In 1858 the apparent calm was troubled by a trifling disturbance, which no one took seriously. . . . But there was more in it than appeared. The real leader at Skibbereen, James Stephens, an old '48 rebel, had escaped. From this time forward he devoted himself, with the assistance of O'Donovan Rossa, O'Leary and Kickham, to preparing a more widely extended movement, under the title of the 'Irish Republican Brotherhood.' In America another revolutionary named O'Mahony proceeded to organise a militia, which he called the Fenians, the name given to the ancient warriors in the time of Fionn and his companions."—L. Paul-Dubois, *Contemporary Ireland, pp.* 75, 77.—"A secret association was established in 1858, whose aim appears sufficiently clear from the oath of membership: 'In the presence of Almighty God, I solemnly swear allegiance to the Irish Republic, now virtually established, and to take up arms when called on to defend its independence and integrity. I also swear to yield implicit obedience to the commands of my superior officers.' This was the Fenian, or the Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood."—G. P. Macdonell, *Fenianism* (R. B. O'Brien, ed., *Two centuries of Irish history, p.* 464).—"Across the Atlantic, . . . the Fenians enlisted, especially after 1860, huge numbers of recruits. When the American Civil War broke out in 1861, it was said that in some of the Irish regiments practically every man was a sworn member of the Brotherhood. Even in Ireland and in England something of the same sort occurred, though to a much smaller extent. There were Fenians in the army, the navy, the civil service, some even of the jailers and warders of the prisons had taken the oaths. . . . In April, 1865, the American Civil War ended. . . . Soon the British Government learnt, through its spies, that almost every ship that crossed the Atlantic brought to Ireland men of military experience, the motive of whose coming was scarcely concealed. In Ireland itself there was said to be a force of some 75,000 men, well drilled and fairly well armed. It was evident that the intended rising would not long be delayed. . . . In September 1865, O'Leary, Luby, O'Donovan Rossa and several other prominent Fenians were arrested. The office of *The Irish People* was raided, and the paper was suppressed. James Stephens eluded capture till November. He was lodged, when at last seized, in Richmond Prison (Dublin), but, by the aid of some of the warders who were themselves sworn members of the Brotherhood, he escaped and got safely out of the country. The others were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment. . . . In May, 1866, an attempt was planned to cross the frontier of the United States and attack the British power in Canada. The Washington authorities, after remaining for years conveniently deaf and blind to preparations which had been going on, suddenly roused themselves, seized the arms stored at the depots, imprisoned several of the Fenian leaders, and ordered the St. Lawrence to be strictly guarded. Two bodies of Irishmen did succeed, however, in reaching Canadian territory. Col. John O'Neill, with some 1,400 men crossed to the village of Fort Erie, and defeated a troop of 'The Queen's Own Volunteers.' He was, however, obliged soon afterwards to surrender. A body from the State of Vermont had still less success. The Canadian troops drove them back across the frontier. Nothing further of importance was attempted in America. . . . Amongst the Irish Fenians there was profound discouragement. They had built much of their hopes on the American aid, and of its coming there was no sign. Still they would do something. . . . Risings in various parts of the country were decided on. One broke out (prematurely) in Cahirciveen (Co. Kerry) in February, 1867. Others followed (March) in several of the southern counties. At Tallaght, near Dublin, there were some slight skirmishes between the police and insurgents. All these movements were speedily suppressed. The insurgents scattered all over the country, and were arrested in hundreds. . . . A greatly exaggerated account of the happenings in Ireland had reached the United States. A party of American officers and soldiers started from New York, towards the end of April. Their boat, *The Jacknell,* was loaded with arms and ammunition for the Fenians. These, however, they failed to land. They themselves got ashore in a fishing boat, but were immediately arrested. The trials of the captured Irish and American Fenians now began. Severe sentences were passed on many. Some were even condemned to death, but all these had the death penalty commuted."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 509-511.—"The whole revolutionary movement produced no revolution: the English government was forewarned

and forearmed: and an American ship, the *Erin's Hope,* with arms and men on board, was captured before a landing could be effected. Isolated acts of violence were the only tangible results of the movement. Clerkenwell Gaol was blown up by dynamite (1867): a raid on Chester Castle was attempted, but miscarried (1866): and—most famous of all—the rescue by some of the Fenians of two of their members from a prison van in Manchester, and the killing of a policeman during the rescue, was punished in 1867 by the hanging of three of the rescuing party, Allen, Larkin and O'Brien, men famous in history as 'the Manchester Martyrs.' But if the immediate and tangible results of the movement were small its ultimate effects were far larger. *Omne ignotum pro magnifico.* Secret societies were things unfamiliar in British politics; and just for that reason the Fenian acts of violence, small as was their scale, inspired the fear they were intended to create."—E. Barker, *Ireland in the last fifty years, pp.* 17-18.—The alarm caused by the rising "aroused public opinion and frightened the English. Men began to understand the profound misery in which Ireland was sunk, and the necessity for repairing the wrongs of the past. The Act of 1867 had just then sent to Parliament a body of members chosen on a wider and more democratic franchise. Almost immediately afterwards Gladstone secured the passing of the Bill for the 'Disestablishment' of the Anglican Church in Ireland [see ENGLAND: 1868-1870] and the first Land Act (1869-1870). To all appearances Fenianism had been a miserable fiasco. In reality it had succeeded where O'Connell and Young Ireland had failed. It had opened a new era in the history of Ireland. The period of concessions and reforms had at last arrived."—L. Paul-Dubois, *Contemporary Ireland, pp.* 77, 78.—"It is not necessary to follow out the steps of the Fenian movement any further. There were many isolated attempts; there were many arrests, trials, imprisonments, banishments. The effect of all this, it must be stated as a mere historical fact, was only to increase the intensity of dissatisfaction and discontent among the Irish peasantry. . . . There were some public men who saw that the time had come when mere repression must no longer be relied upon as a cure for Irish discontent."—J. McCarthy, *History of our own times, v.* 4, *ch.* 53.

ALSO IN: T. P. O'Connor, *Parnell movement, ch.* 7.—G. P. Macdonell, *Fenianism* (R. B. O'Brien, ed., *Two centuries of Irish history, pt.* 5, *ch.* 4).—J. O'Leary, *Recollections of Fenians and Fenianism.*—Earl Grey, *Ireland: Causes of its present condition, pp.* 36-84.—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of Ireland in the eighteenth century, v.* 5.—J. H. McCarthy, *History of our own times, v.* 4, *ch.* 53.

1868.—Parliamentary reform. See ENGLAND: 1865-1868.

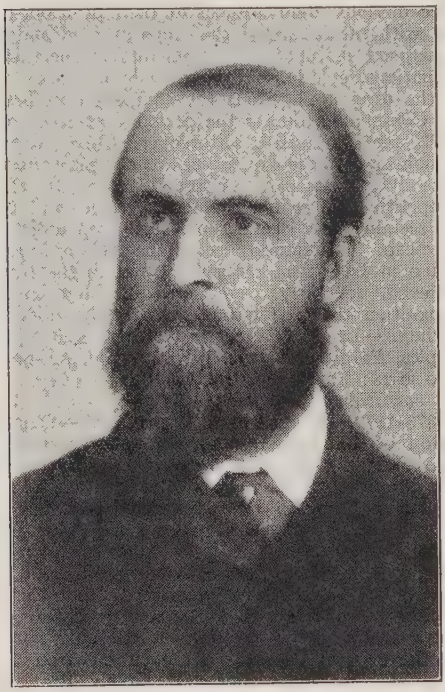
1869.—Disestablishment of Anglican church in Ireland. See ENGLAND: 1868-1870.

1870.—Land Act.—"After many years of legislation in favour of the landlords and an attempt in the Deasy Act of 1860 to give the tenant the full but illusory advantages of free contract, a real start in corrective efforts was made by the Land Act of 1870. The most evident agrarian abuse since the Great Famine had been the ruthless process of eviction by which the landlords cleared their estates of tenantry. These evictions had become more serious following the Encumbered Estates Act of 1849, which, despite its advantages, created a new class of proprietors even less interested in the welfare of the tenants than their predecessors. . . . The Act of 1870 attempted to meet this situation. It applied particularly to yearly tenancies up to the value of £100, the most abused class of holding. By giving legal recognition to the customary right which prevailed in Ulster, the tenant became, as it were, co-owner with the landlord. In case of arbitrary eviction, he was entitled to compensation for his disturbance. Also he might claim payment for the improvements which he had carried out. Thus the tenant was guaranteed a certain fixity of tenure and might expect to realise something for his share in the holding. The Land Commission provided a judicial machinery for the purpose of determining such claims in cases where no voluntary agreement could be reached. The Act did not interfere with the sacred rights of property. It only protected the tenants against some of the more obvious disadvantages of their position. . . . But with the failure of the crops in 1878 and the consequent inability of the tenants to meet their obligations, evictions again grew in number. Yet of the 6163 applications for compensation before the Commission during the period 1871-1880, only 1808 were successful. Moreover, while eviction, though made more expensive, was not prevented, it was always possible for the landlord to claim competitive prices for the tenant right, and thus the seeming privilege became really an additional handicap. The importance of the Act of 1870 as a step in Irish land reform lay, not in the results achieved, for they were negligible, but in the recognition that the tenant had a claim upon his holding."—L. E. P. Smith-Gordon and L. C. Staples, *Rural reconstruction in Ireland, pp.* 20-21.

ALSO IN: Earl Grey, *Ireland: Causes of its present condition, pp.* 85-145.

1873-1879.—Home Rule movement.—Organization of Land League.—"For some years after 1870 Ireland was comparatively prosperous and free from unrest. During this period a new movement began in Ireland which has vitally affected Irish history ever since. In May, 1870, under the leadership of Isaac Butt [member for Youghal], the Home Rule movement was launched, and its programme was enunciated, 'that the establishment of an Irish Parliament with full control over our domestic affairs is the only remedy for the evils of Ireland.' By a curious irony, the agitation for Home Rule was largely Protestant in its inception. Discontented and disillusioned by the successful passage in the British Parliament of an act disestablishing the Irish Church, the Protestants of Ireland set their hopes for the moment on a separate Irish Parliament. This phase of feeling soon passed; and the Home Rule movement, in which from the first other elements than the Protestant had been powerful, soon became Catholic and Nationalist in spirit. Rapidly growing in strength and numbers, and aided by the Ballot Act of 1872, the Home Rule League was able in 1874 to return nearly 60 members to Parliament who were pledged to its principles and programme. . . . Under Butt, and down to 1878, the Irish parliamentary party achieved little if any success. The Conservative Party, under Lord Beaconsfield, was in power (1874-1880); and little attention was excited by Irish affairs. Butt was scrupulously constitutional, and he set his face against turning parliamentary agitation into parliamentary obstruction. After 1878, when Parnell [Charles Stewart Parnell, who in 1877 became president of the Home Rule League] came to the front, a great change began to appear. Parnell was personally almost the antithesis of Butt; and his hard and concentrated intensity necessarily meant a reaction from the gentle and expansive

geniality of his predecessor. Within a few years the methods of the Irish parliamentary party were completely altered. From Biggar [Joseph G. Biggar, member for Cavan], Parnell borrowed the idea of obstruction, and by obstruction he sought to demonstrate to the British Parliament the wisdom of conceding another sphere for the exercise of the talents of the members of his party. From Michael Davitt, an old member of the Fenian party, he learned two other lessons. He learned, in the first place, the value of an informal and working alliance between the Nationalists and the Fenians. . . . He learned, in the second place, the possibility of a connection between the agitation for Home Rule, which had hitherto been mainly political, and an agrarian agitation



CHARLES STEWART PARNELL

against landlordism. The strength of Parnell was thus that he reconciled the Nationalists with the Fenians, and brought both in contact with the economic needs and desires of the peasantry. . . . Political agitation was still, indeed, his supreme aim; and he advocated economic causes . . . for the sake of the additional weight which they might give to the political cause he championed. . . . The organisation which Parnell gave to his own immediate party, and . . . the ascendancy which he acquired over all its members . . . [rendered it extremely powerful]. The Home Rule League became a 'machine' under the 'chieftain's' control. In its local conventions it designated the candidates for the constituencies; from those candidates it exacted a pledge; and in return, if they were unable to make ends meet without some support, it paid their expenses from its parliamentary fund."—E. Barker, *Ireland in the last fifty years, pp.* 19-20, 22-25.—"Outside Parliament a strenuous and earnest man was preparing to inaugurate the greatest land agitation ever seen in Ireland. Mr. Michael Davitt was the son of an evicted tenant. . . . When he grew to be a young man he joined the Fenians, and in 1870, on the evidence of an informer, he was arrested and sentenced to fifteen years' penal servitude; seven years later he was let out on ticket-of-leave. In his long imprisonment he had thought deeply upon the political and social condition of Ireland and the best means of improving it; when he came out he had abandoned his dreams of armed rebellion, and he went in for constitutional agitation to reform the Irish land system. The land system needed reforming; the condition of the tenant was only humanly endurable in years of good harvest. The three years from 1876 to 1879 were years of successive bad harvests. . . . Mr. Davitt had been in America, planning out a land organization, and had returned to Ireland to carry out his plan." —J. H. McCarthy, *Outline of Irish history, ch.* 11. —"Parnell was beginning to be the dominant force in Irish politics by 1878. In 1879 Ireland fell under the shadow of famine. The potato crop failed, and the corn [grain] crop was under the average. Fear was urgent in a land where men still remembered the great famine of 1846. Luckily relief was prompt and efficacious, and the horrors of 1846 were not repeated. But the results of the bad harvests of 1879 were none the less considerable. Tenants were unable to pay their rents; and since tenants who failed to pay rent were not protected by the Land Act of 1870, a new period of evictions began. There had been under 500 evictions in the year 1877; in the year 1879 there were over 1,250, and in the year 1880 over 2,000. Meanwhile, in 1879, Michael Davitt had founded a Land League for agrarian agitation."—E. Barker, *Ireland in the last fifty years, p.* 26.—"At Irishtown, in Mayo, a meeting was called together in April of 1879, to protest against the action of a local landlord, Canon Burke, who had refused to reduce his excessive rents. The resolutions passed had been drawn up by Davitt, and indicated the boldness of his views. From the Irishtown meeting the beginning of the Land War dates, though it was some months later (October, 1879) when Parnell, who had at first held aloof, had been persuaded to come into the new movement, that the Land League was officially founded. The avowed object of the organisation was to reduce rack-rents, and 'to facilitate the obtaining of the ownership of the soil by the occupiers.' Parnell's adherence practically involved that of the Home Rule Party, and Parnell himself was elected president of the League."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, p.* 523.

"No resolution or speech advocated the 'three F's,' or Mr. Butt's bill, which represented the official programme of the Home-Rule party on the land question, so that the Irishtown meeting broke with the then moderate parliamentary land reformers, and began the movement which was to demand 'the land for the people.' . . . It was, in every sense, a people's meeting. No priests had been invited. None could, in any case, attend, as one of the purposes of the demonstration was to exert pressure upon the parish priest of Irishtown to abate the rack-rents which he demanded from his tenants. In this respect the meeting scored an immediate success. Canon Burke granted an abatement of twenty-five per cent. . . . The plan and purpose of the leaders of the new league were to supplant the tenants' defence associations, which had provided a platform for Mr. Butt and the Home-Rulers on the land question, and to create an aggressive movement which would try to rally the whole country in a fight against the whole land system. . . . There was an-

other and a kindred evil to assail in the carrying out of these purposes. The land-grabber was the buttress of the rack-renting evil and the worst foe of the struggling tenant. He was never a man who, from the coercion of real want, took a holding from which a neighbor was ejected for inability to pay an unfair rent. . . . He is always a man who possesses a farm or holding and covets more, or a person with means otherwise earned which prompts him to go contrary to the public sentiment by outbidding a poorer occupant of some tempting piece of land. It would be necessary, therefore, to put this practice down by popular power, and this was one of the planks we inserted in the Castlebar programme. No person taking land from which another was evicted was to be admitted to the Land League, while the names of such transgressors against the unwritten agrarian code would be published as notoriously going contrary to the interests of his fellows."—M. Davitt, *Fall of feudalism in Ireland, pp.* 150, 151, 164, 165.—"The summer of 1879 had been cold and wet. Most of the crops were extremely poor, and the potato crop practically a total failure. . . . Parnell, accompanied by John Dillon . . . betook himself to America, and collected, chiefly from the Irish of the United States, over fifty thousand pounds, to be used partly to feed the starving people, and partly for the carrying out of the political programme of the Land League. Other funds were started in Ireland, and great quantities of food and clothes were distributed. . . . Still, the sufferings of the people, especially in the south and west, were very severe, and numbers died of actual hunger, or of diseases produced by lack of proper nourishment. Rents could not, of course, be paid, and too often the landlords, deaf to all entreaties for, at least, delay, evicted without pity. That in consequence outrages took place was far from surprising. These the leaders of the Land League denounced, as not only in themselves criminal, but as likely to prove most detrimental to their cause. At the same time, they took care to give as much publicity as possible to any particularly flagrant cases of eviction."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 523-524.—"On the 21st of October the National League of Mayo was turned into the Irish National Land League. Mr. Parnell had invited the attendance of representative public men, . . . [and] a central body was formed charged with the conduct of the agitation. The declared objects of the Land League were to reduce rack-rents and promote peasant proprietary; its methods were to be organization of the farmers, and protection of those threatened with eviction or actually evicted for unjust rents. . . . [Branches of the Land League were soon established] all over Ireland and even in Great Britain, while Mr. Davitt was extending it in America, public meetings were being held every Sunday; the receipts at the central branch were coming in by hundreds and thousands of pounds, the police and process servers had been openly defied in the early part of the year in the wild and desolate regions of Carraroe, and since then many collisions had occurred between people and police. And there were agrarian outrages too."—E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v.* 3, *pp.* 280, 288.—"The Land League . . . had had at the outset to make headway in Ireland against the opposition of all the official Home Rule Press, and in Great Britain amongst the Irish exiles to depend entirely upon the championship of poor labourers and English and Scottish Socialists. In fact those latter were, for years, the principal exponents and interpreters of Land League principles to the British masses, and they performed their task unflinchingly at a time when the 'respectable' moneyed men of the Irish communities in Great Britain cowered in dread of the displeasure of their wealthy British neighbours."—J. Connolly, *Labour in Irish history, pp.* 211-212.

Also in: T. P. O'Connor, *Parnell movement, ch.* 8-10.—A. V. Dicey, *England's case against Home Rule.*—G. Baden-Powell, ed., *Truth about Home Rule.*

1880.—Breach between Irish Party and English Liberals.—Compensation for Disturbance Bill.—Boycotting "invented."—"At first there seemed no reason to expect any serious disunion between the Irish members and the Liberal party. . . . The Irish vote in England had been given to the Liberal cause. The Liberal speakers and statesmen, without committing themselves to any definite line of policy, had manifested friendly sentiments towards Ireland; and though indeed nothing was said which could be construed into a recognition of the Home Rule claim, still the new Ministry was known to contain men favourable to that claim. The Irish members hoped for much from the new Government; and, on the other hand, the new Government expected to find cordial allies in all sections of the Irish party. . . . The Queen's speech announced that the Peace Preservation Act would not be renewed. This was a very important announcement. Since the Union Ireland had hardly been governed by the ordinary law for a single year. . . . Now the Government was going to make the bold experiment of trying to rule Ireland without the assistance of coercive and exceptional law. The Queen's Speech, however, contained only one other reference to Ireland, in a promise that a measure would be introduced for the extension of the Irish borough franchise. This was in itself an important promise. . . . But extension of the borough franchise did not seem to the Irish members in 1880 the most important form that legislation for Ireland could take just then. The country was greatly depressed by its recent suffering. . . . Evictions had increased from 463 families in 1877 to 980 in 1878, to 1,238 in 1879; and they were still on the increase, as was shown at the end of 1880, when it was found that 2,110 families were evicted. . . . The Irish party called for some immediate legislation on behalf of the land question. Mr. Forster replied, admitting the necessity for some legislation, but declaring that there would not be time for the introduction of any such measure that session. Then the Irish members asked for some temporary measure to prevent the evictions; . . . but the Chief Secretary answered that while the law existed it was necessary to carry it out, and he could only appeal to both sides to be moderate. Matters slowly drifted on in this way for a short time. . . . Evictions steadily increased, and Mr. O'Connor Power brought in a Bill for the purpose of staying evictions. Then the Government, while refusing to accept the Irish measure, brought in a Compensation for Disturbance Bill, which adopted some of the Irish suggestions. . . . On Friday, June 25, the second reading of the Bill was moved by Mr. Forster, who denied that it was a concession to the anti-rent agitation, and strongly denounced the outrages which were taking place in Ireland. . . . This was the point at which difference between the Irish party and the Government first became marked. The increase of evictions in Ireland, following as it did upon the widespread misery caused

by the failure of the harvests and the partial famine, had generated—as famine and hunger have always generated—a certain amount of lawlessness. Evictions were occasionally resisted with violence; here and there outrages were committed upon bailiffs, process-servers, and agents. In different places, too, injuries had been inflicted upon the cattle and horses of landowners and land agents." —J. H. McCarthy, *England under Gladstone, ch.* 6.—"A very moderate 'Disturbance Bill,' designed to entitle those who could clearly prove that the arrears of rent for which they were to be evicted were due to the prevalent state of distress, to receive some 'compensation for disturbance,' though passed by the Commons, was rejected by the Lords (July, 1880). It was about this time, and on the advice of Parnell himself, that the method afterwards called, from the name of the landlord (Captain Boycott) against whom it was first employed, 'boycotting' began to be used by the adherents of the Land League. Any person who took or even bid for a farm from which another was held to have been unjustly evicted was to be ostracised. No one should hold social intercourse with him, serve him, buy from him or sell to him. This was a terrible weapon, and those who wielded it could not be expected to be free from prejudice. Inconvenience, loss and annoyance, amounting to positive persecution were inflicted, in not a few cases, on persons who had done little or nothing to deserve it. The Irish Chief Secretaryship, an office which had come to be considered as of much more importance than the Viceroyalty itself, was then held by Mr. William Forster. He had all an Englishman's respect for the law in and for itself, and he was perplexed when faced with a state of affairs in which it was constantly ignored or broken, while the public voice approved and encouraged lawbreakers. An attempt to convict the chief Land League leaders of a conspiracy to incite the tenants to refuse the payment of their just debts, that is to say, of their rents, ended in the disagreement of the jury, and the prosecution was, for the present, abandoned."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, pp.* 524, 525.

Also in: T. W. Reid, *Life of Edward Forster.*—J. F. Bright, *History of England, v.* 5, *p.* 7.

1881.—Renewed agrarian agitation.—Land Act.—"The renewed agrarian agitation under the leadership of the Land League, with the boycott as its effective weapon, and the report of the Bessborough Commission in 1880 [which recommended a land court] convinced Gladstone of the necessity of further legislation. 'It is essential,' declared the Report, 'to recognise the state of things existing in Ireland and to acknowledge the co-ownership of the tenant with the landlord in a more complete manner than did the law of 1870.' The Act of 1881, which has been called the Magna Charta of the Irish peasant, carried out this recommendation. To free sale and fixity of tenure was added the indispensable guarantee of a fair rent. . . . [The act provided that either the landlord or tenant, or both] might demand from the proper authority the determination of a fair rent. The authorities in this matter were the county courts and the reconstituted Land Commission. Or the proprietor and tenant might arrange matters themselves, and their agreement became valid and binding. This determination was to continue for a period of fifteen years, after which a revision might take place. Thus the rent became a regular charge. The tenant enjoyed complete security so long as he kept the conditions of his contract; and whereas, hitherto, the power of the landlord to raise the rent had virtually deprived the holder of the power of free sale, under the new conditions there was no such check. This was, in fact, the logical completion of the law of 1870. The interdependence of the 'Three Fs'—fair rent, fixity of tenure, and free sale —was recognised, and with these assured a satisfactory form of tenure was apparently achieved. Yet despite the liberality of the law of 1881 and the enthusiasm of the Irish people for the reform, its success was far from realising the hopes which were based on it. . . . In the first place, the landlords had a grievance. The judicial rents represented decreases over the previous payments averaging 20, 19, and 9 per cent for the three determinations. It seemed a legal confiscation of property, for in many cases the income of the owner was all but completely absorbed. . . . So long as the judicial represented a decrease over the competitive rents, this legislation was naturally popular with the tenant class. But it was not clear what the attitude of the tenants would be in the event of a market of rising prices. The measure of success attained by the rent-fixing legislation was the outcome of its incidental or particular results rather than a justification of its principles."—L. E. P. Smith-Gordon and L. C. Staples, *Rural reconstruction in Ireland, pp.* 22-23.

1881-1882.—Coercion Bill.—Land Act.—Arrest of Irish leaders.—Suppression of Land League. —Alleged Kilmainham Treaty, and release of Parnell and others.—Early in 1881, the government armed itself with new powers for suppressing the increased lawlessness which showed itself in Ireland, and for resisting the systematic policy of intimidation which the Nationalists appeared to have planned, by the passage of the Coercion Bill, followed, in April, by the introduction of a Land Bill, intended to redress the most conspicuous Irish grievance by establishing an authoritative tribunal for the determination of rents, and by aiding and facilitating the purchase of small holdings by the peasants. The Land Bill became law in August; but it failed to satisfy the demands of the Land League or to produce a more orderly state of feeling in Ireland. Severe proceedings were then decided upon by the government. "The Prime Minister, during his visit to Leeds in the first week of October, had used language which could bear only one meaning. The question, he said, had come to be simply this, 'whether law or lawlessness must rule in Ireland.'" —*London Times Annual Summaries, v.* 2, *p.* 155.—"To the Chief Secretary and to many of the English Ministers it appeared almost self-evident that offences with which the ordinary law was clearly unable to deal, must be repressed by the passing of special enactments, that is, by a Coercion Bill. Gladstone was but half convinced. He saw that to the application to Ireland of an agrarian system unsuited to the circumstances of the country the prevalent disorders were mainly due. This he proposed to remedy by means of a comprehensive Irish Land Bill. Unfortunately, however, a Coercion Bill was to precede the remedial measures. That the effects of the latter in Ireland would be lamentable was pointed out by many of the Irish members, and notably by Parnell himself. Their efforts to impede its passage were vain, and in March, 1881, the Coercion Act became law. . . . The activities of the Land League had been hampered by the imprisonment of many of the leaders, but the Ladies' Land League, an organisation of women, founded mainly by Michael Davitt, carried on much of its work, and ample

funds were furnished by the Irish in America. Little more than a month after the passing of the Irish Coercion Bill (April, 1881), the Land Bill, which was to be its corrective, was placed before Parliament by Mr. Gladstone. It arranged for the setting-up in Ireland of Land Courts, to which tenants could apply to have their rents fixed. The land involved was to be examined by experts, and in accordance with their reports of its value, a 'judicial rent' would be fixed, more than which could not be charged by the landlord. On agreement to pay this, the tenant would, under certain conditions, obtain a lease. In estimating the value of the holding, and consequently the rent to be paid for it, no account was to be taken to the landlord's profit of improvements made by the tenant at his own expense."—M. T. Hayden and G. A. Moonan, *Short history of the Irish people, p.* 525.—In October 1881 Parnell was arrested and lodged in Kilmainham jail together with three other Irish members—Dillon, Sexton and O'Kelly. In return they issued a manifesto advising the people to pay no rent. The Land League was suppressed, but to take its place the Ladies' Land League was organized. The Coercion Act was put in operation, but outrages increased. "Parnell had predicted that his place would be taken by Captain Moonlight. Forster feared that secret societies would become active. Both expectations were realized. In the darkness of night bands of Moonlighters went abroad, fired into houses, terrorized landlords, bailiffs and grabbers, houghed their cattle, wounded or perhaps murdered themselves. In November Forster thought that the best thing for Ireland and himself would be his replacement by some one 'not tarred by the Coercion brush.' . . . [In April Parnell, who had been liberated on parole, intimated] that if the arrears question was settled by Government he and his friends would withdraw the No-rent Manifesto, and gradually slow down the agitation. The offer was eagerly accepted. Gladstone and Chamberlain, in opposition to Forster, obtained the support of the Cabinet; Parnell, Dillon, O'Kelly and Davitt were liberated; and Forster and Cowper resigned, and were replaced by Lord Spencer and Lord Frederick Cavendish. This was the result of what came to be called the Kilmainham Treaty."—E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v.* 3, *pp.* 296-298.

1882.—**Phœnix Park murders.—Prevention of Crimes Bill.**—Mr. Forster, chief secretary for Ireland, resigned in April, 1882, and was succeeded by Lord Frederick Cavendish, . . . son of the duke of Devonshire. Earl Spencer at the same time became viceroy, in place of Lord Cowper, resigned. "On the night of Friday, May 5th, Earl Spencer and Lord Frederick Cavendish crossed over to Ireland, and arrived in Dublin on the following day. The official entry was made in the morning, when the reception accorded by the populace to the new officials was described as having been very fairly favourable. Events seemed to have taken an entirely prosperous turn, and it was hoped that at last the long winter of Irish discontent had come to an end. On Sunday morning there spread through the United Kingdom the intelligence that the insane hatred of English rule had been the cause of a crime, even more brutal and unprovoked than any of the numerous outrages that had, during the last three years, sullied the annals of Ireland. It appeared that Lord Frederick Cavendish, having taken the oaths at the Castle, took a car about half-past seven in order to drive to the Viceregal Lodge. On the way he met Mr. Burke, the Permanent Under-Secretary, who, though his life had been repeatedly threatened, was walking along, according to his usual custom, without any police escort. Lord Frederick dismissed his car, and walked with him through the Phœnix Park. There, in broad daylight—for it was a fine summer evening—and in the middle of a public recreation ground, crowded with people, they were surrounded and murdered."—*Cassell's illustrated history of England, v.* 10, *ch.* 50.—"It was generally understood that Lord Frederick Cavendish, who succeeded Mr. Forster as Irish Secretary, was to be the exponent of the modified policy of the Government; repression was henceforward to be repression of outrage, and not of political opinion. . . . But Government accepted the lesson of the terrible crime, and setting aside all other measures however pressing proceeded at once with its 'Prevention of Crimes Bill.' This Bill, introduced by Sir William Harcourt on the following day, was undoubtedly very stringent in its character. As juries could not be trusted, special tribunals consisting of three judges were to be appointed by the Lord Lieutenant; the police were to have the right of search in proclaimed districts by night and day; the Alien Act was to be so modified as to allow of the immediate arrest of suspicious strangers; and two stipendiary magistrates were to be authorised to exercise summary jurisdiction in cases of secret societies, of assaults on the police, or of intimidation. The Act was to be in force for three years. . . . It became law on the 12th of July."—J. F. Bright, *History of England, pp.* 26-27.—"The tragic murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish, the messenger of conciliation, and Mr. Under-Secretary Burke by the 'Invincibles,' in the Phoenix Park brought [the triumph of Gladstone] . . . to an abrupt conclusion. Parnell had accepted the aid of those extremists, who were prepared to co-operate in an agitation more or less within the law. But there remained the other section of extremists, who were opposed to such co-operation, and these had now come upon the scene. . . . Dublin, and the whole of Ireland, was filled with terror and alarm. Parnell made up his mind to keep clear of agitation by violent methods ever afterwards."—L. Paul-Dubois, *Contemporary Ireland, p.* 83.—"At the same time [as the Crimes Act] the Government introduced an Arrears Bill which also passed into law. It applied only to tenants under £30, and to those who could satisfy a legal tribunal that they were unable to pay all the arrears of rent they owed. In such cases, if they paid the rent for 1881 and one year of the arrears due, the State, out of the Church Surplus Fund, paid another year of the arrears, and the remainder was wiped out. Thus did the Government carry out its side of the Kilmainham Treaty. Mr. Parnell on his side suppressed the Ladies' Land League by refusing to give additional funds. . . . And, in opposition to Dillon, he expressed his determination to 'slow down the agitation.' Tired of violence, he wanted the country to settle down to a moderate and purely constitutional movement. . . . [In October 1882 a] National Conference was . . . held in Dublin . . . and the Irish National League was formed The chief planks in its programme were Home Rule, peasant proprietary, local self-government, the extension of the franchise, the encouragement of Irish labour and industrial interests. Modelled on the Land League, the National League had Mr. Parnell as its President, had its central committee and central offices in Dublin, and branches throughout the land. And in turn it extended to England and America, and even to

Australia. The League had also its official press organ—*United Ireland*—edited by one of the ablest of journalists, Mr. William O'Brien."—E. A. D'Alton, *History of Ireland, v. 3, pp. 302-303.*

Also in: C. Russell, *Parnell commission: Opening speech, pp. 282-291.*—M. M. O'Hara, *Chief and tribune, Parnell and Davitt, pp. 210-214.*

1884.—Enlargement of suffrage.—Representation of the People Act. See England: 1884-1885.

1885-1891.—Return of Liberals.—First Home Rule Bill.—New Land Bill.—Their defeat.—Plan of campaign.—Fall and death of Parnell.—"Irish elections showed, in December, 1885, an overwhelming majority in favor of the Home Rule party, and when they showed, also, that this party held the balance of power in Parliament, no one could longer ignore the urgency of the issue. . . . Mr. Gladstone's view, the indications of which, given by himself some months before, had been largely overlooked, now became generally understood. . . . In the spring of 1886 the question could be no longer evaded or postponed. It was necessary to choose between . . . two courses; the refusal of the demand for self-government, coupled with the introduction of a severe Coercion Bill, or the concession of it by the introduction of a Home Rule Bill. . . . How the Government of Ireland Bill was brought into the House of Commons on April 8th, amid circumstances of curiosity and excitement unparalleled since 1832; how, after debates of almost unprecedented length, it was defeated in June, by a majority of thirty; how the policy it embodied was brought before the country at the general election, and failed to win approval. . . . All this is . . . well known. . . . But the causes of the disaster may not be equally understood. . . . First, and most obvious, although not most important, was the weight of authority . . . against the scheme proposed by Mr. Gladstone. How came so many of his former colleagues, friends, supporters, to differ and depart from him on this occasion? Besides some circumstances attending the production of the bill, . . . which told heavily against it, there were three feelings which worked upon men's minds, disposing them to reject it. The first of these was dislike and fear of the Irish Nationalist members. In the previous House of Commons this party had been uniformly and bitterly hostile to the Liberal Government. Measures intended for the good of Ireland, like the Land Act of 1881, had been ungraciously received, treated as concessions extorted, for which no thanks were due—inadequate concessions, which must be made the starting-point for fresh demands. Obstruction had been freely practised to defeat not only bills restraining the liberty of the subject in Ireland, but many other measures. Some members of the Irish party, apparently with the approval of the rest, had systematically sought to delay all English and Scotch legislation, and, in fact, to bring the work of Parliament to a dead stop. . . . There could be no doubt as to the hostility which they, still less as to that which their fellow-countrymen in the United States, had expressed toward England, for they had openly wished success to Russia while war seemed impending with her, and the so-called Mahdi of the Sudan was vociferously cheered at many a Nationalist meeting. . . . To many Englishmen, the proposal to create an Irish Parliament seemed nothing more or less than a proposal to hand over to these men the government of Ireland, with all the opportunities thence arising to oppress the opposite party in Ireland and to worry England herself. It was all very well to urge that the tactics which the Nationalists had pursued when their object was to extort Home Rule would be dropped, because superfluous, when Home Rule had been granted; or to point out that an Irish Parliament would probably contain different men from those who had been sent to Westminster as Mr. Parnell's nominees. Neither of these arguments could overcome the suspicious antipathy which many Englishmen felt. . . . The internal condition of Ireland supplied more substantial grounds for alarm. . . . Three-fourths of the people are Roman Catholics, one-fourth Protestants, and this Protestant fourth subdivided into bodies not fond of one another, who have little community of sentiment. Besides the Scottish colony in Ulster, many English families have settled here and there through the country. They have been regarded as intruders by the aboriginal Celtic population, and many of them, although hundreds of years may have passed since they came, still look on themselves as rather English than Irish. . . . Many people in England assumed that an Irish Parliament would be under the control of the tenants and the humbler class generally, and would therefore be hostile to the landlords. They went farther, and made the much bolder assumption that as such a Parliament would be chosen by electors, most of whom were Roman Catholics, it would be under the contro of the Catholic priesthood, and hostile to Protestants. Thus they supposed that the grant of self-government to Ireland would mean the abandonment of the upper and wealthier class, the landlords and the Protestants, to the tender mercies of their enemies. . . . The fact stood out that in Ireland two hostile factions had been contending for the last sixty years, and that the gift of self-government might enable one of them to tyrannize over the other. True, that party was the majority, and, according to the principles of democratic government, therefore entitled to prevail. But it is one thing to admit a principle and another to consent to its application. The minority had the sympathy of the upper classes in England, because the minority contained the landlords. It had the sympathy of a large part of the middle class, because it contained the Protestants. . . . There was another anticipation, another forecast of evils to follow, which told most of all upon English opinion. This was the notion that Home Rule was only a stage in the road to the complete separation of the two islands."—J. Bryce, *Past and future of the Irish question (New Princeton Review, Jan., 1887).*—See also England: 1885-1886.

On October 23, 1886, "Mr. T. Harrington, in consultation with Messrs. Dillon, O'Brien, and others, launched his plan of campaign in *United Ireland*. . . . The chief proposals of Mr. Harrington's plan were these: The tenants on an estate where no voluntary abatement of rent was offered by the landlord were to wait upon him in deputation and ask for one on reasoned grounds. If this request was refused, the tenants were then to resolve not to pay any rent until the landlord would agree to a reduction commensurate with the prevailing depression. They were to pay into 'a campaign fund,' on the estate, the reduced rent offered to and refused by the landlord, to be given to him should he consent, under this pressure, to grant the abatement asked for, or to be used, as far as necessary, in the fight which might follow if he should resort to legal proceedings and eviction. . . . This movement was not officially connected with the National League. The secretary of the national organization was the author of the plan, but for reasons of dis-

cretion this was not made known at the time. The finances of the fight, its direction and general policy, were attended to apart, in order that neither Mr. Parnell nor the organization proper of the league should be involved in any legal proceedings arising out of the advance-guard attack upon the landlord position. The scheme was put in operation on eighty-four estates. The tenants formed estate combinations, paid the 'plan rent' into the hands of a committee, and awaited results. In no fewer than sixty instances the landlords prudently gave way, and settled on the plan terms, which averaged less than twenty-five per cent. of an abatement. On twenty-four estates a brief struggle ensued, but wisdom prevailed over obstinacy, and the landlords came to terms on a similar average of reductions. . . . In the session of 1887 . . . [the report of the Cowper Commission declared, *inter alia*]: 'The fall in the price of produce of all kinds, and in all parts of the country, has much impaired the ability of the farmer to pay the full rent, and this, following on a previous restriction of credit by the bankers and other lenders of money, as well as by the shopkeepers, has very greatly increased their financial difficulties. . . . The land commissioners, recognizing this depression, began towards the end of 1885 to reduce the rents then being judicially fixed by from ten to fourteen per cent. below the scale of reduction in the four previous years, and they have since continued to act on this principle. . . . The sudden fall in prices during the last two years was intensified in its effect by a gradual deterioration which had been going on in the quality and produce of the soil, both tillage and grass, during a series of years of low temperature and much rain, especially in 1879, the worst year of the century. During this period much of the tenants' capital had disappeared. The cost of cultivation, compared with that of an earlier period, had also greatly increased.'"—M. Davitt, *Fall of feudalism in Ireland, pp.* 516-517, 520-521.—"The undoubtedly disturbed condition of much of Ireland, with the prevalence of agrarian outrages, was largely caused by the existence of combinations which practically set up a law different from and antagonistic to the ordinary law. The aim of the Criminal Law Amendment Bill [of July, 1887] was to restrain these combinations by placing extraordinary powers in the hands of the Lord Lieutenant. He was authorised to declare leagues or combinations illegal, and to proclaim disturbed districts, which were then to pass under a system which was little less than arbitrary government. Side by side with the danger arising from leagues and combinations went the extraordinary difficulty of convicting accused persons; even when the evidence against them was of the strongest character, juries refused to find them guilty. In order to withdraw criminal trials from the influence of organized intimidation or local sympathy, the new law contemplated, under certain circumstances, the transference of the proceedings not only to a different part of Ireland, but altogether into England . . . A proclamation was at once issued, placing Ireland under the Crimes Act; and on Mr. W. O'Brien, as editor of *United Ireland,* continuing to encourage the people in opposition to the police, the National League was declared by the Lord Lieutenant to be a 'dangerous association.' A regular war between the Nationalists and the Administration was thus begun. Again and again meetings were proclaimed as illegal, again and again they were held in spite of the proclamation. Nor was the disturbance confined to the Irish. English sympathy was excited by the apparent violence of the Administration, and a certain number of the more eager Radicals threw themselves vehemently into the movement, and frequently attended and even addressed the illegal meetings. On the 9th of September a peculiarly disastrous collision took place between the people and the police at Michelstown. . . . The police . . . driven back to their barracks . . . fired upon the crowd with fatal result. . . . The Coroner's jury brought in a verdict of wilful murder against the inspector and three of the constables; but in spite of this they were not prosecuted. The event remained as an evil memory of coercion unsuccessfully attempted, and of the processes of law set at nought by the authorities. . . . These violent scenes, and the disaffection of the Irish, were a melancholy blot upon the satisfaction which should have marked the year of the Queen's Jubilee. . . . Interest lay in the gradually rising opposition of the heads of the Roman Catholic Church to the extreme forms of the Nationalist movement. The Pope had already given his verdict against it; and although the majority of the clergy were in sympathy with it, and confined their obedience to assuming an attitude of friendly neutrality, there were not wanting both priests and bishops who, following the conspicuous example of Dr. O'Dwyer, Bishop of Limerick, condemned boycotting and refusal of rent in very outspoken language. But though the Church might condemn them, and unfortunate victims of the 'plan of campaign' might suffer, the leaders persisted in their 'no rent' policy, rendered more acceptable to the people by a threatened failure of the potato crop in August 1890. With equal persistency the Government pursued its course; the Irish leaders were duly apprehended, tried, and imprisoned. The stormy trial of Mr. Dillon and Mr. O'Brien in Tipperary, from which they had withdrawn forfeiting their bail, was scarcely ended when a catastrophe occurred, which affected primarily the private character of Mr. Parnell, but which in its consequences not only divided the Irish party, but even for the time seemed to paralyze the action of the Opposition in Parliament. A suit was brought in the Divorce Court by a well-known member of the Irish party, in which Mr. Parnell was the respondent. The Court pronounced its judgment in favour of the divorce (November 17, 1890). . . . Mr. Parnell did not wholly lose his popularity, but his opponents, supported by the full weight of the priestly influence, were too strong for him. He lost much by his refusal to produce the accounts of the National League, and the cause as a whole suffered severely by the entire collapse of the New Tipperary scheme, where the unfortunate tenants were left deserted amid the struggles of their leaders. The issue of the contest was however still uncertain, when the unexpected death of Mr. Parnell, in October 1891, withdrew the personal element from it, and the party settled down in two sections, the one under Mr. McCarthy, the other under Mr. Parnell's trusty follower, Mr. John Redmond."—J. F. Bright, *History of England, pp.* 104, 107-108, 118-119, 127, 130.

1885-1903.—Ashbourne Act.—Land purchasing legislation of 1891 and 1896.—"With the Ashbourne Act of 1885 the purchase system became of real importance, and immediately proved that the more conservative measures would not suffice. A Committee of the House of Lords had proposed a comprehensive programme in 1882, suggesting the loan of the entire purchase money in order to create a peasantry of small holders. Though there was much opposition to this revolutionary step,

the only alternative, that of land nationalisation . . . secured little encouragement from any quarter. The Ashbourne Act provided a fund of £5,000,000, from which loans were to be made to such tenants as might secure the sanction of the Land Commission for the purchase of their holdings. The yearly annuity paid by the purchasers for this loan was fixed at 4 per cent. Three per cent. of this was allocated to interest charges; the remainder was to accumulate as a sinking fund to pay off the principal. This arrangement secured complete ownership for the occupier after payments of the annuity for forty-nine years. Such immediate success attended the promulgation of this Act that a further grant of £5,000,000 was made early in 1888. This vindication of the policy of tenant purchase led to an even more comprehensive measure in 1891. An issue of land stock up to the value of £33,000,000, to be paid over to the landlords in this form rather than in cash as provided in the previous Acts, was authorised. The allocation of the 4 per cent. yearly annuity differed somewhat from that under the previous Acts. The money was secured at a lower rate of interest (2¾ per cent.), and the ¼ per cent. surplus was placed in a fund for the construction of labourers' cottages. This excellent provision was abandoned after the amending Act of 1896, by which the ¼ per cent. was added to the sinking fund. In this way the period of payment was reduced to forty-two years. Another change introduced by the amending Act provided for decadal reductions in the annuity, a wise foresight in case of a further drop in the prices of agricultural produce. Under this arrangement, the possible period of purchase was extended to seventy years. Yet despite their various advantages and the large resources available, these Acts were comparatively unsuccessful. Over the period to 1903, only 38,251 tenants had been converted into proprietors, in the aggregate a large, but relatively a rather meager result. The chief reason for the ineffectiveness of the Acts of 1891 and 1896 was the fact that the sale was not made sufficiently enticing for the landlord. While the land stock in which the purchase price was paid was at par or a premium, the transaction was profitable enough. But the heavy issues of Consols at the time of the war in the Transvaal seriously depreciated these kindred securities. Whereas in 1895 Irish land stock stood at a premium (it went as high as 114), it had fallen by 1900 to a position permanently below par. This fact quickly clogged the machinery of purchase, and by 1902 the new sales were reduced to an almost negligible number. Besides, there were many legal difficulties which were a constant hindrance. The purchases proceeded at such a slow rate that the completion of the change which had been considered a matter of a few years was relegated into the dim, distant future."—L. E. P. Smith-Gordon and L. C. Staples, *Rural reconstruction in Ireland*, *pp.* 25-26.—"The effect which the measure [of 1891] would have on the permanent settlement of Ireland was of course as yet a mere matter of speculation; but there were clear signs that Mr. Balfour's administration, in spite of the uproar it had raised, had been effective. In part no doubt he had received assistance from the agricultural distress which had fallen upon the country at the close of 1890, since it gave him the opportunity of showing the real sympathy which lay behind the severity of his action; in part also he had been assisted by the private disputes of the Irish Parliamentary leaders, whose humbler followers in Ireland labouring under a sense of desertion were more disposed to accept conciliatory measures. The result at all events was satisfactory; for Mr. Balfour was able to declare in Parliament (June 5, 1891) that the time had arrived for relaxing the action of the coercive clauses of the Crimes Act, that they might now be safely removed from all Ireland with the exception of one county, and a few outlying baronies."—J. F. Bright, *History of England*, *pp.* 134-135.

1893.—Gladstone's Home Rule Bill passed by House of Commons and defeated by House of Lords. See ENGLAND: 1892-1893.

1893-1905.—Foundation of Gaelic League.—Early growth of its influence.—Dr. Douglas Hyde, in 1893 "founded the Gaelic League, a body non-political and non-sectarian, with one main object in view—the restoration of the Irish language to its place as the speech of the people. . . . Branches of the League were formed all over the country, and were particularly strong in Dublin and some of the larger towns. . . . It began to acquire influence. Some clerical managers introduced Irish into their schools. Some county and urban councils passed resolutions requiring those who sought employment from them to have a knowledge of Irish. Local assemblies, *Féisanna*, were held all over the country, at which prizes were given for speaking, singing, story-telling, and reciting, in Irish. Classes for the study of the language were started in every branch. A great annual assembly, called the *Oireachtas*, was held in Dublin. . . . The League remained a non-political and non-sectarian organization. The parliamentary Nationalists, still believing in politics, made overtures to the League, which were rejected. . . . [In 1905] the circulation of the official organ of the Gaelic League, *An Claidheamh Soluis* . . . [was] large and increasing, although the major part of the paper . . . [was] written in Irish."—J. O. Hannay, *Gaelic League* (*Independent Review*, *Nov.*, 1905).

ALSO IN: A. E. D'Alton, *History of Ireland*, *v.* 3, *p.* 496-500.

1895.—Waning of interest in Home Rule.—"After the intense excitement which had attended the Home Rule Bills, and the constant recurrence of the Irish difficulty in an aggravated form during the last twenty years, the small part it played in Lord Salisbury's last Ministry is somewhat surprising. This is said to be partly due to the sympathetic management of Mr. [John] Morley during his tenure of office [1892-1895]; but its continuance may more probably be traced to good seasons and commercial prosperity, to the overwhelming majority of the Unionists which deprived the Irish party in Parliament of much of its political importance, to the quarrels which broke up that party after the death of Mr. Parnell, and to a certain measure of success which attended the efforts of Government to secure the well-being of the people. It is remarkable that there had been for some years an unbroken growth in the deposits in the Irish savings banks. They had steadily increased from £4,710,000 in 1886 to £7,678,000 by the end of 1895. Two good harvests had also tended to the lessening of political discontent."—J. F. Bright, *History of England*, *pp.* 199-200.—See also ENGLAND: 1894-1895 (March-September).

1896-1902.—Continued discussion of land question.—Land conference (1902).—"Between 1896 and 1902 Parliament was not entirely free from discussion on the Irish Land Question. The Irish Nationalists in the House of Commons pressed the claims and hardships of the tenants, and advanced a plea for compulsory sale. In the

House of Lords the representatives of the landowners complained strongly of the working of the Acts, and endeavoured to secure compensation for injury they had suffered as the result of legislation since 1881. The Government turned a deaf ear to both parties; and it was not until 1902 that they proposed further legislation. . . . In the autumn . . . an event took place which was to have the most far-reaching results on land purchase. The situation in Ireland was troubled. The United Irish League was in full activity; its opponents had formed a Land Trust to provide the funds and organisation necessary to defend and protect those whom the League attacked. The Government, moreover, had been compelled to take decisive steps to check disorder. On September 3 a letter appeared in the press from Captain Shaw Taylor, a Galway landlord, inviting the principal landowners and Nationalists, as representing the tenants, to take part in a conference to which proposals for settling the land question would be submitted. For a while it seemed that the project would be still-born. The leading landlords stood aloof; but the Landowners' Convention, although not expressing definite approval of a conference, recorded an opinion in favour of a settlement. Other landowners supported the proposal; while an unofficial poll showed considerable feeling for the conference. The Chief Secretary, too, spoke of it as 'a step in the right direction.' . . . At a meeting of the [Nationalist] Party the desirability of a conference was agreed to. On December 20 the Land Conference became an accomplished fact. . . . The conference sat with closed doors, and within a fortnight had unanimously agreed to a report, which was issued on January 3, 1903. It insisted on the expediency of settling the land question upon a basis mutually satisfactory to owners and occupiers, and expressed the view that an unexampled opportunity was afforded of settling the dispute. It stated that the only satisfactory solution was by the substitution of an occupying proprietary in lieu of the existing system of dual ownership, and it proceeded to outline a scheme upon this principle. . . . The report, however, met with general acceptance. The Landowners' Convention were not dissatisfied with the conclusions arrived at; and the unique coalition of Irish landowners and Irish tenants rendered Mr. Wyndham's task of passing a Land Bill through Parliament all the easier. So, too, the improved condition of Ireland and consequent relaxation of severer methods of administration added considerably to the prevalent good understanding."—P. G. Cambray, *Irish affairs and the Home Rule question, pp.* 197-199.

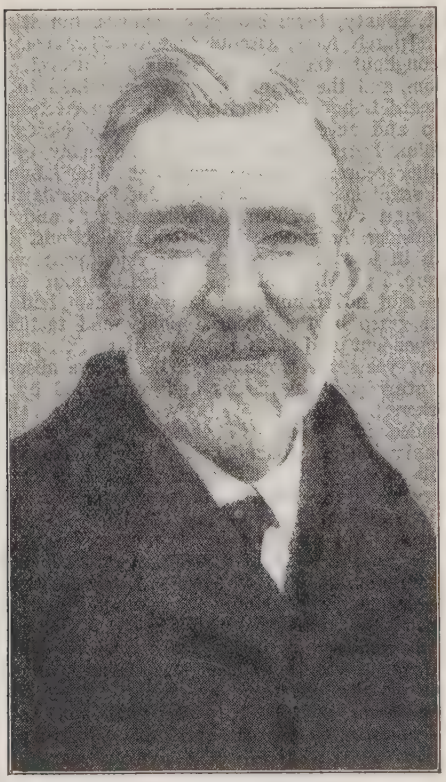
1898-1907.—Local Government Act.—Land and labor associations.—A bill which had great success, so far as it went, was brought forward by the Conservative Government, and carried through both Houses in July, 1898. This Act provided "for the organisation of a system of local government in Ireland substantially similar to that which, within the last few years, has been established in Great Britain." This important Act established County Councils, Urban District Councils, Rural District Councils, and Boards of Guardians, all elected by ballot every three years, on a franchise broader than the Parliamentary franchise, since it gave the local suffrage to women. The same Act extended to Ireland the provisions of the Act for the relief of agricultural land.—61 & 62 *Vict. ch.* 37.—The act "put more power in the hands of the Irish and of the Nationalist party. A very small percentage of the old members of the grand jury found seats on the new Councils, which were for the most part constituted of men inexperienced in administrative business. It can afford no cause for surprise that here and there unwise excesses of party feeling were seen, in nothing perhaps more notably than in the violent resolutions passed in not a few of the newly established Councils in favour of the Boers during the South African War. It is more to be wondered at that in a large majority of cases the Councils set to work with an apparent determination to execute their new duties with throughness, and on the whole succeeded in so doing."—J. F. Bright, *History of England, pp.* 202-203.—"After the passing of the Local Government Act of 1898 abolishing the old Grand Jury system [by which poor rates and road rates had been imposed] and throwing the franchise for district and county government open to the general body of the people, there was a real all-Ireland movement directed towards securing the election of Labour members to district, county, town and city councils, but it was . . . [purely local, without a] national centre. . . . Throughout the whole country, however, the unions and the Trades Councils combined to put forward Labour candidates at the first elections in 1899 and succeeded in getting many elected in Dublin, Derry, Cork, Limerick and many of the smaller centres. In the rural areas the labourers and small farmers combined in local organisations, the land and Labour Associations . . . and had a considerable success in the rural elections. But both in town and country the experiment was a failure. . . . Most of the elected Labour members had no training, . . . few of them had any clear grasp of the essential policy and tactics of independent and class representation, . . . and in a few years the working men . . . were absorbed by other political parties and repudiated by the workers. . . . In 1896 James Connolly [had] founded in Dublin the first definitely Socialist organisation in Ireland, the Irish Socialist Republican Party. . . . Connolly and [this] . . . Party were the pioneers of proletarian Socialism in Ireland. . . . In 1899-1900 the Party conducted a strong and vigorous agitation in opposition to the imperialist war of Great Britain against the Boer Republics, and with the other revolutionary movements in Ireland, the Republican Party helped to establish the Irish Transvaal Committee which organised an Irish Brigade for service in the field on the side of the Republican armies in South Africa."—*Ireland at Berne* (*Reports and Memoranda presented to International Labour and Socialist Conference at Berne, Feb.*, 1919, *pp.* 5-8).

1899-1900.—Organization of agricultural department.—Systemization of agriculture.—In 1899 "a new Department of Agriculture, Industries, and Technical Instruction was created for Ireland. The object was to develop the resources of the country and to teach the people how to use them. The first Vice-President was Mr. Horace Plunkett. This appointment was an official recognition of the excellent work he had for some time been carrying on. At his persuasion an Irish Agricultural Organisation Society had been formed, and had pressed upon the people with great success the principles of industrial co-operation. The work had begun in 1897, and had spread with extraordinary rapidity—87 Agricultural Societies, with a membership of 9000, and 155 Dairy Societies, with a membership of 20,000, were under its control by December, 1898."—J. F. Bright, *History of England, pp.* 202-203.—The cardinal principle of the Irish Agricultural Organization Society "is mutual help and self-dependence. . . .

It was encouraged by government grants till the Department of Agriculture took over much of the society's work under the vice-presidency of Sir Horace Plunkett. . . . Of its political aspect it does not concern the economist to speak. . . . The great outstanding fact, and Sir Horace Plunkett's most powerful apology, lies in the gigantic nature of the work his inspiration has accomplished. Indeed, it has been held that Wyndham's great Act itself would have been practically useless but for the coöperative system, which can now render the smaller farms productive when they would have been unproductive by having no outlet for their dairy produce."—L. G. Redmond-Howard, *New birth of Ireland, p.* 158.—See also Coöperation: Ireland.

Also in: H. Plunkett, *Ireland and the new century, pp.* 227-241, 260-291.

20th century.—Extent of education.—Practical instruction.—Technical and commercial schools. See Education: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Ireland.



SIR HORACE PLUNKETT

1903.—Land purchase under Wyndham Land Act.—Estates commissioners.—Terms of act.—In 1903 "Sir Antony MacDonnell was brought home [from India] to be Under Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant, that is, permanent chief to Irish administration. At the same time Mr. George Wyndham, descended from the great Geraldine House of Kildare, became Chief Secretary. These two men were jointly responsible for the Land Purchase Act of 1903, which decided in principle that all Irish landlords should be bought out on terms so favourable that they could maintain their old way of life in their old homes, but that the land of Ireland should be owned by the men who farmed it, payment being made by a long series of annuities, less in every case than the rent which had been paid in the past. This Act, though its principle has still not been carried out over the whole of Ireland, yet marked the triumph of a revolution."—S. L. Gwynn, *Irish situation, p.* 7.—"The bill, introduced on March 25, met with acceptance, and was but little opposed, even on the Committee stage. . . . Its favourable treatment arose not only through the preliminary agreement that had been come to, but was also to be found in the broad and generous principles underlying the scheme. From the restrictions and points for litigation which had afflicted other Land Acts the Bill of 1903 was believed to be free. Whereas previous schemes had offered no more than purchase for a limited number of tenants, Mr. Wyndham's Bill aimed at effecting a complete settlement on those lines. No limited amount of money was set aside for advances; but it was estimated that £100,000,000 would be required to finance the measure. The problem was to offer sufficient inducements to the landlord to sell and to the tenant to buy, while, at the same time, not placing too great a burden on the British Exchequer. There were three interests to meet. So far as the landlords alone were concerned, they were to be paid in cash and not in stock; and as a further encouragement, especially to 'limited' owners and life tenants, and as compensation for incidental losses on the sale, the owner was to receive for his own use a cash bonus of 12 per cent. on the purchase money, to be paid out of the Land Purchase Aid Fund. The advantage to the tenant lay in the reduction of the purchase annuity from 4 per cent. under previous Acts to 3¼ per cent., of which ½ per cent. formed the sinking fund, and 2¾ per cent. represented interest. Repayment was consequently extended from forty-nine to sixty-eight and a half years. Other provisions, especially those which simplified the proving of title, aimed at facilitating the operation of the Act, and were advantageous to both landlord and tenant. Tenants were not dealt with individually, and the owner sold not a farm here and a farm there, but the whole estate or such unit as the Commissioners agreed to deal with, and the tenants acted in a body. Already judicial rents had been fixed on a large number of estates, and the Act took advantage of this to simplify the procedure. Where the purchase annuity showed a substantial reduction on the judicially fixed 'fair rent,' . . . the agreed price was taken as equitable, and the holding as offering security for the advance without need of inspection, and without the uncertainty that when owner and tenant had come to an agreement the Commissioners might decline to advance the money. On the part of the British people there was a gift of the £12,000,000, which formed the 'bonus,' for which they had the prospect of finally settling the Irish land question. The administration of the Act was entrusted to three Estates Commissioners, and the financial part to the Treasury. To the Estates Commissioners were also given powers of purchase, and of subsequent re-sale to tenants; also they were entrusted with powers for dealing with untenanted land, creating new holdings, enlarging holdings, and reinstating evicted tenants."—P. G. Cambray, *Irish affairs and the Home Rule question, pp.* 199-201.—"The Act of 1903 marks the culminating point of Irish land legislation. . . . But the slowness of the transfer, caused by a provision of the law of 1903 which limited the issue of stock to £5,000,000 yearly, was a source of considerable criticism. The Estates Commissioners fell more and more behind in dealing with the applications

made to them. For the tenants, the arrangements did not seem as satisfactory as in previous Acts. The zone system, which fixed the purchase price according to the existing judicial rents and involved a considerable increase over existing standards, was not popular. Meanwhile, the financial arrangements broke down completely. The stock issued at 2¾ per cent. fell in the markets to a very considerable discount, requiring large inroads upon the Irish Development Fund to make up the deficit. Moreover, the law did not deal adequately with the problem of congested districts, many of which were found to exist outside the areas officially known by that name."—L. E. P. Smith-Gordon and L. C. Staples, *Rural reconstruction in Ireland, pp.* 27-28.—In 1908, therefore, Augustus Birrell introduced a new bill which provided for the return to the old policy. This bill was passed in 1909.

1904.—First devolution plan.—Both Wyndham and "Sir Antony MacDonnell were fully aware that to settle the land question did not dispose of the Irish problem. Nationalist Ireland, which returned 80 per cent of the Irish Members of Parliament, had also its elected representatives in control of all purely local business; but the central administration of the country was controlled by it. A plan was considered by the Chief Secretary and his associates for devolving upon some representative Irish body the charge of the superior departments; so came into fashion the word 'devolution.' It was an attempt to introduce Home Rule by instalments. As soon as rumour spread of the attempt, outcry was raised, especially by the Unionists of Ulster. Mr. Wyndham was immediately thrown overboard by Mr. Balfour, the Prime Minister. Nationalist Ireland was at this moment, in 1904, mainly preoccupied with the new working of land purchase, then proceeding very rapidly. Moreover, it was clear to all that the days of Tory ascendancy, which had lasted with one brief ineffectual interval since 1886, were at last numbered. Ireland at this moment realised that much had been gained under the rule of its traditional opponents; much more was hoped from the approaching advent to power of its traditional friends. One thing had sunk deep into the Irish mind. Constitutional agitation had made good; though with that conviction went the other, that for Irishmen to get a bad law changed the law must be defied and broken." —S. L. Gwynn, *Irish situation, pp.* 9-10.

1905-1916.—Formation of Sinn Fein party.—Sinn Fein movement to rebellion of 1916.—Gradual trend toward rebellion.—"The Sinn Fein movement was, from the first, political. It was Nationalist in the widest and most extreme form of that word. Founded in 1905, some five years or so after the Gaelic League, to a large extent, it left to the latter organisation the educational work it might, under other circumstances, have itself undertaken, and proceeded to supplement that work by the wider means at its disposal owing to its freer constitution. Though strictly nonsectarian, it was not, like the Gaelic League, trammelled by non-political bonds, and it was able to expound a policy and formulate a programme that the Gaelic League, committed as it then was to a severe estrangement from all that politics mean, could not undertake. . . . When the payment of members of Parliament was adopted, and the Irish representatives received £400 a year, the scorn of the Sinn Feiners passed all bounds. How could anything virile, they asked, be expected from men who were in the pay of the Government? . . . Suggestions were [made] for the establishment of Irish Consuls. This was the suggestion that caught the fancy of Sir Roger Casement, who for years had been in the British Consular Service. He became interested in the Sinn Fein movement and strongly supported the proposal that Irish Consuls should be appointed in the various large capitals of the world. The primary object of these Consuls would be to act as visible signs of the distinct nationality of Ireland. Their secondary, and equally important, purpose would be to watch for opportunities for Irish trade, . . . as well as to advise as to new methods of business in Ireland. All these proposals had one direct object and that was to initiate the Irish people into the art of depending on themselves alone. . . . Self-reliance was the motto of the Sinn Feiners. In the early days of the movement it was not revolutionary, nor did it profess to appeal to arms to carry out its objects. Like the Gaelic League, but in a larger and wider sense, it was an educational movement formed for the purpose of trying to convince the Irish people to look out on the world from a new and more self-centred standpoint. Much, it was felt, could be accomplished if only they could be converted from the evil practice of looking to England for everything they stood in need of. . . . Instead of waiting for State aid, why should not the people start at work themselves? There was mineral wealth in the country waiting to be opened up. There were railways and waterways that could be utilised if the people would only combine instead of talking. Why should Ireland stand apathetic, wearily waiting, whilst some seventy or eighty Irish members of the British Parliament delivered interminable speeches about Home Rule? Better than any Home Rule would be the spirit of the Irish people if they started doing things and relied on themselves alone to do them. Such was the essential teaching of the Sinn Fein movement, and, at this stage, it was, as Mr. Birrell, the ex-Chief Secretary for Ireland, stated at the Royal Commission in London (May 19th, 1916) wholly unobjectionable. The inspirer, and practically the founder, of the Sinn Fein movement was Mr. Arthur Griffith, an able journalist of Welsh descent, who returned to Dublin, his native place, early in the twentieth century, after several years spent in South Africa. A bold and acute thinker, a lucid and forcible writer, and a man who obtained and retained the unshakable confidence of his followers, he devoted himself to expounding, by means of a weekly newspaper in Dublin, the doctrines of Sinn Fein."—J. F. Boyle, *Irish rebellion of 1916, pp.* 12-18.—"The older generation had thought about two things only—Home Rule and the land. Now, they were told that to revive the dying language was equally important; that Home Rule would be an empty symbol if Ireland lost its distinctive tongue; and that to free the land and make the farmer prosperous was of little service unless Irish industries were protected against foreign and especially English competition. All this angered the elder generation, and led to a severance of political sympathy between them and the young; thus providing a natural recruiting ground for the new party, which began to make older Nationalists aware of its existence. . . . In 1899 Mr. Arthur Griffith [had] founded *The United Irishman,* reviving the name of John Mitchel's rebel paper. He revived more than the name: since Mitchel there had been no publicist in Ireland possessing so trenchant a style. Yet it may be fairly said that without the Gaelic League, inspired by Hyde's most attractive personality, Mr. Griffiths

would hardly have succeeded so far as he did. The Gaelic League conducted necessarily a vehement propaganda against anglicisation. . . . With great skill . . . [Griffith] furnished Gaelic students with a parallel from the history of a country which had recovered both its independence and its language. His pamphlet, *The Resurrection of Hungary*, preached all the things which the Gaelic League preached, and preached them with a political application. . . . Various minor organisations with Gaelic names came into being, but Sinn Féin ('Ourselves') was the name that stuck. The proposal to re-establish Irish independence through a general agreement to make English

ARTHUR GRIFFITH

law and government unworkable came to be known as the Sinn Féin policy. The object defined was the recovery of independence under a joint crown —herein conforming to what Hungary had achieved; and as a first practical step was recommended the withdrawal of all Members from Westminster. They were to stay at home and help to recreate Irish industries. All resistance was to be passive. Refusal to pay taxes was obviously a part of the programme, but since three-fifths of Irish taxes were levied indirectly, this was not very practicable, unless the Irish people abandoned the use of alcohol, tobacco, tea, and so forth. The one important item of direct levy, income-tax, was not at this period to any great extent paid by those who sympathised with Sinn Féin. The new policy did not make much headway. In 1908, when the old constitutional movement had experienced a severe set-back, Mr. Dolan, Member for Leitrim, resigned his seat and stood again as a Sinn Féiner; he was defeated so heavily that Sinn Féin did not contest a seat again till 1916. It succeeded, however, in returning some members to the Dublin Corporation. None the less, constitutional Nationalism was losing ground in these years."—S. L. Gwynn, *Irish situation, pp.* 11-14.—"From the first the Sinn Fein cause attracted to itself the malcontents whose sole dogma may be summed up in the word—Hate [against England]. . . . These men saw, or thought they saw, an opportunity in the new movement to gratify their predominant passion. . . . [But] outside of certain circles attracted by its doctrines in Dublin and some of the larger cities and towns, the country, as a whole, refused to have anything to do with it. The farmers, especially, neither understood it nor attempted to understand it. . . . As an agricultural people their thoughts were centred solely on the soil. They had just emerged from a long-drawn-out struggle with landlordism. They had won. What they next wanted was some rest. Even Home Rule interested them but mildly. Sinn Fein did not interest them at all. Even in the towns and cities the movement made only poor progress. To be styled a Sinn Feiner meant being a crank. The Nationalist Press, being behind the Nationalist Party, ridiculed the Sinn Fein movement. The politicians derided it. The Unionist Press, seeing the weakness of the movement supported it just a little as a lever against the more powerful Nationalist Party. Under such circumstances it flourished but feebly. Still, it managed to survive. . . . Many Sinn Feiners were pacifists. [From the beginning of the World War] some of them were against Germany for declaring war, but nearly all, . . . were against Irishmen joining the Army to fight with England and her Allies against Germany. The policy of the 'Sinn Fein' newspaper early in the war brought it into collision with the authorities, and it was suppressed. By other small newspapers, however, means were found of reaching the rank and file of the Sinn Feiners. The change in attitude was gradual, but certain. When the Home Rule Bill was before Parliament there were signs that the Sinn Feiners, although they regarded it as inadequate, were prepared to accept it. Especially were they anxious to retain the Ulster Protestants, for whom they professed an affection owing to the part played by the Northerners in the United Irishmen movement in 1798. . . . When it finally passed, with, however, the guarantee that it would not come into operation until the end of the war, and also with the promise to the Ulster Unionists of an Amending Bill, the Sinn Feiners and other sections of actively discontented Irishmen had taken their choice. They had definitely become pro-German. A convention was established with the extreme Irish element in the United Irish States, and the words Sinn Fein came to mean (not quite, but in the main, fairly accurately) pro-German and pro-Republican. From the outset, and especially after the signing of the Home Rule Bill, Mr. Redmond and several members of his Party professed to treat this now very extreme section of Irishmen with supreme contempt. In this attitude he undoubtedly, as Mr. Birrell admitted, influenced the Government. The Sinn Feiners, and those who, whilst not Sinn Feiners, thought with them on this matter, were treated as negligible, and thus came to pass the tragic series of events."—J. F. Boyle, *Irish rebellion of 1916, pp.* 18-20, 23-26.

1906.—Housing of agricultural laborers.—"One of the most important measures passed by the British Parliament during this period of Irish revival has been the Irish Labourers' Act. It was one of the first measures passed by the new Liberal Parliament of 1906, and it has been since often amended and supplemented. But its main provisions still stand. . . . [Under the] Act the Imperial Government . . . [granted] to the local authorities in Ireland loans at cheap rates for the purpose of re-housing the Irish agricultural labourers. It . . . [placed] the whole administration of these loans in the hands of the Irish District Councils—a very delicate and difficult task. So efficiently have the District Councils done their work that more than half the Irish labourers have already been re-housed. It is fully expected that within a few years the whole Irish agricultural labouring population will have received under this Act good houses, accompanied always with a plot of land at a small rent."—H. Spender, *Home Rule, pp.* 27-28.—The houses have attached to them from half an acre (for the older houses) to an acre of land, and are rented to bona fide laborers at a nominal rental of 1s.3d. a week, or approximately $15.60 a year. Up to the second decade of the present century the wages of laborers were very small. Quite late in the nineteenth century, a laborer who received seven shillings a week, and food for himself, in his employer's kitchen, was munificently paid. In addition, he was generally allowed some land for a potato garden. He was housed by his employer, and his wife and children were held at his employer's call, at a very small wage, whenever their services were required. It was in very large part this laboring class which was so wretchedly housed in Ireland, partly because the farmers could not afford to build better dwellings for their "tenants." It must be admitted, however, that the farmers showed little inclination to share their increased prosperity with the laborers, and grumbled excessively when they were compelled to raise their wages.

1907.—Proposed bill for creation of representative council.—Rejected by National party.—A Bill proposing half-way progress toward Home Rule for Ireland was introduced in the British Parliament by the chief secretary for Ireland, Mr. Augustine Birrell in May, 1907. "Liberalism in England had decided that the Home Rule question was one of secondary importance and could wait. The group headed by Mr. Asquith, Sir Edward Grey, and Mr. Haldane . . . in order to get a clear vote on the issue of Free Trade, . . . [had] pledged themselves to oppose the introduction of a Home Rule Bill in the Parliament which was to be elected at the beginning of 1906. The result was that a House of Commons in which the declared opponents of Home Rule did not number one-third could do nothing on this matter, except take up the attempt [at devolution] abandoned by Mr. Wyndham."—S. L. Gwynn, *Irish situation, p.* 14.—In 1907 therefore Augustus Birrell introduced a bill to provide for an elective council. "Mr. Birrell's Councils Bill of 1907 proposed to set up an administrative Council of 82 elected and 24 nominated members in Dublin to control the chief departments of Irish Government. To establish an Irish Treasury, and to establish an Irish Fund of £4,164,000 per annum with certain supplemental grants to use for Irish administration. The measure was utterly condemned by Unionists and Nationalists alike. It was denounced in unmeasured terms by a great 'National Convention' in Dublin on 21st May, 1907, as 'utterly inadequate in scope, and unsatisfactory in details.' . . . The Bill was withdrawn on 3rd June, 1907, and with it fell the 'Home Rule by Instalment' policy."—A. W. Samuel, *Home Rule, pp.* 72-73.—"An Evicted Tenants Bill of 1907 enabled the Estates Commissioners to purchase—compulsorily, in case of need—the land needed for the settlement of evicted tenants; and the Bill, though modified by the House of Lords, ultimately became law."—E. Barker, *Ireland in the last fifty years. p.* 65.

1908.—Old-Age Pensions Act. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Great Britain: 1833-1911; CHARITIES: Ireland: 1908-1921.

1909 (October).—Organization of national university.—"The most important Irish measure passed in that Parliament was the Irish University Act, endowing a National University with colleges at Dublin, Cork, and Galway—which . . . [became] forcing-houses of the Sinn Féin faith."—S. L. Gwynn, *Irish situation, p.* 14.

1909-1911.—Operation of Land Purchase Acts.—Congested districts.—"The law of 1909 grappled with several . . . shortcomings. The interest rate on the stock issued was increased to 3 per cent., and the annuities were raised correspondingly to 3½ per cent. The heavy deficit already existing was to be settled by the intervention of the Treasury. In place of a fixed bonus of 12 per cent., this additional payment to the landlord was now graded according to the price paid. The problem of congestion and the unwillingness of certain landlords to sell was partially solved by the extension of the area under the jurisdiction of the Congested Districts Board and the investiture of that body with compulsory powers. The Estates Commissioners were given the same powers in respect to 'congested districts' outside the jurisdiction of the Board. These modifications and additions have brought the programme laid down in 1903 much nearer completion. The actual result of the land purchase Acts in Ireland has been to create a country of peasant proprietors. By March 31, 1915, nearly 300,000 holdings had passed into the hands of their occupiers. These represented nearly ten million acres of land. At the same time, an additional 100,000 holdings of over three million acres were in process of negotiation. Together these comprised more than three-quarters of the soil of the country. A sum of nearly £100,000,000 had been advanced by the Government in order to achieve this remarkable result."—L. E. P. Smith-Gordon and L. C. Staples, *Rural reconstruction in Ireland, p.* 29.—"Congestion in Ireland is a problem within a problem. Its causes are both historic and economic. The Cromwellian Settlement, the Penal Laws, the Great Famine, the Clearances, and the Repeal of the Corn Laws, have all influenced the conditions for the worse. Alone, the land question would be sufficient to cause statesmen perplexity, but it is further complicated by the presence over a large part of the West of Ireland of congestion. By the term is not meant dense population, such as the word would indicate if applied to urban districts. A district may be sparsely peopled; but nevertheless congested, if the holdings are in the main too small and unproductive to support a family. Along the sea coast mostly there is a fairly dense population in certain areas where the land is hardly capable of supporting any population at all; in other districts there is an excessive population on poor land, but adjacent to thinly populated districts of better land. The problem is one of the condition of the people, and though, so far as locality is

concerned, it mainly occurs in the West, yet it is present in other parts of Ireland. . . . The Congested Districts Board was established in 1891 by Mr. Balfour. Its duties are to remove congestion by migration and the purchase of estates and a redivision of holdings, and to improve the condition of such districts by aiding and developing agriculture and fishing, by improving live stock, and by the introduction of suitable industries. Today [1911] it has the spending of an income of £250,000 a year, partly voted by Parliament, and in addition has a call on money raised by the Treasury for land purchase to the amount of £1,000,000 a year; and in such purchases the Board may exercise compulsory powers. By the Land Act of 1909 the number of members was increased, its area of operations was extended, and it was given new and more responsible duties. Clearly, then, the Board is an important and powerful factor in Irish life. At the beginning it was laid down by Mr. Balfour that the Board was not in the ordinary sense a Government department; nor was it to be subordinate to either the Chief Secretary's office or the Ministry of the day. With the exception that the Lord Lieutenant must be consulted for certain purposes specified by statute, and that all applications to the Treasury for expenditure paid for out of the Vote must pass through 'the Castle,' its correspondence may be conducted independently of the Government."—P. G. Cambray, *Irish affairs and the Home Rule question, pp.* 23-24, 227-228.

1909-1914.—Labor movement.—Organization of Labor party.—"Early in 1909 Larkin founded in Dublin . . . [the] Irish Transport and General Workers' Union, a class-conscious organisation with both industrial and political aims, designed for the organisation in one body of all general workers and centering all of them round the transport workers. . . . [The organisation had its headquarters at Liberty Hall, Dublin, and issued a weekly newspaper known as The Irish Worker. Efforts were made to combat the evil of poor housing, small pay, and precarious employment.] Meanwhile amongst the Irish workers in the United States of America . . . James Connolly had been carrying on a successful Socialist propaganda. . . . [In 1910 he returned to Ireland to organize the movement there. The younger men in Dublin were organized into a body known as the Citizen Army, which later on took an active part in the rising of 1916. Before that time (1911-1912) there were serious strikes in Dublin, where the Employers' Federation was formed to oppose the Transport Union. The strike lasted into 1913, and the remembrance of the riots of that year no doubt had their share in inciting the revolt of 1916. 1911 marked the end of the transition from a purely trade union movement to a combined political and industrial labor movement and party. This party adopted an anti-militarist policy, and opposed compulsory service. In 1912, an independent Labor Party was founded] in order that the organised workers might be able to enter the proposed Irish Parliament as an organised Labour Party. . . . In August 1914 and for twelve months afterwards the war divided but did not disrupt the movement. . . . A strong section of the leaders and a majority of the rank and file, however, opposed participation in the war on the ground that the people had not been consulted and that Great Britain's declared principle of the recognition of nationality had not been carried out in practice in Ireland. . . . By the autumn and winter of 1916 the Transport Union and Liberty Hall had begun to rise literally from their ashes, and the resurgent spirit in the country gave a fillip to organisation. . . . The feverish activity in organisation was the distinguishing mark of the year following the insurrection, and indeed the two great phenomena of 1917 in Ireland were the rapid rise of Sinn Fein, the Irish Republican Party, and the equally rapid rise to both power and popularity of the militant Labour movement. . . . For the first time in history the agricultural labourers began to flock into the unions and clerical workers and women helped to swell the ranks in the proletarian organisations. By the beginning of 1918 the Labour movement had . . . [become] a considerable force in both political and industrial affairs. . . . The Party by this time was a well-organised body whose support was to be sought and whose opposition was to be feared. This prestige was increased by Labour's hold and defiant action against conscription to Ireland. . . . The General Strike was discussed and voted as a demonstration of the will to resist . . . and on April 23 all work and all business ceased for twenty-four hours throughout the whole country except the Unionist districts in Ulster . . . and the stoppage was complete and entire. . . . Throughout the whole campaign of resistance to conscription Labour contributed generously and effectively in both thought and action to the great movement which preserved Ireland as the only unconscripted country in Europe, uniting with the leaders of the Republican, Home Rule and All-for-Ireland Parties in the Mansion House Conference and supplying outside an invaluable industrial auxiliary to the other militant forces."—*Ireland at Berne (Reports and memoranda presented to the International Labour and Socialist Conference held at Berne, Feb.,* 1919, *pp.* 13, 18-19).

Also in: M. MacDonagh, *Sinn Fein and labor* (*Contemporary Review, Apr.,* 1918).—D. D. Sheehaw, *Ireland since Parnell, pp.* 262-267.

1912-1914.—Third Home Rule Bill introduced. —Passed in 1914.—"The constitutional crisis through which the United Kingdom began to pass in 1909-10 found a changed Ireland. . . . For one thing security of tenure and the sense of ownership had worked a far-reaching improvement on the land; prosperity was steadily increasing among the farmers, and the distinction between classes was less and less one of wealth. According to all prognostications of Unionist politicians, this should have meant the end of Irish discontent. In point of fact Ireland had at this time the good humour which comes of prosperity. . . . There was probably never a moment when Nationalist feeling was less anti-English. The idea of a settlement which gave self-government within the Empire was frankly accepted by all except a very few theorists. . . . But the demand for self-government was no less insistent than at any time since Parnell came to power. . . . Moreover, outside of Ulster, the opposition to Home Rule had greatly weakened. . . . Many of the landlord class had left Ireland; but a much larger proportion had remained in the country from habitual attachment. In remaining, they had remained also by tradition Unionists. As such, they were debarred from local power. . . . A Protestant landlord who became a Home Ruler had no difficulty in securing election to his county council; but these conversions were rare. Broadly speaking, the landed gentry, the professional classes, and the business men who were Protestants remained Unionists, and endeavoured to return a member to their liking in one or two divisions of Dublin. But all

sting had gone out of their fight; and not a few men among them were at least anxious to see the experiment of self-government tried. In Ulster, change had been in a very different sense. Opposition to Home Rule had in no way abated, but it had altered its character. . . . Ulster's cry was still 'No Home Rule!' and when the Solemn League and Covenant was framed and signed in 1912, the Covenant bound all Ulstermen into a common resistance to any law that should seek to bring any part of Ulster under a Dublin Parliament. . . . As matters proceeded, Sir Edward Carson declared again and again that what they really wanted was time and experience of the working of Home Rule. Let Ulster stay under the Union. If Home Rule were the success that Nationalist Ireland anticipated, Ulster would gladly come in. This issue was narrowed when the Nationalist party accepted a provisional partition. Such counties as chose to vote themselves out should stay out for a period of five years. This raised two new questions: first, the provisional nature of the exclusion; secondly, the area to be excluded. Sir Edward Carson insisted that Ulster should never be forced in; and further, that Ulster should mean six counties—in two of which Nationalists had 54 per cent of the population."—S. L. Gwynn, *Situation in Ireland, pp.* 18-20, 24.—This was the temper of the country when the third Home Rule Bill was introduced in April 11, 1912. The bill, which was endorsed by the national convention, provided for a bicameral parliament, the lower house to consist of 164 elected members; the upper house of 40 members to be appointed by the Irish executive; the two houses, in case of disagreement, to sit and vote together. "The issues of war and peace, the control of the army and navy, and the treaty-making power . . . [were] all excluded from its purview. Its powers of taxation . . . [were to be] limited. Certain reserved services, such as Land Purchase, the Royal Irish Constabulary, Old Age Pensions and National Insurance . . . [were to be] maintained for the time being under Imperial control; but the Royal Irish Constabulary . . . [was] to be transferred after an interval of six years, and the other services, with the exception of the Land Purchase . . . [might] also be transferred after due notice. To these three limitations, thus concerned with foreign policy, finance and reserved services, certain others . . . [were] also added *ex abundanti cautela,* mainly with the object of preserving any minority in Ireland, and especially Protestant Ulster, from possible oppression. The Irish Parliament . . . [was] debarred from any legislation . . . [which would] impose religious disabilities. Its Acts . . . [were] to be subject to the veto of the Lord Lieutenant, acting on the advice of the Imperial Executive; and . . . subject to nullification and amendment by the Imperial Parliament. . . . [Ireland was] still to send its members, reduced in number from 103 to 42, to sit at Westminster. . . . [This was] the solution provided in the Act for one of the two main difficulties. . . . [The other difficulty]—that of finance— . . . was met by an ingenious system of division of powers under which, on the whole, the Irish Parliament, under certain circumstances, . . . [could] vary or discontinue Imperial taxes, or even impose taxes of its own, provided they . . . [were] not of a definitely protective character."—E. Barker, *Ireland in the last fifty years, pp.* 91-92.—"The Home Rule Bill was accepted by all Nationalist Ireland in good faith as a fair measure of self-government. A vast open-air meeting was held in Dublin to endorse this acceptance, and among the speakers was Patrick Pearse, who stood on a platform outside the General Post Office, where four years later he was to launch his rebellion. Rejection by the Lords was foreseen; but it was assumed that since this had been made the test question for the trial of strength between the hereditary and the elected Houses, British democracy would not give way."—S. L. Gwynn, *Irish situation, p.* 16.—The bill became a law in September 1914; but at the same time its operation was suspended until after the close of the World War. Notice was also given that an amending bill, to provide a separate government for Ulster, would be introduced.—See also ENGLAND: 1912-1914.

1913-1916.—Ulster Volunteers and National Volunteers.—Activities of Sir Roger Casement.—"In 1913 Ulster announced its intention to resist Home Rule by force of arms. The Ulster Volunteer Force was established. A great deal of money was subscribed. . . . The intention or the hope of the Ulstermen was to overthrow the Liberal Government by a mere threat of civil war. . . . From this time forward a new conception began to enter into Irish politics: that of an Ulster with separate powers of legislature and administration. It was detested by Nationalists generally, because they felt that a small group of counties left under direct government from Westminster would soon come to consider that arrangement on its merits and would discard it as inconvenient; whereas they believed, and still believe, that a separate self-governing Ulster would be permanently kept apart from the rest of Ireland by religious bigotry. Catholics disliked the idea of a new unit in which Catholics would be always a minority; the clergy in particular were vehement against the control of education by a Government of anti-Catholic bias. The liquor trade, which was largely in Catholic hands, feared confiscation. But above all there was a strong sentimental attachment to the idea of Ireland's unity. . . . The whole issue at this time was deeply tainted with unreality, and worse still, by the suspicion of unreality. Nationalists clamoured for the maintenance of unity; yet the most clamorous showed that they believed Protestant Ulstermen to be a race apart, permanently incapable of acting for the interest of Ireland as a whole. . . . Nationalists suspected that Ulster's military preparations were bluff, and said so; Ulster suspected that Nationalist professions of willingness to accept self-government within the Empire were illusory, and said so. . . . The incident at the Curragh in March 1914, when General Gough and a large number of officers resigned their commissions rather than take action which they believed to be hostile to Ulster, was taken as a sign that Government could not depend on the Army."—S. L. Gwynn, *Irish situation, pp.* 25, 27, 29.—See also CURRAGH INCIDENT.—"During the summer of 1913 the Ulster Volunteers drilled openly, and made no secret of their intention to resist, by arms in the field if it should prove necessary, the imposition of Home Rule on Ulster. The Nationalists in the South and West of Ireland watched this arming and this drilling in Ulster, at first with amusement, and afterwards with admiration. . . . It was not surprising, therefore, to find an attempt made towards the end of 1913, amongst the Nationalists in the South and West of Ireland, to emulate the doings of the North. In Dublin and other places National Volunteers were formed. Drillings immediately began, and efforts were at once made to obtain arms. Funds were not wanting. In America . . . money was raised for the

arming and equipping of the National Volunteers. The Government, however, alarmed by the establishment of two sets of Volunteers in Ireland, took tardy action, and in December issued a Proclamation forbidding the import of arms into the country. The Ulster Volunteers, by their great gun-running exploit at Larne and other northern ports in the spring of 1914, practically defied this Proclamation, and the National Volunteers were not slow to follow their example. They also endeavoured to obtain arms and equipment, and they grew steadily in numbers. At length Mr. John Redmond intervened. Up to now both he and the Irish Party, as well as the Nationalist Press in Ireland, had watched the growth of the National Volunteers with anxiety. . . . To make matters more serious, the membership of the Volunteers was increasing daily. Finally, therefore, Mr. Redmond took action. The Volunteers were governed by a Provisional Committee of twenty-five members. Profiting by the word Provisional, Mr. Redmond . . . [demanded] that twenty-five of his supporters should be nominated on the Provisional Committee. . . . A split in the ranks of the National Volunteers was imminent, when, at the last moment, . . . the twenty-five nominees of Mr. Redmond [were admitted]. All during the summer of 1914 the ranks of the Volunteers continued to swell, until, shortly before the war broke out, there must have been well over one hundred thousand active members. . . . It was calculated [however] in July, 1914, that not one-fourth were armed or properly drilled or equipped. . . . Some thousands of rifles and a large quantity of ammunition were landed at Howth on the second last Sunday in July, 1914. The ending of the affair was tragic. On hearing of the occurrence, the Assistant Commissioner of Police in Dublin sent a force of police and military to intercept the National Volunteers on their march back, with their arms, from Howth. There was a collision on the Howth Road, in the course of which some rifles were seized, but the Volunteers dispersed through the fields and roads with their weapons, and the military on the march back to Dublin were followed by a mob, mainly composed of women and children, as well as a number of roughs not connected with the Volunteers. Irritated by the conduct of this mob, which flung taunts and missiles alike at the troops, the latter, composed of a detachment of the Scottish Borderers, fired at the crowd in Bachelor's Walk with the result that several people were killed and over a score wounded. In the midst of the excitement, the European War burst forth, and in the larger catastrophe the smaller one was forgotten. When it became apparent that Great Britain would be involved in the war, Mr. John Redmond, in a notable speech, strove to link Ireland with the fortunes of England and the Empire, and in a dramatic manner offered the National Volunteers to the Government for the defence of Ireland. The speech created a great burst of enthusiasm in Parliament, as well as in Ireland. Protestant and Unionists landlords in the South and West hastened to offer their services to the National Volunteers, and it really seemed as if the millennium had arrived, so far as the relations between Ireland and the British Empire were concerned. The enthusiasm was, however, short-lived. Quickly it became apparent that there would be no German invasion of Ireland. . . . Eventually, on the Royal Assent being given to the Home Rule Bill, Mr. Redmond and members of the Nationalist party came definitely forward and asked for Irish recruits for the firing line abroad. It was at once apparent that he would be opposed in this by the Sinn Feiners and others who hated England. The split, that had been avoided earlier in the year, came about, therefore, in September, 1914, a little after the war had been in progress. A great part of the country sided with Mr. Redmond, and their ranks were known as the National Volunteers. Those who seceded called themselves the Irish Volunteers. . . . Never very enthusiastic about the movement, the leaders of the National Volunteers . . . [became apathetic and numbers] quitted the movement altogether, leaving the ardent spirits to join the ranks of the Irish (or Sinn Fein) Volunteers. Such was the position of affairs in the early part of 1916."—J. F. Boyle, *Irish rebellion of 1916, pp.* 33-41.—In the meantime Sir Roger Casement had procured for the Sinn Fein material aid and moral encouragement from extremists in the United States. After the commencement of the war he entered into communication with the German government, which was already actively fomenting trouble in Ireland. In December, 1914 he went to Germany, and there obtained promises of financial support. In 1915 he endeavored to raise an "Irish Brigade," from among the Irish prisoners of war, for service in the German army; but in spite of promises and threats, his efforts in this respect were all in vain. In the spring of 1916 it was deemed that matters in Ireland were sufficiently advanced to promise favorable results from a rising. Casement, therefore, obtained from the German government a shipment of arms and ammunitions. This was sent forward in the steamship *Aud* accompanied by two submarines in one of which Casement himself was a passenger. The *Aud,* however, was captured by a British patrol boat, and scuttled by her German crew. Casement was put ashore off the coast of Kerry, in a collapsible boat, and the submarines escaped.

1914-1916.—Growth of revolutionary feeling.—"The declaration of war came at a time when the Ulster Volunteers and the National Volunteers were confronting one another, prepared to fight upon the question of Home Rule. . . . It seemed as though nothing could restrain the opposing forces from flying at one another's throats, as soon as their leaders had secured the necessary munitions for the purpose. About the time of the outbreak of war the Ulster Volunteer Force was about 85,000 strong, and was believed to have in its possession some 53,000 rifles. Towards the end of September, 1914, the strength of the National Volunteers was about 181,000, but on 10th December of the same year it was estimated that the rifles in their possession only numbered some 9,000, with very little ammunition. The war affected these two forces very differently. On the outbreak of the European War at the beginning of August there was a notable relaxation of the political tension in Ulster, and a considerable suspension of active military preparations on the part of the Ulster Volunteers; though before the month was past about 1,400 rifles and a large quantity of ammunition were landed at Belfast for their use. . . . Nevertheless considerable unrest prevailed alike in the Unionist and Nationalist ranks as to the action which the Government would take with regard to the Home Rule Bill."—"I. O.," *Administration of Ireland, pp.* 1-3.—"Then came the formation of the [Asquith] Coalition Cabinet in England and the disappearance of the Government that had passed the Home Rule Measure. Ireland was made to feel that she had been flouted and betrayed. Not only did the new cabinet contain Mr. Arthur Balfour,

whose whole political life had been devoted to the anti-Home Rule cause, and Mr. Bonar Law, who had declared, . . . 1913, . . . that 'if the Government attempt to coerce Ulster before they have received the sanction of the electors, Ulster will do well to resist them, and we will support resistance to the end,' but it contained Sir Edward Carson, the Chief of the General Staff of the forces opposed to Home Rule. Sir Edward had taken an oath to resist the establishment of a Home Rule Government, and Irish Nationalists felt that he would not have taken office unless he had obtained some assurance that the Home Rule Bill would not be made operative in his time. Home Rule was dead, people felt, or at best, it was in a doubtful condition."—M. Joy, *Irish rebellion of 1916 and its martyrs, p.* 60.—"Before the outbreak of the War the Ulster Volunteer Force was . . . nearly 85,000 strong. Up to the end of September about 12,000 had joined the Army either as reservists or on enlistment. . . . On the outbreak of the war, Mr. Redmond undertook in Parliament, on behalf of the Irish Volunteers, that they, in union with the Ulster Volunteers, would defend the shores of Ireland from the enemy. His announcement was accepted with approval not only by the vast bulk of the Irish Nationalists but also by many prominent Unionists, who had nothing in common with his political views. On 16th of September, Mr. Redmond issued a Manifesto calling upon the people of Ireland to take their part in the great national crisis, and asking that Irish recruits for the Expeditionary Force should be kept together in an Irish Brigade under the command of Irish Officers. Later on at the meeting in the Mansion House, Dublin, on the 25th September, which was addressed by the Prime Minister, Mr. Redmond spoke strongly in favour of recruiting. . . . [He had, however, already begun to lose ground with the more radical members of the Nationalist party. A split developed in the Irish Volunteer force. The majority, about 160,000, followed Redmond, and formed the National Volunteers; the minority, about 10,000, who, however, had the advantage of retaining the old name remained under the leadership of Eoin McNeill, the original organizer of the force. At a convention of the Irish Volunteers held in Dublin, October 25, 1914, resolutions were adopted declaring the policy of the Irish Volunteers to be: (1) To uphold the right of the nation to maintain a volunteer force for its own defense. (2) To unite the people of Ireland on the basis of Irish nationality and a common national interest, and to resist partition. (3) To resist compulsory military service until a free national government of Ireland is empowered by the Irish people themselves to deal with it. (4) To secure the abolition of British government in Ireland, and the establishment of a national government in its place. An article in the "Irish Volunteer," entitled] 'Who are the Cowards?' [said] 'Ireland's national individuality, Ireland's national Soul, demands that Ireland should take no part, either through its leaders or through its masses, in promoting this iniquitous war. England, the Bully of the Nations, is in a difficulty. It is our duty to our ancestors, who risked and lost their lives to free Ireland from England, it is our duty to ourselves, who live under the heel of the mass of the same hypocritical power, it is our duty, above all, to those who will come after us in the inheritance of this land, to declare Ireland's neutrality; to refuse, in the words of the Volunteers' Manifesto, any foreign service under a Government which is not Irish, and to decline all part in foreign quarrels for which the Irish people have no responsibility.' . . . Organisers were soon at work forming new branches [of the Irish Volunteers] all over the country, promising an abundant supply of arms from America; and simultaneously a determined campaign was started to prevent men joining the Army. . . . [In May, 1915, an immediate insurrection was proposed. It was defeated by John McNeill; but, in July, 1915,] instructions were issued to County Boards directing them to assist organisers in forming new branches, and to resist the Registration Act should any attempt be made to enforce it in Ireland. At this meeting a sum of 3,000 dollars recently received from America was distributed. . . . During the winter months the Irish Volunteers were daily improving their organisation."—"I. O.," *Administration of Ireland, pp.* 3-4, 10-12, 15.—The result of the winter activities made practicable the movement toward rebellion which came to a head in Dublin, at Easter, 1916. See below: 1916 (April).

1916.—Irish republic.—German aid.—Arrest of Sir Roger Casement.—Rising in Dublin.—Irish republic proclaimed.—"Early in the morning of Good Friday, April 21st, a Kerry peasant walking along the seashore at Banna, not far from Fenit, came upon an empty collapsible boat, and noticed the footprints of three men leading to the sandhills. Later on he reported the matter to the police, who discovered buried in the sand some revolvers and a quantity of ammunition. Subsequently a tall man was observed near a ruin, who, when covered by a rifle, told the constable not to shoot, and surrendered. He gave an English name and address, but on being taken to the Tralee Police Barracks it was noticed that he resembled Sir R. Casement's portrait. Meanwhile his two companions in the boat had walked to Tralee and interviewed the local leaders of the Irish Volunteers. One of these men, who called himself Mulcahy, returned in a motor-car with two Volunteers in search of Sir R. Casement and was arrested by the police; the other made his escape. On April the 22nd, Casement, who refused to give his true name, was sent . . . to London, and on that (Saturday) evening Mr. John [Eoin] McNeill, President of the Irish Volunteer Council, issued orders countermanding the Easter Parades. On Easter-Sunday night, April the 23rd, the prisoner Mulcahy made a voluntary statement to the District Inspector at Tralee. He told him that the prisoner who had gone to Dublin was really Sir R. Casement, that the name of the third man who landed with them at Banna was Robert Monteith, and that his own name was Daniel Julian Bailey, a private in the Royal Irish Rifles. He stated that he was taken prisoner by the Germans early in the war and that he subsequently joined the so-called Irish Brigade at the instigation of Sir R. Casement. He further deposed that he, Casement and Monteith left Wilhelmshaven in a submarine together with a German ship full of arms and ammunition bound for the Kerry coast to arm the Irish Volunteers, that there was to be a rebellion, and that the plans included an attack upon Dublin Castle. In view of the facts that the ship with arms on board [the *Aud*] had been discovered and sunk, that Sir R. Casement was a prisoner, and that Mr. McNeill had cancelled the Volunteer mobilisation, a 'rising' seemed unlikely. Owing, however, it is said to some information which reached them on Sunday night, the leaders of the movement, fearing that their Headquarters in

which they had large stores of explosives and arms would be raided by the Military and they themselves arrested, decided to overrule Mr. McNeill and launch the rebellion."—"I. O.," *Administration of Ireland, pp.* 16-18.—According to Michael Joy, in his "History of the Irish Rebellion, 1916," the document which precipitated the revolt was what purported to be a secret order, stolen from the files of Dublin Castle. This document which was declared a forgery by the authorities, was said to decree the arrest of the leaders of the Irish Volunteers, of the Citizens' Army, the Sinn Fein Council, the Gaelic League, and others.

"The first shot in the rebellion was fired shortly after noon on Easter Monday, April 24th. . . . At the Post Office was established the Headquarters of [P. H. Pearse, Commandant-in-Chief of the Army of the Republic, and President of the Provisional Government of the Irish Republic]. The colours of the Republic—a tricolour flag of green, orange and white—were flown from the flag-staff on the roof of the building, and on the door was posted a copy of the following Proclamation:—

"The Provisional Government of the Irish Republic

"To the People of Ireland

"Irishmen and Irishwomen! In the name of God and of the dead generations from which she receives the old tradition of nationhood, Ireland, through us, summons her children to her flag, and strikes for her freedom.

"Having organised and trained her manhood through her secret revolutionary organisation, the Irish Republican Brotherhood, and through her open military organisations, the Irish Volunteers and the Irish Citizen Army, having patiently perfected her discipline, having resolutely waited for the right moment to reveal itself, she now seizes that moment, and supported by her exiled children in America and by gallant allies in Europe, but relying in the first on her own strength, she strikes with full confidence of victory. We declare the right of the people of Ireland to the ownership of Ireland, and to the unfettered control of Irish destinies, to be sovereign and indefeasible. The long usurpation of that right by a foreign power and government has not extinguished the right, nor can it ever be extinguished except by the destruction of the people. In every generation the Irish people have asserted their right to National freedom and sovereignty; six times during the past three hundred years they have asserted it in arms. Standing on that fundamental right and again asserting it in arms in the face of the world, we hereby proclaim the Irish Republic as a Sovereign Independent State, and we pledge our lives and the lives of our comrades in arms to the cause of its freedom, of its welfare, and of its exaltation among the nations.

"The Irish Republic is entitled to, and hereby claims, the allegiance of every Irishman and Irishwoman. The Republic guarantees civil and religious liberty, equal rights and equal opportunities to all its citizens, and declares its resolve to pursue the happiness and prosperity of the whole nation and of all its parts, cherishing all the children of the nation equally, and oblivious of the differences carefully fostered by an alien Government, which have divided a minority from the majority in the past.

"Until our arms have brought the opportune moment for the establishment of a permanent National Government, representative of the whole people of Ireland, and elected by the suffrages of all her men and women, the Provisional Government, hereby constituted, will administer the civil and military affairs of the Republic, in trust for the people.

"We place the cause of the Irish Republic under the protection of the Most High God, Whose blessing we invoke upon our arms, and we pray that no one who serves that cause will dishonour it by cowardice, inhumanity or rapine. In this supreme hour the Irish nation must, by its valour and discipline, and by the readiness of its children to sacrifice themselves for the common good, prove itself worthy of the august destiny to which it is called.

"Signed on behalf of the Provisional Government: Thomas J. Clarke, Sean MacDiarmad, Thomas MacDonagh, P. H. Pearse, Eamonn Ceannt, James Connolly, Joseph Plunkett."—W. B. Wells and N. Marlowe, *History of the Irish rebellion of 1916, pp.* 146-149.—Plans had been well laid, and strategic points in the city were quickly taken possession of by the insurgents who, however, failed to capture the castle.

1916 (April) Irish rebellion.—"On Easter Monday, 24th April, 1916, at noon, the storm burst in Dublin, and for the following six days the City and the suburbs were the scene of grave loss of life and destruction of property. The revolution was organised by the Irish (Sinn Fein) Volunteers, and it was carried out by them with the assistance of the Citizen Army, Hibernian Rifles, and other similar bodies. Twelve o'clock in the day was the hour fixed for the beginning of the operations, and at that time or shortly afterwards bodies of armed Sinn Feiners quietly entered the buildings to which they had been assigned, turned out the occupants and took possession. Anyone who resisted was promptly shot. In this way the principal buildings in the City were captured, and the rebels at once set about erecting barricades, and taking precautions against attack. The General Post Office in Sackville Street proved to be the central fortress of the rebels. It was here that P. H. Pearse, 'the Commandant-in-Chief of the Army of the Republic and President of the Provisional Government,' established his Headquarters and issued his orders. . . . At mid-day small groups of Sinn Fein Volunteers were standing about the entrance gates [of St. Stephen's Green], and at a given signal they quietly walked inside, closed the gates, . . . [and cleared the park]. Dublin Castle, the Headquarters of the Irish Executive, was attacked by a handful of Volunteers, and had any force of Sinn Feiners joined in the attack the Castle would almost certainly have been captured, as there were only a few soldiers on duty. A policeman on duty at the Upper Castle Yard was shot . . . but the small garrison came to the rescue and the invaders were driven off. Other bodies of rebels succeeded in taking possession of buildings overlooking the approaches to the Upper Castle Yard. In this way the offices of the 'Daily Express' and 'Evening Mail' were entered, and the staff turned out at the point of the bayonet. The City Hall, the rear of which commands the offices of the Chief Secretary's Department, the Prisons Board and other Government Offices, was also filled with snipers. . . . All the points in the City which were considered of strategical importance having been occupied by the rebels, their plans were further developed by the taking possession of positions controlling the approaches from military barracks. The Four Courts were early in their hands, and men were posted all over the

building to attack troops which might approach along the quays from the direction of Phœnix Park. The Four Courts Hotel, which adjoins the Courts, was garrisoned. . . . Strong barricades were erected [over railway bridges in the north side]. Liberty Hall was strongly held by the rebels, but the Custom House was left unmolested. Across the river, on the South side, Boland's Mill was fortified in every possible manner, and constituted a stronghold of great strategical importance. Round by Northumberland Road, Pembroke Road, and Lansdowne Road, private houses were occupied and garrisoned to resist the approach of reinforcements for the military from the Kingstown direction. Portobello Bridge, which commands the approach to the City from the military barracks at that place, was the scene of a short but severe fight shortly after mid-day on Monday. . . . The South Dublin Union in James's Street and a distillery in Marrowbone Lane were two other strong points in the Sinn Fein plan. The workhouse was attacked by the Military on Monday, and after a stiff fight, during which many casualties occurred on both sides, the remnant of the rebel garrison was driven into one part of the premises, where they maintained their struggle until Sunday. Jacob's Biscuit Factory in Bishop Street, though it does not occupy a strategical position of any importance, was filled with foodstuffs of various descriptions, and probably in this respect it was deemed necessary to instal in it a large garrison. . . . The foregoing are the outlines of the position on the evening of the first day of the rebellion. . . . On the following day, 25th April, Martial Law was proclaimed in the City and County of Dublin. On the 26th the whole of Ireland was placed under the same régime. The country generally remained quiet, and in only four counties—Dublin, Louth, Galway East and West Ridings, and Wexford—did the Volunteers rise up in arms. In a few others destructive acts were committed, obviously intended to further the rising. . . . The fighting strength of the troops available in Dublin at the moment was:—6th Reserve Cavalry Regiment: 35 officers, 851 other ranks; 3rd Royal Irish Regiment: 18 officers, 385 other ranks; 10th Royal Dublin Fusiliers: 37 officers, 430 other ranks; 3rd Royal Irish Rifles: 21 officers, 650 other ranks. . . . The first objectives undertaken by the troops were to recover possession of the Magazine in Phœnix Park, where the rebels had set fire to a quantity of ammunition; to relieve the Castle; and to strengthen the guards at the Viceregal Lodge and other points of importance. . . . The situation at midnight on Monday, the 24th, was that the Military held the Magazine, Phœnix Park, the Castle, and the Ship Street entrance to it, the Royal Hospital, all barracks, the Kingsbridge, Amiens Street and North Wall Railway Stations, the Dublin Telephone Exchange, . . . the Electric Power Station, . . . Trinity College, Mountjoy Prison, and Kingstown Harbour. The Sinn Feiners held Sackville Street and blocks of buildings on each side of this, including Liberty Hall, with their Headquarters at the General Post Office, the Four Courts, Jacob's Biscuit Factory, South Dublin Union, St. Stephen's Green, [i. e., the center of the city] all the approaches to the Castle except Ship Street entrance, and many houses all over the City, especially about Ballsbridge and Beggar's Bush. On April 25th Brigadier-General W. H. M. Lowe, . . . [arrived] with the leading troops from the 25th (Irish) Reserve Infantry Brigade, and assumed command of the forces in the Dublin area. These forces were, roughly, 2,300 men of the Dublin garrison, the Curragh mobile column of 1,500 dismounted cavalrymen, and 840 men of the 25th Irish Reserve Infantry Brigade. . . . [Communication with the castle was established by noon on April 25th, by a line of posts from Kingsbridge station to Trinity College.] It divided the rebel forces in two, gave a safe line of advance for troops extending operations to the north or south, and permitted communication by despatch-rider with some of the commands. . . . During the day the 4th Royal Dublin Fusiliers from Templemore, a composite Ulster Battalion from Belfast, and a battery of four 18-pounders from the Reserve Artillery Brigade at Athlone arrived, and this enabled a cordon to be established round the northern part of the City . . . to North Wall. Broadstone Railway Station was cleared of rebels, and a barricade near Phibsborough was destroyed by artillery fire. As a heavy fire on the Castle was being kept up by the rebels located in the Corporation Buildings, 'Daily Express' office, and several houses opposite the City Hall, it was decided to attack these buildings. The assault on the 'Daily Express' office was successfully carried out under very heavy fire by a detachment of the 5th Royal Dublin Fusiliers. The main forces of the rebels having now been located in and around Sackville Street, the Four Courts, and adjoining buildings, it was decided to try to enclose that area north of the Liffey by a cordon of troops, so as to localise as far as possible the efforts of the rebels. Towards evening the 178th Infantry Brigade began to arrive. At about 5.30 p. m. orders were received that the advance to Trinity College was to be pushed forward. [One column was held up on its way to Trinity College, and in overcoming the opposition to its advance, 4 officers were killed, 14 wounded, and of other ranks 216 were killed and wounded.] . . . Meanwhile severe fighting had taken place in the Sackville Street quarter. At 8 a. m. Liberty Hall, the former headquarters of the Citizen Army, was attacked by field guns from the South bank of the River Liffey and by a gun from the patrol ship 'Helga,' with the result that considerable progress was made. During the night of the 26-27th April several fires broke out in this quarter and threatened to become dangerous as the fire brigade could not get to work owing to its being fired upon by the rebels. . . . Throughout the night the process of driving out the rebels in and around Sackville Street continued, though these operations were greatly hampered by the fires in this area and by the fact that some of the burning houses contained rebel stores of explosives which every now and again blew up. In other parts of the City the troops had a trying time dealing with the numerous snipers, who became very troublesome during the hours of darkness. Owing to the considerable opposition at barricades, especially in North King Street, it was not until 9 a. m. on 29th April that the Four Courts area was completely surrounded. Throughout the morning the squeezing out of the surrounded areas was vigorously proceeded with, the infantry being greatly assisted by a battery of Field Artillery; the guns being used against the buildings held by the rebels with such good effect that a Red Cross Nurse brought in a message from the rebel leader, P. H. Pearse, asking for terms. A reply was sent that only unconditional surrender would be accepted. At 2 p. m. Pearse surrendered himself unconditionally, and was brought before Sir John Maxwell, when he wrote and signed notices ordering the various

'Commandoes' to surrender unconditionally. During the evening the greater part of the rebels in the Sackville Street and Four Courts area surrendered. Early on the 30th April two Franciscan monks informed Sir John Maxwell that . . . MacDonagh, declining to accept Pearse's orders, wished to negotiate. He was informed that only unconditional surrender would be accepted, and at 3 p. m., when all preparations for an attack on Jacob's Biscuit Factory, which he held, had been made, MacDonagh . . . surrendered unconditionally. These surrenders practically ended the rebellion in the City of Dublin."—"I. O.," *Administration of Ireland, pp.* 21-27, 31-40.—The proclamation of martial law had put the trial of the participators in the rising in the hands of the military authorities. Courts martial were held, and fifteen of the leaders were condemned and executed. Of these P. H. Pearse, Thomas MacDonagh, Joseph Plunkett, Edmund Kent, Thomas J. Clarke, James Connolly and John McDermott had signed the proclamation. Seventy-five cases were committed to penal servitude for varying terms, twenty-three received short sentences of imprisonment with hard labor and 1,841 prisoners (including five women) were interned in England. The first effect of the rebellion in Ireland was one of anger at its foolishness; but the feeling soon wore off, and the pendulum began to swing toward Sinn Fein. Various theories were advanced to account for this change, including the elation produced by a visit from the premier, Herbert Asquith. There is no doubt, however, that the execution of the prisoners, and especially of Pearse, Plunkett and Connolly, had a great effect. Greater still was the dread of conscription, and strongest of all the belief, amounting to knowledge, that the hands of the British government were tied by the now almost universally held theory of the rights of small nations. Immediately after the surrender of Dublin, troops were sent to the other parts of the country where fighting had taken place, or where it was anticipated. "On the 27th April, . . . a detachment was sent . . . to Arklow to reinforce the garrison at Kynoch's Explosive Works, and a small party was sent to assist the R. I. C. [Royal Irish Constabulary] post over the wireless station at Skerries. On the 28th April a battalion of the Sherwood Foresters was despatched by rail to Athlone to protect the artillery and military stores there and to hold the communication over the River Shannon. . . . In other parts of Ireland similar attacks on police posts had been made by armed bands of Sinn Feiners. In order to deal with these, as soon as the Dublin rebels had been crushed, I organised various mobile columns. . . . Each column was allotted a definite area, which, in close co-operation with the local police, was gone through."—*Report of General Sir J. G. Maxwell, commander-in-chief of the forces in Ireland.*

1916 (May).—Resignation of secretary for Ireland.—On May 3, the sitting of the House of Commons "was chiefly devoted to Mr Birrell's apology for his share of responsibility in the unhappy state of affairs which had arisen. He confessed frankly that he had made an untrue estimate of the Sinn-Fein movement. . . . As soon as the insurrection was over (on May 1), he had placed his resignation in the hands of the Prime Minister who had accepted it, 'no other course being open to me or to him.' Mr. Birrell then made some reference to the innumerable criticisms of which he had been the subject. 'The error which I have admitted,' he said, 'which has had great and terrible consequences has not proceeded from any lack of thought or of anxiety. If my critics want to make me wince, and I can do that much better for myself than they can do it for me, they must change their tack.' He had subordinated everything in order to maintain unbroken the front of Ireland towards the enemies of the Empire, and in that work he had been gallantly assisted by Mr. Redmond. He had run grave and considerable risks, but what would have been the consequence if he had tackled the Sinn-Fein movement earlier? The insurrection had been no Irish rebellion, and he hoped it would not be associated with past rebellions in the minds of the Irish people."—*Annual Register,* 1916, *pp.* 121-122.

1916 (May-July).—Commission appointed to inquire into the Easter rebellion.—Resignation of lord-lieutenant.—"In the course of a debate in the House of Lords on May 10, Lord Crewe announced the resignation of the Lord-Lieutenant (Lord Wimborne) and stated that a Commission of Inquiry had been appointed, consisting of Lord Hardinge of Penshurst, Sir Montague Shearman, a Judge of the High Court, and Sir Mackenzie Chalmers. . . . The Royal Commission . . . held its first meeting on May 18. . . . Its report was published on July 3, within seven weeks of its appointment. In the course of this report . . . many remarkable quotations were given from confidential reports by the heads of the Royal Irish Constabulary and the Dublin Metropolitan Police to show that even before the outbreak of war (in 1914) full knowledge of the state of affairs was supplied to the Irish Government. . . . The Commissioners sharply criticised the Government policy of inaction in the face of these repeated warnings, and said that even at the risk of a collision early steps should have been taken to arrest and prosecute the leaders of sedition. They acquitted the Lord-Lieutenant (Lord Wimborne) of responsibility, and expressed the opinion that the Chief Secretary (Mr. Birrell) was primarily responsible for the outbreak. 'The main cause of the rebellion,' they said, 'appears to be that lawlessness was allowed to grow up unchecked; and that Ireland, for several years past, has been administered on the principle that it was safer and more expedient to leave law in abeyance if collision with any faction of the Irish people could thereby be avoided.' . . . Although fastening responsibility upon Mr. Birrell, the Commissioners remarked that the policy of the Chief Secretary was the policy of the British Government as a whole. They credited Sir Matthew Nathan, the Under-Secretary, with complete loyalty to the Government policy, but expressed the opinion that he had not sufficiently impressed on Mr. Birrell the need of more active measures to put down sedition."—*Annual Register,* 1916, *pp.* 128, 138-139.

ALSO IN: F. P. Jones, *History of the Sinn Fein movement, and Irish rebellion, pp.* 239-386.—J. Stephens, *Insurrection in Dublin.*

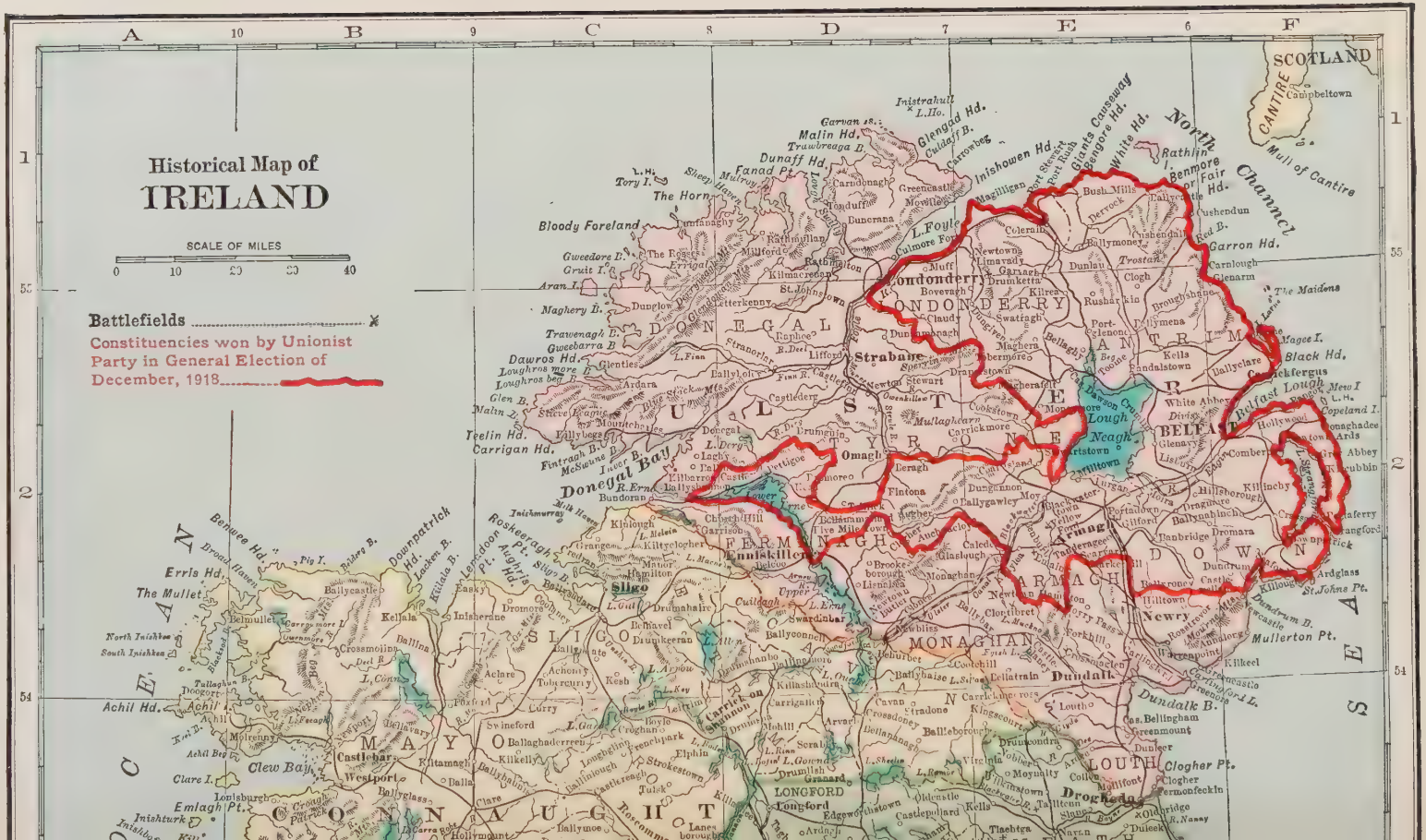
1916 (June-August).—Trial of Casement.—Sentence.—Efforts for commutation.—Execution.—British government statement.—"Casement was brought to trial (before the Lord Chief Justice) at the Royal Courts of Justice, London, on June 26. His prosecutor was the Attorney-General, Sir F. E. Smith, one of the men who had been most prominently identified with the organization of the Carson [Ulster] Volunteers.

Evidence was given of Casement's arrest in Ireland after his landing from the German submarine, and of the propaganda he had carried on amongst the Irish prisoners of war in Germany with the intention of forming them into an Irish brigade to join the Irish Volunteers. Most of this evidence was given by a man named Daniel Julian Bailey, formerly a soldier in the English army [and prisoner of war in Germany], who had joined Casement's Irish Brigade. This man went to Ireland with Casement in the submarine, and, on his arrest, turned King's evidence against Casement. Casement was tried under a statute of Edward III. . . . His counsel, including Mr. Francis Doyle of America, made a determined fight for the prisoner. The main plea in favor of the prisoner was that he was being illegally tried under the statute, as his offense, if any, was not committed within the realm of England, as charged in the bill of accusation. When the jury had returned a verdict of guilty, Casement was asked if he had anything to say as to why sentence of death should not be passed upon him. His speech from the dock will forever rank with Emmet's as a most eloquent statement of Ireland's case as against England."—F. P. Jones, *History of the Sinn Fein movement, pp.* 426-427. —"The melancholy tragedy of Sir Roger Casement, one of the moving spirits in the Irish revolt, ended with his death on the gallows at Pentonville Prison [London] at 9 o'clock Thursday morning, Aug. 3. . . . Earnest efforts were made to secure a commutation of Sir Roger Casement's sentence. The Senate of the United States passed a resolution asking that clemency be exercised. Pope Benedict also interceded on his behalf, and an impressive petition to this effect was presented, signed by the most distinguished Catholic and Protestant clergymen and laymen of the United Kingdom. The British Government, through Lord Robert Cecil, issued the following formal statement regarding the execution: 'No doubt of Casement's guilt exists. No one doubts that the court and jury arrived at the right verdict. The only ground for a reprieve would be political expediency, a difficult ground to put forward in this country. This country never could strain the law to punish a man for the same reason that it could not strain the law to let one off. The Irish rebellion began with the murder of unarmed people, both soldiers and police. No grievance justified it, and it was purely a political movement organized by a small section of Irish people who still hate England and were assisted by Germany. There was and is in this country the greatest possible indignation against these people. There is no doubt that Casement did everything possible to assist this rebellion in co-operation with the Germans. There can be no doubt that he was moved by enmity for this country. The contention that he landed in Ireland for the purpose of preventing the rebellion is demonstrably false. No such assertion was made by counsel at the trial. Casement was much more malignant and hostile to this country than were the leaders of the rising, who were caught with arms in their hands. He visited military prisons in Germany with the intention of persuading Irish soldiers to throw off their allegiance. All sorts of promises were made for the improvement of the conditions of these men to induce them to join the Irish legion. An enormous majority thus approached refused and thereafter were subjected to increased hardships by the Germans. From among these Irish soldiers a number have since been repatriated as hopeless invalids, and they subsequently died. They looked upon Casement as their murderer.' "—*New York Times Current History, Sept.*, 1916, *pp.* 1025-1026.

Also in: W. B. Wells and N. Marlowe, *History of the Irish rebellion of 1916.*

1917.—By-elections.—Sinn Fein convention declares for separation.—Announcement of proposed Constituent Convention.—"At the end of 1916, it may be said, the two conflicting tendencies which were to dominate Irish politics during the following year had begun to disclose themselves. On the one hand the release of the interned prisoners . . . in fact laid the first foundations for the growth of a militant Sinn Fein policy, which was shortly to express itself as irreconcilably opposed to a constitutional settlement. On the other hand, the release of the prisoners was by a few days anticipated by the first suggestion of what, in contrast with the Sinn Fein policy, may be called the Convention policy. Shortly before Christmas there appeared inconspicuously in the Dublin newspapers, and with little more than perfunctory notice in their editorial columns, a circular issued by the 'Irish Conference Committee' [and signed by Dermod O'Brien, president of the Royal Hibernian Academy]. In the formation of this body, and the issue of its circular, which was addressed to the Chairman of the County Councils and other public bodies in Ireland, the idea first took coherent shape of an attempt to solve the problem of Irish government by means of a Conference based on the precedent of those which secured the passage of the Wyndham Land Act, and the establishment of the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for Ireland. . . . It was to be some months, however, before the Convention idea took formal shape. In the meantime the political history of Ireland is largely the history of the growth and development of the opposing Sinn Fein idea, which, by a reflex action, was finally to become the most powerful contributory cause among the influences making for the Convention policy. . . . Mr. Arthur Griffith soon resumed the publication of *Nationality* in advocacy of the practical 'Hungarian' plan of abstention from Parliament and passive resistance to Imperial authority in Ireland. . . . The question of recruiting remained in the foreground of Irish affairs during this period. The Irish Unionist Party continued to urge conscription. . . . The introduction of the (voluntary) National Service Bill, which applied to Ireland despite the protests of the Nationalist Party, was widely regarded as the 'thin end of the wedge,' and increased the tension in Ireland over the conscription question. The first opportunity for Sinn Fein to show its strength came early in 1917, . . . [in North Roscommon in the by-election]. Count Plunkett, father of one of the executed signatories of the Irish Republican Proclamation of Easter, 1916, was put forward as Sinn Fein candidate. . . . [Count Plunkett headed the poll] with 3,022 votes—a clear majority over both of his opponents, of whom Mr. Devine [Nationalist] obtained, 1,708 votes and Mr. Tully [Independent Nationalist] 687. The result of the election came as a great surprise to the public, but it was not generally accepted as a true test of the strength of Sinn Fein as an active force in Irish politics. . . . At the end of February, . . . a number of arrests were suddenly made in Dublin and throughout the provinces under Regulation 53 of the Defence of the Realm Regulations,

which impowered the arrest of any person . . . [suspected of acting] 'in a manner prejudicial to the public safety or to the defence of the realm.' The persons concerned—twenty-eight in all, some of them lately interned, others hitherto untouched, including some prominent Gaelic Leaguers—were prohibited from residing in Ireland and given free choice of their place of residence in England. The arrests were understood to be related to a renewed attempt to run arms on the West Coast of Ireland, and to effect a test mobilisation of the Irish Volunteers in connection with it. . . . The arrests apparently precipitated open conflict between the Nationalist Party and the Government. On March 7th Mr. T. P. O'Connor moved a resolution [in the House of Commons, asking in effect for immediate operation of the Home Rule Act. In reply Lloyd George declared that] . . . the Government were prepared to confer Self-Government on those parts of Ireland which unmistakably demanded it; but they were not prepared to coerce the North-East portion of Ireland. He moved an amendment welcoming any settlement which would conduce to a better understanding between Ireland and the rest of the United Kingdom, but declaring it impossible to impose by force on any part of Ireland a form of government which had not its consent. Mr. Redmond solemnly protested against the Prime Minister's statement. . . . Finally he called upon his colleagues to withdraw, and the Nationalist Party in a body thereupon marched out of House. Subsequently the Party drafted and issued a Manifesto to the United States and the Dominions. It declared that 'the action of the British Government since the formation of the Coalition in May, 1915, culminating in the speech of the Prime Minister last night, has made the task of carrying on a Constitutional Movement in Ireland so difficult as to be almost impossible.' It described Mr. Lloyd George's speech as taking up a position, which, if adhered to, would involve the denial of Self-Government to Ireland for ever. [It concluded by calling on men of Irish blood in the dominions and the United States of America to bring pressure on the British Government to act towards Ireland in accordance with the principles for which they are fighting in Europe, "and we specially appeal to the American people to urge the duty of applying" the principles to President Wilson.] Almost simultaneously Sinn Fein had made a forward movement. Count Plunkett addressed a circular letter to the public bodies throughout Ireland inviting them to nominate delegates to attend a conference to be held in the Mansion House, Dublin, on April 19th. In this document he stated that he had been returned by North Roscommon to recognise no foreign authority in Ireland, to maintain the right of Ireland to independence, and to initiate Ireland's work of taking control of her own affairs. To bring that affirmation of the national faith and national will to a practical issue it was necessary to organise the whole country. Ireland should at once establish her own council. The first of its duties would be to address itself to the Peace Conference with a view to obtaining the support of the nations which would be represented there. . . . The reception of the letter could give no trustworthy indication of the support which the Sinn Fein policy enjoyed in the country, in view of the fact that, owing to the suspension of elections, the public bodies had largely ceased to be representative. In some places Count Plunkett's letter was burned; in many it was simply marked 'read.' Nevertheless a sufficient number of public bodies appointed delegates to invest the proceedings of the first Sinn Fein Convention with some authority. It was held some ten days after the Easter Monday which marked the first anniversary of the outbreak of the Rebellion in Dublin. The anniversary was attended by a good deal of excitement in the capital and throughout the country. As a measure of precaution, assembly and procession were forbidden in Dublin by the Commander-in-Chief, Sir Bryan Mahon. . . . During the afternoon and evening [of Easter Monday] some rioting occurred, though not of a serious character. In Cork and elsewhere demonstrations were attended by some disorder. On April 19th the Sinn Fein Convention met and between five and six hundred delegates assembled from elective Bodies, labour organisations, and Sinn Fein clubs, including about a hundred priests. The Convention endorsed the following declarations:—'(1) That we proclaim Ireland to be a separate nation. (2) That we assert Ireland's right to freedom from all foreign control, denying the authority of any foreign Parliament to make laws for Ireland. (3) That we affirm the right of the Irish people to declare their will as law and enforce their decisions in their own land without let or hindrance from any other country. (4) That, maintaining the status of Ireland, we demand representation at the coming Peace Conference. (5) That it is the duty of the nations taking part in the Peace Conference to guarantee the liberty of the nations calling for their intervention and the releasing of the small nations from control of the greater Powers. (6) That our claim to complete independence is founded on human right and the law of nations. (7) That we declare that Ireland has never yielded to, but has always fought against, foreign rule. (8) That we hereby bind ourselves to use every means in our power to attain complete liberty for our country.' After these declarations steps were taken to effect a national organisation 'to unite Irish advanced opinion and provide for action as a result of its conclusion.' . . . Ireland now awaited the disclosure of the Government's scheme of settlement, . . . [which], despite energetic Nationalist pressure in Parliament, was repeatedly postponed. It was, in fact, not forthcoming until May 16th. Meanwhile rumours . . . [began to circulate to the effect that the government's plan included the] 'partition' scheme, this time in the shape of a system of county option. . . . Early in May, a remarkable document appeared in the Irish Press addressed to the people of Ireland. It was signed by Cardinal Logue and Archbishop Walsh of Dublin, sixteen other Roman Catholic Bishops, and three Protestant Bishops—those of Tuam, Ossory and Killaloe. Such collaboration between the bishops of the two Churches was quite unprecedented in the political history of Ireland. The Bishops' Manifesto declared that, while of sectional and individual protests against the dismemberment of Ireland there had been an immense volume, 'there is still wanting the national muster-roll of adherents to the principle of an Ireland one and undivided.' It proceeded:—'We appeal to the people without distinction, religious or political, and we ask all who are opposed to partition, temporary or permanent, to send their names. . . . An appeal to the national conscience on the question of Ireland's dismemberment should meet with one answer and one answer alone. To Irishmen of every creed and class and party the very


Historical Map of
IRELAND
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 30 40
Battlefields
Constituencies won by Unionist Party in General Election of December, 1918
SCOTLAND
North Channel
Irish Sea
Donegal Bay
Clew Bay
Londonderry
Strabane
Omagh
Enniskillen
Sligo
Castlebar
Westport
Ballina
Carrick-on-Shannon
Longford
Belfast
Lough Neagh
Newry
Dundalk
Drogheda
Clogher Pt.
Mullerton Pt.
Dundalk B.
Mull of Cantire
Inishowen Hd.
Malin Hd.
Bloody Foreland
Fanad Pt.
Dunaff Hd.
Glengad Hd.
Giants Causeway
Garron Hd.
Black Hd.
Achil Hd.
Erris Hd.
The Mullet
Benwee Hd.
Downpatrick Hd.
Emlagh Pt.
Clare I.
Inishturk
Achil
DONEGAL
LONDONDERRY
TYRONE
FERMANAGH
ARMAGH
DOWN
ANTRIM
LEITRIM
SLIGO
MAYO
GALWAY
ROSCOMMON
LONGFORD
MONAGHAN
LOUTH
BELFAST

ATLANTIC
Mace Hd.
St. Macdara
Golam Hd.
Galway Bay
Black Hd.
Islands of Aran
Inishmaan
Inishmore
Hags Hd.
Mal Bay
Mutton I.
Dunbeg B.
Donegal Pt.
Kilkee
Loop Hd.
Kerry Hd.
Brandon B.
Brandon Hd.
Mt. Brandon
Smerwick Har.
Dingle Bay
Dunmore Hd.
Valencia I.
Bray Hd.
Bolus Hd.
Kenmare R.
Cods Hd.
Dursey I.
Bull Iks.
Bantry Bay
Sheep Hd.
Mizen Hd.
Crook Haven
Long Island B.
Cape Clear
C. Clear I.
Sharkin I.
Baltimore
Toe Hd.
Castletownsend
Dhrombir Har.
Gally Hd.
Clonakilty B.
Seven Hds.
Courtmacsherry B.
Old Hd. of Kinsale
Kinsale Har.
Bary Hd.
Cork Harbour
Ram Hd.
Ardmore B.
Youghal B.
Knockadoon Hd.
Dungarvan B.
Helvick Hd.
Hook Hd.
Tramore B.
Waterford Harbour
Dunmore B.
Ballyteige B.
Tuskar Rk.
Carnsore Pt
Greenore Pt.
Wexford B.
Wexford Haven
Cahore Pt.
Mizen Hd.
Wicklow Hd.
Kilmichael Pt.
Lough Derg
Lough Graney
Shannon R.
River Shannon
Galway
Ennis
Limerick
Tralee
Killarney
Dingle
Mallow
Tipperary
Clonmel
Cashel
Carrick
Fethard
Kilkenny
Waterford
Dungarvan
Cork
Queenstown
Youghal
Kinsale
Bantry
Skibbereen
Clonakilty
Enniscorthy
Wexford
Carlow
Naas
Kildare
Athy
Monasterevin
Portarlington
Tullamore
Philipstown
Edenderry
Clane
Celbridge
Rathcoole
Tallaght
Dublin Bay
Kingstown
Dalkey Is.
Bray
Wicklow
Rathdrum
Arklow
Gorey
Ballycanew
Riverchapel
Monamolin
Ferns
Camolin
Ballymurn
Gowran
Bennettsbridge
Thomastown
Callan
Inistioge
Mullinahone
Newmarket
Knocktopher
Boolyglass
Roslercon
Ballyhale
Ballyragget
Durrow
Abbeyleix
Ballinakill
Castlecomer
Leighlin Br.
Clogrennan
Tullow
Hacketstown
Rathdangan
Ballinaclash
Rathdrum
Redcross
Aughrim
Shillelagh
Coolgreany
Tinahely
Timolin
Baltinglass
Stradbally
Kilcullen
Newbridge
Blessington
Kippure
Donard
Laragh
Glendalough
Newton Mt. Kennedy
Castlekevin
Aghfordd
Ballinasloe
Portumna
Abbeyville
Terryglass
Parsonstown
Birr or
Frankford
Clonaslee
Mountmellick
Portlaoise
Killeigh
Annaghmore
Clonbullogue
Edenderry
Kilcock
Enfield
Clonard
Rathcoffey
Maynooth
Celbridge
Lucan
Clondalkin
Rathfarnham
Dublin
Howth
Malahide
Swords
Balbriggan
Skerries
Rush
Lusk
Donabate
Portrane
Ireland's Eye
Howth Hd.
Lambay I.
Dublin B.
Kish Bk.
Bray Hd.
Wicklow Hd.
Arklow B.
Blackwater R.
Slaney R.
Barrow R.
Nore R.
Suir R.
Blackwater
Youghal
Lismore
Cappoquin
Dungarvan
Tallow
Lismore
Fermoy
Mitchellstown
Kilworth
Mallow
Millstreet
Rathmore
Killarney
Tralee
Listowel
Ballybunion
Kilrush
Carrigaholt
Kilkee
Miltown Malbay
Ennis
Ennistymon
Lahinch
Lisdoonvarna
Kilfenora
Corofin
Ballyvaughan
Kinvarra
Oranmore
Athenry
Loughrea
Kilconnel
Aughrim
Ballinasloe
Portumna
Birr
Roscrea
Templemore
Thurles
Cashel
Golden
Tipperary
Clonmel
Carrick
Fethard
Callan
Kilkenny
Castlecomer
Abbeyleix
Portlaoise
Mountmellick
Tullamore
Philipstown
Edenderry
Clane
Naas
Kildare
Athy
Monasterevin
Portarlington
Killeigh
Annaghmore
Clonbullogue
Rathangan
Monasterevin
Carbery's Hundred Kts.
Old Hd. of Kinsale
Seven Hds.
Courtmacsherry B.
Gally Hd.
Clonakilty B.
Dhrombir Har.
Castletownsend
Toe Hd.
Baltimore
Sharkin I.
C. Clear I.
Cape Clear
Long Island B.
Crook Haven
Mizen Hd.
Sheep Hd.
Bantry Bay
Bear I.
Bull Iks.
Dursey I.
Cods Hd.
Quoylach B.
Scariff I.
Scariff B.
Kenmare R.
Bolus Hd.
St. Finan B.
Bray Hd.
Valencia I.
Dingle Bay
Dunmore Hd.
Brandon Hd.
Brandon B.
Kerry Hd.
Loop Hd.
Donegal Pt.
Mutton I.
Dunbeg B.
Mal Bay
Hags Hd.
Islands of Aran
Inishmaan
Inishmore
Galway Bay
Black Hd.
Mace Hd.
St. Macdara
Golam Hd.
Castla B.
Lough Derg
Lough Graney
Shannon R.
River Shannon
Galway
Ennis
Limerick
Tralee
Killarney
Dingle
Mallow
Tipperary
Clonmel
Cashel
Carrick
Fethard
Kilkenny
Waterford
Dungarvan
Cork
Queenstown
Youghal
Kinsale
Bantry
Skibbereen
Clonakilty
Enniscorthy
Wexford
Carlow
Naas
Kildare
Athy
Monasterevin
Portarlington
Tullamore
Philipstown
Edenderry
Clane
Celbridge
Rathcoole
Tallaght
Dublin Bay
Kingstown
Dalkey Is.
Bray
Wicklow
Rathdrum
Arklow
Gorey
Ballycanew
Riverchapel
Monamolin
Ferns
Camolin
Ballymurn
Gowran
Bennettsbridge
Thomastown
Callan
Inistioge
Mullinahone
Newmarket
Knocktopher
Boolyglass
Roslercon
Ballyhale
Ballyragget
Durrow
Abbeyleix
Ballinakill
Castlecomer
Leighlin Br.
Clogrennan
Tullow
Hacketstown
Rathdangan
Ballinaclash
Rathdrum
Redcross
Aughrim
Shillelagh
Coolgreany
Tinahely
Timolin
Baltinglass
Stradbally
Kilcullen
Newbridge
Blessington
Kippure
Donard
Laragh
Glendalough
Newton Mt. Kennedy
Castlekevin
Aghfordd
Ballinasloe
Portumna
Abbeyville
Terryglass
Parsonstown
Birr or
Frankford
Clonaslee
Mountmellick
Portlaoise

thought of our country partitioned and torn, as a new Poland, must be one of heartrending sorrow. In asking these names we have no ulterior object in view, and we give an assurance that they shall be used only to show to the Government and to the world that the country is unrelentingly opposed to partition.' On May 8 a letter from Archbishop Walsh appeared in the Nationalist evening papers. In this letter he spoke of partition as holding a leading place in the practical politics of the day, and in a postscript added that he had reason to believe that the country had already been sold. Immediately after came the election in South Longford . . . [upon which the Archbishop's letter had a strong influence]. The contest was a straight fight between the two parties; the Nationalists were represented by Mr. Patrick McKenna, while the Sinn Feiners had selected as their candidate Mr. J. P. McGuinnes, a local man who was serving a Court-Martial sentence of penal servitude in connection with the Rebellion. The Nationalist strength in the constituency was known to be great, and the Sinn Feiners freely declared that if they could carry South Longford they could carry any seat in Ireland. The Nationalist leaders, Mr. Dillon and Mr. Devlin, intervened in person on behalf of Mr. McKenna, in whose support the whole force of the Nationalist organisation was concentrated in the constituency. The result of the polling, declared on May 10, showed that the Sinn Fein candidate had won by the narrow majority of thirty-seven votes. . . .

"The result of the election determined absolutely the reception of the Government's plan of settlement, published . . [May 16, in] a circular letter addressed by Mr. Lloyd George to Mr. John Redmond (Nationalist), Sir John Lonsdale (Ulster Unionist Party), Mr. William O'Brien (All-for-Ireland Party), and Viscount Midleton (for the Unionists of the South and West). The Prime Minister wrote that the government approached the subject 'with a deep desire to put an end to a state of affairs which is productive of immense evil, not only to Ireland, but to Great Britain and the Empire'; that any settlement proposed during the war must be one which would be substantially accepted by both sides, and that therefore 'the idea of the Government has been to try to effect an immediate settlement conceding the largest possible measure of Home Rule which can be secured by agreement at this moment, without prejudice to the undertaking by Parliament of a further and final settlement of the questions most in dispute after the war.' The Government's proposals to this end, which were at once found unacceptable, need not be recorded at length. . . . After setting forth this scheme the Prime Minister . . . proposed the Convention plan. 'There remains an alternative plan which, though it has been sometimes seriously discussed, has never been authoritatively proposed—that of assembling a Convention of Irishmen of all parties for the purpose of providing a scheme of Irish Self-Government. . . . The Government is ready, in default of the adoption of its proposals for Home Rule, to take the necessary steps for the assembling of such a Convention. Mr. Redmond, in his reply, at once rejected the Government's scheme and welcomed the alternative proposal of a Convention. . . . Viscount Midleton . . . undertook to recommend the acceptance of the Convention plan on condition that it was fully representative and that its recommendations were subject to review by Parliament. The Irish Unionist Alliance subsequently ratified his acceptance. Mr. William O'Brien . . . welcomed the proposal of a Convention as giving effect to 'a principle we have so long contended for.' Subsequently, however, he refused to agree to the constitution of the Convention, and the All-for-Ireland Party took no part in it. . . . At a meeting of the Executive of the National Council of Sinn Fein, held on May 22nd, it was unanimously resolved that Sinn Fein should decline to participate 'in any Convention called by the English Government in Ireland, ostensibly to settle the Irish question, unless (1) the terms of reference to such a Convention left it free to decree the complete independence of Ireland; (2) the English Government publicly pledged itself to the United States and the Powers of Europe to ratify the decision of the majority of the Convention; (3) the Convention consist of none but persons freely elected by adult suffrage in Ireland; (4) prisoners of war treatment was accorded to the Irish prisoners at Lewes and Aylesbury.' . . . The Prime Minister, however, had awaited no party's formal definition of its attitude. . . . On May 21st he announced that the Government proposed 'to summon immediately, on behalf of the Crown, a Convention of representative Irishmen, in Ireland, to submit to the British Government and to the British Parliament a Constitution for the future government of Ireland within the Empire.'" —W. B. Wells and N. Marlowe, *Irish convention and Sinn Fein, pp.* 23-25, 29-30, 32-36, 38-39, 41-43.

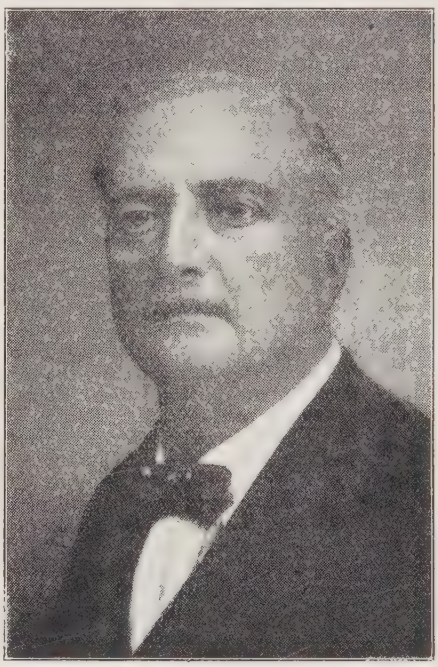
1917-1918. — Irish convention. — "Immediately before the assembly of the Convention an addition was made to the Defence of the Realm Regulations declaring it to be unlawful for anyone to violate the secrecy of its proceedings. The prohibition covered both printed publication and public speaking, and forbade any report or statement which described or purported to describe its proceedings, or referred to them, except reports or statements officially authorised by the Chairman. It was generally recognised by the friends of the Convention that this prohibition was necessary if its work was not to be hampered, perhaps fatally, by public debate on its proceedings, though on the other hand the secrecy involved a certain atrophy of political thought in Ireland which gave larger scope to the Sinn Fein propaganda."—W. B. Wells and N. Marlowe, *Irish convention and Sinn Fein, pp.* 99-100. —The first meeting was held in Dublin on July 25, 1917, and the following day adjournment was made to August 8 to permit of the collection of information and drafting of schemes. During the latter part of 1917 and the beginning of 1918 sittings of the convention were held; but it became increasingly evident that no agreement would be reached, especially after the death of John Redmond. Debate in the convention was "mainly occupied with the taxing power. Ulster's objection to Home Rule, in so far as it was not based on the impossibility of putting Ulster Protestants under a Parliament in which Catholics would have the majority, revealed itself as one concerning taxation. At this moment Ulstermen had begun to recognise that wealth actually existed outside of Ulster; but Ulster was still enormously impressed with the strength and solidity of its own financial position, and of its general forwardness as compared with the backwardness of the rest of the country. Fear was indicated that Ulster's taxes would be made a milch cow to feed schemes of social and industrial development

in those backward regions. The governing assumption was that Ulster would remain permanently more solvent than the Catholic counties. Over and above this was the argument repeatedly enforced, that Irish policy, as outlined by the most representative minds in Southern Ireland, contemplated protection against English competition; that any difference in the indirect taxation of Great Britain involved a tariff barrier and customs frontier; and that any such arrangement would be ruinous to Ulster's commerce. It was held essential to Ulster's prosperity that there should be unfettered freedom of exchange between the two countries; Ulstermen were not prepared to put their business interests at the mercy of an Irish Chancellor of the Exchequer who might be more zealous to bolster up nascent industries in the South and West than to safeguard those existing in the Protestant North. Between this view and that of the Nationalist majority, which contended that a Parliament must be the sole taxing authority in its own area, there seemed to be no common meeting ground; yet a section in the Convention, representing the old landlord interest in the South and the wealthy Protestant business and professional community, set itself to the task of making a bridge. Lord Midleton [a Unionist] proposed a scheme which contemplated an Irish Parliament with powers limited only by the exclusion of what belongs to naval and military administration and to the Foreign Office. But the fixing of customs duties was from his point of view an affair touching the sphere of foreign relations, since such taxes may be the subject of treaties. Discussion was behind closed doors; but the controversy became public. Ulster's spokesmen made it clear that they would not accept the proposed compromise. It became then a question whether Nationalists ought to waive their view for complete fiscal autonomy, in order to secure agreement with a large and powerful body of Irishmen from whom they had been politically estranged in the past. . . . A press campaign began in which control over customs and excise was represented as a vital and essential part of self-government. Redmond was of the other opinion. He saw in Lord Midleton's overtures the possibility of forming a new and wider constitutional party for self-government within the Empire. At the crisis of a too prolonged effort to secure agreement, Redmond died, and Nationalists in the Convention expressed divided opinions in their Report."—S. L. Gwynn, *Irish situation, pp.* 54-56.—"The Issue of the Report . . . [which was laid on the table of the house on April 9] was made to an Irish public profoundly uninterested in it. The mind of the whole people was fixed on conscription, to the complete exclusion of any other question. Nor was the gathering storm of determined opposition to the proposal to conscript Ireland in any way checked by a certain change in the Government's attitude which was disclosed during the hurried passage of the Military Service Bill through the House of Commons. . . . The Irish clause of the Bill—Clause II.—gave the Government power to extend the operation of the Act to Ireland by Order in Council. . . . After the passage of the Military Service Bill on April 16th—the Irish clause being carried by 296 votes to 123—the Nationalist Parliamentary Party immediately left Westminster and returned to Ireland. A passive resistance movement was already afoot."—W. B. Wells and N. Marlowe, *Irish convention and Sinn Fein, pp.* 144-145, 147.—The whole Roman Catholic hierarchy was opposed to the measure. A conference at the Mansion House declared that the passing of the Conscription Bill "must be regarded as a declaration of war on the Irish people."

1918.—Anti-conscription movement.—Arrest of Sinn Fein leaders.—"The most spectacular demonstration of protest . . . [against conscription] was made by the Irish Labour Party. A conference of fifteen hundred delegates convened in Dublin by the Irish Trades Union Congress, in adopting a resolution to resist Conscription 'in every way that to us seems feasible,' asserting 'our claims for independent status as a nation in the international movement and the right of self-determination as a nation as to what action or actions our people should take on questions of political or economic issues,' called upon Irish workers to abstain from all work on April 23rd as 'a demonstration of fealty to the cause of Labour and Ireland.' . . . The Labour Party however had a point of view somewhat different from that of Sinn Fein. Labour was opposed to Conscription on principle, and would have, unlike Sinn Fein, opposed it even if agreed to by an Irish Parliament."—R. M. Henry, *Evolution of Sinn Fein, p.* 265.—"The work of the Convention was forgotten . . . and all classes united with that passionate feeling often characteristic of Irish movements to fight against military service imposed by the United Kingdom. . . . During these days most of the Irish members were either not present in the House of Commons, or when they spoke it was with bitterness and chilling resentment. Ireland was seething with discontent, and not willing, except for the Ulster Unionists, any longer to assist in the war, . . . [and] Sinn Fein was believed to be in treasonable correspondence with Germany as it had been two years before."—E. R. Turner, *Ireland and England, p.* 415.—In May, Viscount French was appointed lord lieutenant to succeed Lord Wimborne, and Mr. Edward Shortt was made chief secretary. "When the formidable nature of the task they had undertaken dawned upon the Lord Lieutenant and his Chief Secretary, it was decided by the Irish Government to cut the sinews of the opposition by the arrest of those who were chiefly responsible for fomenting it. . . . The two Sinn Fein members of the Mansion House Conference, Messrs. de Valera and Griffith, with a number of less prominent Sinn Feiners, were deported and imprisoned. But this was a course which required some explanation. They were not the only people prominent in the Anti-Conscription campaign; and in any case English public opinion while, on the whole, indignant with the attitude of Ireland towards compulsory service, was becoming somewhat uneasy as to happenings in Ireland and inclined to question the entire wisdom of the Irish Executive. Accordingly, it was asserted that the arrested Sinn Feiners had been guilty of complicity in a German plot. The ex-Lord Lieutenant, Lord Wimborne, during whose tenure of office the discovery of the plot (it was said) began to be made, publicly and flatly denied all knowledge of it, and expressed disbelief in its existence. . . . No further attempts were made to provide non-political reasons for political arrests; it was judged better that the Executive should rely upon the extraordinary powers conferred upon it by the Defence of the Realm Act."—R. M. Henry, *Evolution of Sinn Fein, pp.* 265, 267.—Some evidence of a German plot was provided by the fact that "throughout the year 1917 frequent communications had passed between

Berlin and the released rebels. The German Military Attaché in Madrid reported to his Government that an intermediary in America had '15,000 marks a month at his disposal for the S. (secret) service and communication with Ireland.' . . . During the early part of 1918 the Germans landed arms and ammunition on the west coast. Prominent leaders of Sinn Fein were constant in exhorting to drill and arm secretly."—P. H. Bagenal, *Royal Irish Constabulary and Sinn Fein* (*Nineteenth Century and After, July,* 1922).—"The Nationalists repudiated connection with Sinn Fein, and presently decided to go back to the House of Commons. Mr. Dillon, their leader, issued an appeal to Irish-Americans not to believe that Ireland was pro-German, and not to be prejudiced against them for what they were doing. But meanwhile Nationalist voters were rapidly going to Sinn Fein. . . . Nationalist members of the House of Commons resolved to remain in Ireland to resist the enforcement of conscription, declaring that such enforcement without the consent of Ireland would be brutal tyranny and oppression. Addressing a great throng in Belfast, Mr. Devlin advised that the act just passed be in no way recognized, and that no man should register his name. . . . [On June 1918] Lord Curzon announced that efforts would be made to recruit Irishmen by voluntary enlistment, and that meanwhile compulsory service would not be exacted. At the same time he said that in view of the present circumstances, and in consideration of recent revelations about Sinn Fein, the government did not deem the present an opportune occasion for the setting up of Home Rule. . . . Impatient at any delay, the mass [of Irishmen] gradually drifted away from their leaders to the radicals, and in the end, when the Nationalist leaders tried to keep their following, they had to be almost as resolute in their opposition as Sinn Fein, with which at times they seemed in accord."—E. R. Turner, *Ireland and England, pp.* 433-434, 415-417.—This was the state of affairs when the election of 1918, under the new Franchise Act, gave the Sinn Fein an opportunity to show its strength. The contest lay between the Nationalists and Sinn Fein; between Home Rule, and a claim for complete independence with representation at the peace conference. The result of the election was the return of seventy-three Sinn Fein members, twenty-five Unionists, and seven Nationalists. In Ulster, the Unionist strength was unimpaired, and the members had been returned with very large majorities. But south and west of the Boyne, Sinn Fein had swept all before it.

1918 (March 6).—John Redmond and Convention.—Death of Redmond.—John Redmond, who had been chosen leader of the Irish party in the House of Commons in 1900, had been one of the most outstanding figures in Irish politics for many years. The Third Home Rule Act, so strenuously opposed by Sir Edward Carson, was regarded by Redmond as a reasonable measure to be accepted as a final settlement of the question, and he hoped that it would quiet agitation which had kept the country so long in a state of upheaval. The failure to put the act in operation, his attitude on the World War, and the split in the ranks of the National Volunteers greatly lessened his authority but he was still a man to be reckoned with, and but for an untoward circumstance might have made a success of the convention of 1917-1918. On January 4, 1918, he made a speech, the greatest he had made in the convention, in which, speaking of the Unionists, he said "Between these men and us there never again can be the differences of the past. They have put behind them all bitter memories. They have agreed to the framework of a Bill better than any offered to us in 1886, 1893 or 1914." In this spirit he accepted proposals for a compromise, made by Lord Midleton, the Unionist leader, provided they were "adopted by His Majesty's Government as a settlement of the Irish question and legislature effect be given to them forthwith." The convention, however, adjourned and when it met again he withdrew his motion because he had found that "some very important Nationalist representatives are against this course—the Catholic bishops, Mr. Devlin—and others. No one can overstate the effect of this episode. Redmond's personal ascendancy in the convention had become



JOHN EDWARD REDMOND

very great. . . . The Ulstermen had more than once expressed their views that if Home Rule were sure to mean Redmond's rule, their objection to it would be materially lessened. Now, they saw Redmond thrown over, and by a combination in which the clerical influence, so much distrusted by them, was paramount. [Illness prevented Redmond from attending a conference of delegates with the Prime Minister in London on February 13, and on March 6, the members of the Convention were shocked by the news that he was dead]."—S. L. Gwynn, *John Redmond's last years, pp.* 310-335.

1918-1922.—General strikes. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1918-1922: General strikes in Ireland.

1919.—Meeting of Dail Eireann.—New proclamation.—Escape of De Valera.—Philadelphia convention.—Stand taken by Ulster.—"Civil Army."—Outbreak at Fermoy.—"It was soon evident that the government would do much to avoid a collision. The Sinn Fein adherents styled themselves the Irish Republican Party. In January, many of the members just elected [all of

whom had pledged themselves not to go to Westminster] assembled in the Mansion House in Dublin, the lord mayor being an ardent advocate of Sinn Fein, and there solemnly calling the roll, even the name of Sir Edward Carson, they acted as a constituent assembly and proceeded to proclaim an Irish Republic, reading their declaration in Irish, in English, and in French."—E. R. Turner, *Ireland and England, p.* 466.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.—PROCLAIMED BY THE DAIL EIREANN, DUBLIN, JANUARY 21, 1919. —"Whereas the Irish People is by right a free people; And whereas for seven hundred years the Irish people has never ceased to repudiate and has repeatedly protested in arms against foreign usurpation; And whereas English rule in this country is, and always has been, based upon force and fraud and maintained by military occupation against the declared will of the people; And whereas the Irish Republic was proclaimed in Dublin on Easter Monday, 1916, by the Irish Republican Army, acting on behalf of the Irish people; And whereas the Irish people is resolved to secure and maintain its complete Independence in order to promote the common weal, to reestablish justice, to provide for future defense, to insure a peace at home and good will with all nations and to constitute a National policy based upon the people's will, with equal right and equal opportunity for every citizen; And whereas as the threshold of a new era in history the Irish electorate has in the General Election of December, 1918, seized the first occasion to declare by an overwhelming majority its firm allegiance to the Irish Republic; Now, therefore, we, the elected Representatives of the ancient Irish people, in National Parliament assembled, do, in the name of the Irish Nation, ratify the establishment of the Irish Republic and pledge ourselves and our people to make this Declaration effective by every means at our command. To ordain that the elected Representatives of the Irish people alone have power to make laws binding on the people of Ireland, and that the Irish Parliament is the only Parliament to which that people will give its allegiance. We solemnly declare foreign Government in Ireland to be an invasion of our National Right, which we will never tolerate, and we demand the evacuation of our country by the English garrison; We claim for our National Independence the recognition and support of every Free Nation of the world, and we proclaim that Independence to be a condition precedent to international peace hereafter; In the name of the Irish people we humbly commit our destiny to Almighty God, who gave our fathers the courage and determination to persevere through centuries of a ruthless tyranny, and strong in the justice of the cause which they have handed down to us, we ask His divine blessing on this, the last stage of the struggle which we have pledged ourselves to carry through to Freedom."

"In February, Prof. De Valera, who had defeated Mr. Dillon in the Nationalist citadel of East Mayo, and who while in an English prison had been elected president of the republic, escaped from confinement, and after hiding a while presently appeared among his followers in triumph. Sinn Fein sent a representative to Paris to see President Wilson. He could get no interview, but he addressed letters to the delegates asking that Ireland be admitted to the Conference and also to the League of Nations. . . . To the Sinn Fein leaders the people of Ireland had given the task of bringing about what they had encouraged the people to hope for; but no more had yet been attained than overthrowing the Nationalists previously in power and arousing illimitable hopes. So, the popular enthusiasm which supported Sinn Fein might have greatly diminished as time went on, with the leaders doing no more than make threats and complaints. But that enthusiasm was sustained and increased by encouragement received now from the United States. In February there was held in Philadelphia a Convention of the Irish Race in America, attended by many prominent men, which passed a resolution declaring, as had the Irishmen who proclaimed the republic in Dublin, that a state of war existed between Ireland and England, which the Peace Conference could not ignore, and proposing that the Conference apply to Ireland the principle of self-determination. They agreed to raise a large sum of money to assist in getting Irish independence, and shortly after a campaign was begun in the press to get attention and win sympathy for the cause. Representatives were sent by the Philadelphia Convention to Ireland, where they were received with wild ovation, since they . . . seemed to promise that the Peace Conference would take up Ireland's case, and that Irish independence would follow soon after. Their activities were regarded by many of the British people with considerable coolness and suspicion. It was believed that no other government than the British would have permitted such delegates to act as these Americans did."—E. R. Turner, *Ireland and England, pp.* 467-469.—"But not one in a thousand of the Irish electorate realised that they were making such a claim as no great Power had ever submitted to except after defeat in war. Still less did those who voted for a Republican candidate stop to consider what the effect of such a vote would be upon the unity of Ireland. Ulster, of course, declared that this sudden development revealed the truth of Ulster's persistent contention—that Home Rule was only desired as a stepping-stone to complete separation; and that the question for every Protestant Ulsterman was one of retaining or forfeiting his birthright as a British subject. In support of this contention they pointed to the compact reached among Ulster Catholics, by which those seats in Ulster which a Catholic might hope to win were apportioned equally between Sinn Féin and the Nationalists. This proved, to Ulster's satisfaction, that it was merely a choice between alternative roads to the same end. It should be added that Sinn Féin had captured almost in its entirety the fund raised and the organisation created to fight conscription. Ireland had subscribed for this as Ireland had never subscribed before."—S. L. Gwynn, *Irish situation, p.* 60.—"Meantime, the Sinn Féin organisation was instructed to become 'a sort of civil army to carry out the decisions of Dáil Eireann's Cabinet.' Part of the work of this civil army was to levy a sort of taxation. Appeal was made to Ireland for a quarter of a million. The Irish parliamentary party used to think they did well in raising ten thousand pounds within the year for their campaign funds. Evidently an organisation financed on this new scale was to be a very different affair. But the money came in. Old constitutionalists said that it came in under duress, and probably to some extent they were right. . . . There were by this time many men 'on the run.' Government, urged to display its authority by force, was making arrests, and Mr.

de Valera's 'civil arm' began to operate in rescue parties, carried out with a reckless indifference to life. The shooting of policemen became frequent, and in every case policemen were shot with impunity. These deeds were denounced by Catholic priests and bishops, but no one was found to take the part of giving evidence, or of attempting to arrest the assailants. Two factors operated to produce this abstinence. . . . Nobody would inform. Over and above this was the well-founded conviction that the informer's life would not be worth many hours' purchase. Yet, as the list of assassinations lengthened, men felt the need for finding a justification. It was explained that policemen were not merely the agents of an alien Government which was holding down Ireland by force; they were traitors to their country who joined actively in this work. What can you do with a spy but shoot him? And what is a policeman but a spy? That was the train of reasoning often used in speech by men who would in practice have recoiled from these deeds. . . . Matters were brought to a head in August 1919 by a singularly audacious stroke of violence. In Fermoy, where there was a garrison of some two thousand troops, a small party of soldiers going to the Methodist church were attacked by a body about equal in numbers who carried revolvers. The soldiers, who had their rifles but no ammunition, were overpowered and disarmed; the attackers drove off with their booty in three motor-cars. Elaborate arrangements had been made to block the roads against pursuit by felling trees across them."—S. L. Gwynn, *Irish situation, pp.* 64-66, 68.

1919.—**Results of agricultural coöperative movement.** See Coöperation: Ireland.

1920.—**State of the country.—Dail Eireann courts.—Attacks on constabulary.—"Black and tans."—Restoration of order or "Crimes Act."—Fourth Home Rule Act.**—Throughout 1920 violence increased, and during the whole year the country was in an exceedingly disturbed state. Police barracks were attacked and destroyed; policemen were killed, trains and mail cars were held up; raids were made on post offices for money; and on private houses for arms. In June, Brigadier General Lucas, commanding at Fermoy, was kidnapped. One of his two companions was seriously wounded, and the general was carried off and held for some time in captivity. In reprisal for this attack the soldiers stationed in Fermoy committed havoc which cost many thousands of pounds. In June the railway employees refused to serve trains which carried troops and ammunition. In the middle of the month Lloyd George threatened to close down the railways, with so little effect, however, on the strikers that at the end of the month the Great Northern Railway which had not previously been involved, was included in the strike against military service, and all southward trains from Dublin were stopped. By the middle of July trains from Limerick Junction to the west and south ceased to run, and members of the Sinn Fein began to kidnap men who took the place of dismissed employees. The strike lasted for six months, and was ended in December by the Labor party, upon the declaration of the government that, failing settlement, the railways would be closed. In the meantime the Dail Eireann had proceeded to function, and to set up courts in the south and west, which were held under the name of arbitration courts, and political prisoners who were arraigned before the crown courts steadily refused to plead, on the ground that they were not Irish courts and had no jurisdiction. In many places Sinn Fein assumed control of liquor selling, and hours of closing. Demands for payment of rates and taxes to representatives of the Dail Eireann instead of to the crown officials were made, and county and district councils undertook to carry out the decrees of the Dail. On the other hand it was announced by the crown that if no accounting were made for rates and taxes, statutory aid could not be given. By the close of the year attacks on the constabulary had become so persistent that the force began to crumble both in numbers and morale. Recruiting stopped and they began to resign in numbers. Accordingly men were recruited in England, and brought over to take their place. These men were the much hated "black and tans," who received their name from the fact that they arrived without kit and at first appeared in the khaki trousers of the British army rank-and-file, from which they were drawn, and the dark green cap and tunic of the Irish constabulary. The next body sent over was composed of British ex-officers, who were organized in companies under their own officers, occupied their own quarters, and from whom casualties among the constabulary officers were replaced. Bitter accusations were brought against these men for reprisals and actual, unprovoked cruelty. Many of these stories were true; many were repeated on hearsay; many were undoubtedly exaggerated or false; but one thing is certain, from the time of their arrival they were the worst liked men in Ireland; every known form of wickedness was ascribed to them, and they became the focusing point of general hate. In fact in some respects their presence aided rather than lessened the difficulties of the crown. In an effort to put an end to the deplorable condition into which the country had gradually drifted, a measure which provided for placing the whole of southern Ireland under martial law was passed in August. "The terms of the new measure, popularly known as the Crimes bill, were made public on Aug. 3. The bill proposed to turn over the duties of Crown tribunals in Ireland to courts-martial, even to the extent of settling civil disputes, infliction of fines, and the binding of accused persons to keep the peace. Provision, however, was made for excluding Ulster from operation of the law. . . . When the Crimes bill came up for final passage on Aug. 6, Joseph Devlin, Nationalist member for Belfast, became the centre of a stormy scene, . . . defied the chair and was suspended. As he left the Chamber he was followed by the Irish Nationalists together with the majority of the Labor members. . . . The bill was adopted under closure by a vote of 206 to 18 [and received the royal assent after] passage . . . through the House of Lords on Aug. 9."—*New York Times Current History, Sept.,* 1920.—Outrages continued to increase, and reached a climax on the evening of November 21, when fourteen officers and ex-officers were murdered in Dublin in houses and hotels where they were stopping. Later in the day, a football field, where a game was in progress, was the scene of a battle. The players and spectators declared that the police and soldiers, who were proceeding to search the grounds for persons suspected of the murder, fired first; the military asserted that on their approach they were fired on by scouts who had been posted around the field. About a week later plans for the destruction of the Manchester power house, and Liverpool docks were captured, and

a few days later incendiary fires were set, in Liverpool, which were, however, put out before very much damage was done. In December a patrol of seventeen auxiliary police was ambushed outside of Cork. Fifteen of the men were killed, one fatally wounded, and the other kidnapped. Following on this a number of village shops were burned. Later on a large part of the business section of the city of Cork was destroyed in reprisal for the death of one, and the wounding of seven cadets. The beautiful City Hall, the Corn Exchange and Carnegie Library were burned to the ground, and a total loss of about $15,000,000 incurred. In December, Cork, Tipperary, Kerry and Limerick were placed under martial law by General C. F. N. Macready, commander-in-chief, and crown forces were declared to be on active service. Yet life in the country took its normal course, except that suspicion was rife on every side, and care was taken that no chance word, which might cause trouble for the speaker or his family, could be heard.

In the midst of the turmoil in Ireland the Fourth Home Rule Bill was introduced in the British Parliament on February 25, 1920. The bill reached its third reading on November 11, passed through the House of Lords on December 23, and the same day received assent. The new act provided two parliaments, one for northern, the other for southern Ireland, both under the supremacy of the English king, and consisting of a house of commons and a senate, northern Ireland being defined as the parliamentary counties of Antrim, Armagh, Down, Fermanegh, Londonderry and Tyrone, and the boroughs of Belfast and Londonderry, and a council of Ireland to be composed of the king as president, and twenty members, chosen from each parliament. This council might be replaced by an all-Ireland parliament with a constitution determined upon by the provincial parliaments. Some powers were reserved to the Parliament at Westminster, chiefly peace and war, foreign affairs, customs, the navy and army, pensions, treaty making, naturalization, cables, wireless, aerial navigation, coinage, trade marks, copyright and patents. The postal service, savings banks, and public record office were reserved until the date of the Irish union. The Land Purchase Act was reserved, but not the Congested Districts Board or the Land Commission. Religious freedom was expressly provided for, and also proportional representation. All Ireland was to contribute a certain sum toward imperial liabilities. This sum for the first two years was to be £18,000,000 in the ratio of 56 per cent. for southern, and 44 per cent. for northern Ireland. The provincial parliaments were to have power to impose an additional income tax. Customs duties, excise, excess profits duties and the United Kingdom income tax were to be paid into a consolidated fund and "a sum equal to the Irish share of the reserved taxes" paid over to the Irish exchequers, after deduction of the eighteen million pounds, and the cost of the reserved services. The act was to go into operation on the "first Tuesday in the eighth month" after passage of the act; but might be hastened or delayed by order in council.

1920 (April-November).—**Hunger strikes.—Case of Terence McSwiney, lord mayor of Cork.**—"Meanwhile the Government were further embarrassed by a hunger strike which took place among the Sinn Fein prisoners in Mountjoy [Dublin] Gaol. Mr. Bonar Law expressed the intention of the Government of resisting the strike and refusing to release the strikers. . . . So great was the excitement that the Government ultimately receded from their attitude and released fifty-six of the hunger strikers on April 14, and twenty-four more on the following day. . . . On April 20 the Irish Government issued a statement . . . [that] in future prisoners arrested and imprisoned for political offences were to be tried as political prisoners. Their places of confinement and treatment would be different from those of persons imprisoned for ordinary criminal offences. Political offences, however, were not to include homicide, burglary, riot, unlawful assembly, etc. . . . This did not, however, remove the determination of a number of prisoners to compel their release by a hunger strike, and attention was specially directed to [Terence McSwiney] the Lord Mayor of Cork, who was confined in Brixton prison, and whose case became a test case both for the Government and for its adversaries. . . . On September 3, after the hunger strike had been in progress for three weeks, an influentially signed appeal was addressed to the Government by prominent Labour leaders, insisting that public sentiment had been outraged and that the death of the Lord Mayor would bring about a terrible explosion of anger which could only lead to further bloodshed in Ireland. In reply to this appeal Mr. Bonar Law wrote pointing out that the Lord Mayor was one of the leaders of the Irish Republican Army, which had declared itself to be at war with the forces of the Crown, and according to his own written word in one of the seditious documents, for the possession of which he had been convicted, he and his followers were determined to pursue their ends, asking for no mercy and making no compromise. He had been arrested while actively conducting the affairs of a rebel organization under cover of a mayoral court. Had he been taken at his word and dealt with as an avowed rebel, he would have been liable immediately to be shot. Instead of that he had been tried by a legally constituted tribunal, sentenced to a moderate term of imprisonment, and given at once all the privileges of a political prisoner. From that moment he had sought to defeat the ends of justice by refusing food in the belief that this course would lead to his speedy release. To release him would be a betrayal of those loyal officers on whose devotion to duty the fabric of social order in Ireland rested. . . . Among the Irish prisoners confined for political offences the hunger strike continued notwithstanding the firm attitude of the Government. On October 17 Michael Fitzgerald died after having refused food since August 10 when he had been lodged, with ten other prisoners, in Cork Gaol. He had been arrested in connexion with the shooting of a soldier at Fermoy and was awaiting trial on the capital charge. . . . On October 25 [Alderman McSwiney died] in Brixton Prison on the seventy-fourth day of his hunger strike. . . . The body was taken from Brixton Prison to St. George's Roman Catholic Cathedral, Southwark, after an inquest had been held at which a verdict was returned that Alderman McSwiney had died from the results of exhaustion due to prolonged refusal to take food. On the 28th a procession went through the streets of London in which the coffin was conveyed to Euston to be taken to Cork for burial. . . . The Government . . . feared the risk of political demonstration, and placed a special steamer at the disposal of the relatives and friends to proceed direct to Cork without landing at any other place. [They preferred, however, to

proceed to Dublin where a stately service was held. Meanwhile the body of the lord mayor was sent to Cork by sea.] The death of the Lord Mayor of Cork had made clear that the Government did not intend to be coerced by the policy of the hunger strikers, and the lesson was taken to heart by Sinn Fein. Up to the middle of November prisoners in Cork Gaol were still on hunger strike, but on November 11 a telegram was received from Mr. Arthur Griffith, the acting President of Sinn Fein, calling off the strike."—*Annual Register*, 1920, *pp.* 45-46, 106, 118-119, 133.—See also PAPACY: 1920-1921.

1920-1921.—Sale of bonds in the United States.—"The position assumed by and given to Eamonn De Valera as 'President of the Irish Republic' was, in 1920 and 1921, a rather notable one. . . . During 1919 [he went to the United States] avowedly to raise $10,000,000 by the sale of bonds of the 'Republic'; his reception by municipal bodies, State Legislatures, Governors, the Roman Catholic clergy and Irishmen in general was all that he could possibly desire. [See also U.S.A.: 1921: American friendship with England jeopardized.] . . . [In February 1920 the bond selling campaign was started, and at the end of the year Stephen O'Mara said that the bonds issued and sold in the United States was slightly more than $5,500,000.] Other millions were raised by private subscription to Relief funds. As to this latter point, there were several funds, including the Belfast Expelled Workers' Fund which was earnestly backed up in a published appeal by Bishop MacRory of Down and Connor (Aug. 12, 1920); the American Committee for Relief in Ireland which, by February, 1921, had collected $350,000 and allotted $50,000 for aiding victims of Belfast riots; there was, also, the Irish White Cross Fund. . . . Meanwhile, the statements made by the Committee to the effect that famine was about to add thousands of victims to the hundreds of thousands already in need of bare necessaries, that in every Irish village and town sickness, pestilence and death had invaded humble homes and that children of tender years were ragged, wretched and hungry, were vigorously denied, and, eventually, the British Embassy at Washington (Mch. 30, 1921) issued an official statement which said: 'Banking and trade statistics and tax returns show that Ireland as a whole has never been more prosperous than at the present time. Millions of pounds have been made available from money raised by taxation in the United Kingdom to build houses, to encourage land settlements and to promote employment schemes and the general work of reconstruction, but the Counties and cities of Ireland which are Sinn Fein in sympathy refuse to accept this money and prefer to appeal to America for charity. Particularly it should be emphasized that there is no shortage of food in Ireland.'"—J. C. Hopkins, *Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs*, 1921, *pp.* 286, 290-291.

1920-1922.—Trade union strength. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922.

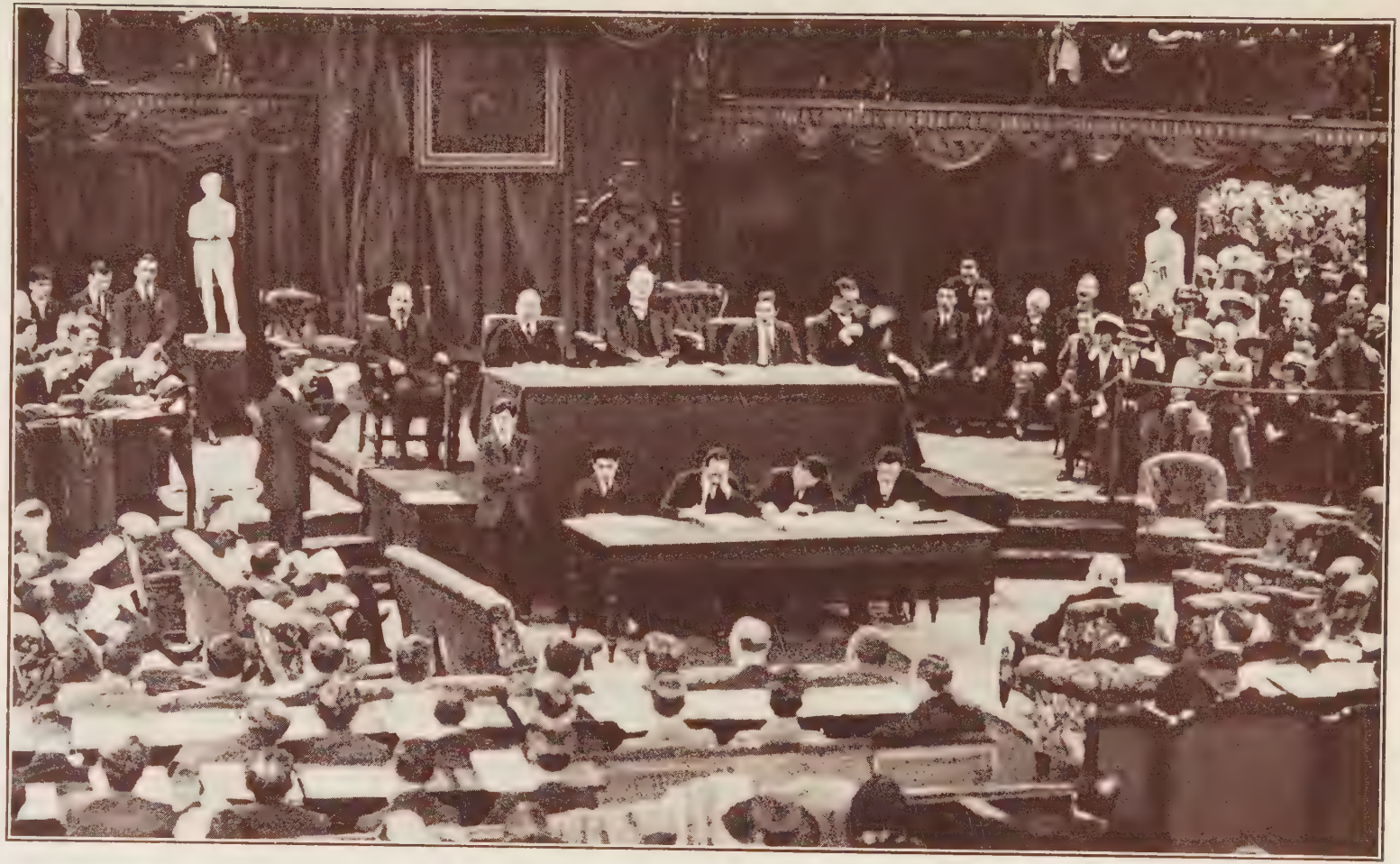
1921.—Irish conference in London.—Free State Treaty.—The beginning of 1921 brought no lightening in the night of terror and of fear in which Ireland was shrouded. In January, Clare, Waterford, Wexford and Kilkenny were placed under martial law, which brought no lessening in the number of outrages, or of reprisals. But, the crown forces had been declared to be on active service, and reprisals were officially carried out, only to be met in most cases by counter-reprisals. The situation had become impossible, and it was recognized that either a settlement must be reached, or a systematic military campaign carried out against Sinn Fein, and from the thought of the latter alternative every part of the British Empire shrank. In January, the lord lieutenant, and Father Michael O'Flanagan, vice-president of Sinn Fein, (the latter of whom had been in communication with Lloyd George for some time) were summoned to London for a conference, and at the same time Eamonn De Valera hurried back from the United States where he had for some time been conducting a campaign of agitation. Negotiations fell through, and for some months following nothing serious was done in the way of conciliation, although personal attempts to bring about a peace were made, and the appointment in May of Viscount Fitzalan

EDWARD (EAMONN) DE VALERA

(Lord Edmund Talbot), a Roman Catholic, to replace Viscount French as lord lieutenant might perhaps be looked upon as an effort to create an atmosphere for peace. Immediately after the king's Belfast speech, however, Lloyd George wrote to De Valera (June 24) asking him to attend a conference in London with Sir James Craig "to explore to the utmost the possibility of a settlement." The invitation was accepted by Sir James Craig. De Valera replied that he saw no basis for peace, except in the essential union of Ireland, and national determination. He then summoned a conference at Dublin, which Sir James Craig refused to attend; but at which four southern Unionists were present with Arthur Griffith and Eamonn De Valera (July 4). General Smuts, of South Africa, who was in London for the premier's conference, then crossed to Dublin, to confer with the leaders, and "on July 8 the Prime Minister's invitation was accepted, tentatively, by

De Valera in order 'to discuss on what basis such a Conference as that proposed can reasonably hope to achieve the object desired'; arrangements at the same time were made between General Sir Nevil Macready and R. C. Barton and E. J. Duggan of the Republican Army for a period of truce."—J. C. Hopkins, *Canadian Annual Review*, 1921, *p.* 229.—In August 1921, Lloyd George called a conference with the leaders of southern Ireland; offered the country Dominion status, and proposed that a settlement should be made which should be "embodied in the form of a Treaty, to which effect shall in due course be given by the British and Irish Parliaments." A long correspondence followed with Eamonn De Valera, in which De Valera took the ground that Ireland was independent of the British Empire, and the premier stated explicitly that no claim to repudiate allegiance to the king would ever be acknowledged. De Valera insisted that Ulster should come into any arrangement made. Ulster, who already had her government in function, refused, and the British government refused to coerce her. On the eve of his departure for South Africa General Smuts addressed a friendly letter to De Valera in which he said: "I do not ask you to give up your ideal, but only to realize it in the only way which seems to me at present practicable. Freedom will lead inevitably to unity; therefore begin with Freedom—with a Free constitution for the 26 counties—as the first and most important step in the whole settlement. As to the form of that Freedom, here too you are called upon to choose between two alternatives. To you, as you say, the Republic is the true expression of national self-determination. But it is not the only expression; and it is an expression which means your final and irrevocable severance from the British League. And to this, as you know, the Parliament and people of this country will not agree. The British Prime Minister has made you an offer of the other form of Freedom—of Dominion status—which is working with complete success in all parts of the British League. . . . What is good enough for these nations ought surely to be good enough for Ireland too. For Irishmen to say to the world that they will not be satisfied with the status of the great British Dominions would be to alienate all that sympathy which has so far been the main support of the Irish cause. The British Prime Minister offers complete Dominion status to the 26 counties, subject to certain strategic safeguards which you are asked to agree to voluntarily as a free Dominion, and which we South Africans agree to as a free nation in the Union of South Africa. To my mind, such an offer by a British Prime Minister, who—unlike his predecessors—is in a position to deliver the goods, is an event of unique importance. . . . In fact, the British Government will have no further basis of interference with your affairs, as your relations with Great Britain will be a concern not of the British Government but of the Imperial Conference, of which Great Britain will be only one of seven members. Any questions in issue between you and the British Government will be for the Imperial Conference to decide. You will be a free member of a great League, of which most of the other members will be in the same position as yourself; and the Conference will be the forum for thrashing out any questions which may arise between members. This is the nature and the constitutional practice of Dominion Freedom."

"On Sept. 7th Mr. Lloyd George made another effort and sent a note from Inverness to Mr. de Valera which, after stating the impossibility of separation or a republic, proceeded: 'You will agree that this correspondence has lasted long enough. His Majesty's Government must, therefore, ask for a definite reply as to whether you are prepared to enter a Conference to ascertain how the association of Ireland with the community of nations known as the British Empire can best be reconciled with Irish national aspirations.' The reply (Sept. 12) accepted the invitation but reiterated the position of Ireland as a 'Sovereign State.' The Prime Minister's response was a telegram from Scotland (Sept. 15) cancelling arrangements for the Conference and pointing out that the Government had always refused to recognize this claim and must continue to do so. Further despatches were interchanged and, on Sept. 19, the Irish leader intimated his willingness to enter a Conference free on both sides, and without prejudice should agreement not be reached. Finally, on Oct. 11, Mr. Lloyd George issued a new invitation which was at once accepted. The Conference opened at No. 10 Downing Street on Oct. 10 with D. Lloyd George, Lord Birkenhead, Winston Churchill, Sir L. Worthington-Evans, Sir H. Greenwood and Sir Gordon Hewart as the British representatives; Arthur Griffith, Michael Collins, R. C. Barton, E. J. Duggan and C. Gavan Duffy were the Irish delegates. Thomas Jones and Lionel Curtis were the British Secretaries, Erskine Childers and John Chartres the Irish ones. At the same time Mr. de Valera issued an Appeal to the people to stand by their principles no matter what the result in London. . . . Then came the De Valera cable to the Pope which threw fresh difficulties in the way of the Conference by repudiating allegiance to the King; this was met by the Delegates declaring its terms to be not binding upon them. In the Commons on Oct. 31 a direct mandate was given the Government to proceed with its negotiations, by a vote of 439 to 43; Mr. Lloyd George had, meanwhile, to reconcile British policy and Southern Ireland proposals in the Conference and, any result achieved, with Ulster sentiment outside the Conference and with views of his Unionist supporters in Parliament. On Dec. 6th it was announced that this difficult task had been measurably accomplished; that a Treaty had been arranged and the Agreement signed by all the Delegates. By the Agreement an Irish Free State was to be created with the following as the basic and fundamental clauses: 1. Ireland shall have the same constitutional status in the Community of Nations known as the British Empire as the Dominion of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa, with a Parliament having powers to make laws for the peace, order and good government of Ireland, and an Executive responsible to that Parliament, and shall be styled and known as the Irish Free State. 2. Subject to the provisions, hereinafter set out, the position of the Irish Free State in relation to the Imperial Parliament and Government and otherwise shall be that of the Dominion of Canada, and the law, practice and constitutional usage governing the relationship of the Crown, or the representative of the Crown, and of the Imperial Parliament to the Dominion of Canada shall govern their relationship to the Irish Free State. 3. The representative of the Crown in Ireland shall be appointed in like manner as



MEETING OF THE DAIL EIREANN AT THE MANSION HOUSE, DUBLIN, 1921

Eamonn de Valera (standing) is addressing the parliament in its first public session to consider the terms of peace with England. On the platform seated from left to right are Eamonn Duggan, T. O'Kelly, Prof. E. MacNeill, Desmond Fitzgerald, and Frank P. Walsh.

the Governor-General of Canada and in accordance with the practice observed in the making of such appointments. 4. The oath to be taken by Members of the Parliament of the Irish Free State shall be in the following form: I.....do solemnly swear true faith and allegiance to the Constitution of the Irish Free State as by law established and that I will be faithful to H. M. King George V., his heirs and successors by law, in virtue of the common citizenship of Ireland with Great Britain and her adherence to and membership of the group of nations forming the British Commonwealth of Nations. 5. Neither the Parliament of the Irish Free State nor the Parliament of Northern Ireland shall make any law so as either directly or indirectly to endow any religion or prohibit or restrict the free exercise thereof or give any preference or impose any disability on account of religious belief or religious status or affect prejudicially the right of any child to attend a school receiving public money without attending the religious instruction at the school or make any discrimination as respects State aid between schools under the management of different religious denominations or divert from any religious denomination or any educational institution any of its property except for public utility purposes and on payment of compensation. Arrangements were made to exclude Ulster or Northern Ireland, if desired by the Province, and as to details regarding Ulster guarantees and a Boundary Commission, Harbour facilities, Defence, Debt and Finance, Open Ports and other relations and safeguards. British troops were to leave Ireland within one month of ratification of the Treaty and the King at once (Dec. 9) issued a proclamation of amnesty for all Irishmen suffering imprisonment. . . . In Dublin Mr. de Valera at once announced his refusal to present the Treaty to the Dail Eireann for ratification and declared the terms of the Agreement to be 'in violent conflict with the wishes of the majority of this nation, as expressed freely in successive elections during the past three years.' . . . 'The honour of the nation is not involved unless and until the Treaty is ratified.' . . . After an historic debate the Agreement passed the Commons by 401 to 58 and the Lords by 166 to 47 votes. In the Dail Eireann Mr. de Valera proposed a substitute for the oath of allegiance but was defeated by a large majority on Dec. 15th; this was followed by bitter debates with Griffith and Collins defending the Treaty and De Valera, Austin Slack, Cahal Brugha, Count Plunkett, Erskine Childers and John MacSwiney leading the opposition."—J. C. Hopkins, *Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs*, 1921, *pp.* 302-305.

1921.—Dispensary system for the care of the poor.—Hospitals. See CHARITIES: Ireland: 1765-1921.

1921 (May-June).—Functioning of Government of Ireland Act.—Elections.—The Government of Ireland Act took effect on May 3, 1921. "Ulster accepted the . . . [Home Rule Act] with reluctance, Southern Ireland would [have] . . . nothing to do with it. In this event the Act provided that the Parliament of the South would not sit and its government would revert into the hands of the existing Executive with an Advisory Council. . . . Elections followed on May 13 when all but 4 members of the Southern Parliament were elected by acclamation as Sinn Feiners pledged not to take the oath or sit in the new House but, as Mr. de Valera put it in a Manifesto, to prove once more the Irish demand for a Republic. Amongst those elected were De Valera, Mme. Markievicz, Mrs. O'Callaghan, widow of the murdered Mayor of Cork, . . . Mrs. Pearse, mother of Padraic Pearse, executed after the Dublin rebellion of 1916, and Mary McSwiney, sister of Terence McSwiney. Ulster elected on May 20th, 40 Unionists, 6 Nationalists and 6 Sinn Feiners—amongst the latter Michael Collins, E. de Valera and Arthur Griffith. These three men were, therefore, technically all members of the British, Southern and Northern Parliaments at the same time. The Southern Senate included 64 members with four elected by the Archbishop or Bishops of the Roman Catholic Church, two by the Archbishops or Bishops of the Church of Ireland, 16 by Peers, 8 by Privy Councillors, and 14 by County Councils. The Act also empowered the Lord-Lieutenant to nominate 17 Senators to represent commerce, labour, and the scientific and learned professions, with the Lord-Lieutenant to nominate 17 Senators to represent commerce, labour, and the scientific and learned professions, with the Lord-Mayors of Dublin and Cork *ex-officio* members. The Church of Ireland (Anglican) at once selected their appointees as did the Peers and Privy Councillors. The Southern Parliament was formally opened at Dublin on June 28 with 15 Senators and the 4 Unionist members of the Commons present; the other elected members functioned elsewhere as the Dail Eireann."—J. C. Hopkins, *Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs*, 1921, *pp.* 297, 298.—See also ULSTER: 1921.

1922.—Social effect of political events.—Labor party.—Wane of power of church.—"Only the other day Ireland was the one country in Western Europe in which *patria potestas* was still rigorously enforced. . . . [But] under the existing franchise the votes of the farmer and his wife are wholly outnumbered by those of their sons and labourers. . . . The triumph of Youth is the most recent and significant but not the only sign of the revolution through which we have passed. . . . In no country perhaps, with the exception of Russia, has the old social order suffered such change. . . . From the extension of the Franchise in 1885 to the further extension in 1918, Ireland was a 'bourgeois Republic,' in this sense at least that political power centred in a middle class, composed roughly of the Roman Catholic clergy, the farmers, and well-to-do shopkeepers. Its Parliamentary representatives were professional men, strong farmers and the like, with a sprinkling of country gentlemen. . . . I suppose there was rarely a body of men of such genuinely conservative instinct as that old party in whose ranks I served some sixteen years. The winning of the 'land for the people'—understanding as the 'people' primarily the existing tenant occupiers on fair terms of purchase, and the restoration to Ireland, considered as an integral part of the British Commonwealth system, of a Parliament and Executive which should deal with purely Irish affairs—such were our modest aims. In the first of them we succeeded so well, that had it not been for the suspension of Land Purchase consequent upon the war, nearly all the tenanted land of Ireland would by now [1922] have passed into the ownership of the occupiers. . . . (But a new power has risen in the land—the power of Labour.) . . . It is but a little while since Labour in Ireland was socially neglected and politically negligible. . . . It is but the other day that nine shilings a week was regarded in many parts of the country as the ordinary wage of a grown man. Indignation was expressed when the idea of paying laborers a

pound a week was broached. The Corn Production Act of 1917, however, provided that the wage of an adult agricultural laborer should be not less than twenty-five shillings a week. In the years following the Act local strikes were frequent and wages were frequently advanced. The Laborers' Union amalgamated with, and greatly enhanced the influence of members of the extremely powerful body, the Irish Transport and General Workers' Union, which during the last few years has reached out from Dublin to the remotest country districts. . . . Labour candidates have been triumphantly returned—in several instances at the head of the poll—not only in urban centres as Dublin and Cork City, but also in such preponderantly rural constituencies as Wexford, Leix-Offaly, and Carlow-Kilkenny. . . . Against insurgent Labour is now regularly arrayed

MICHAEL COLLINS

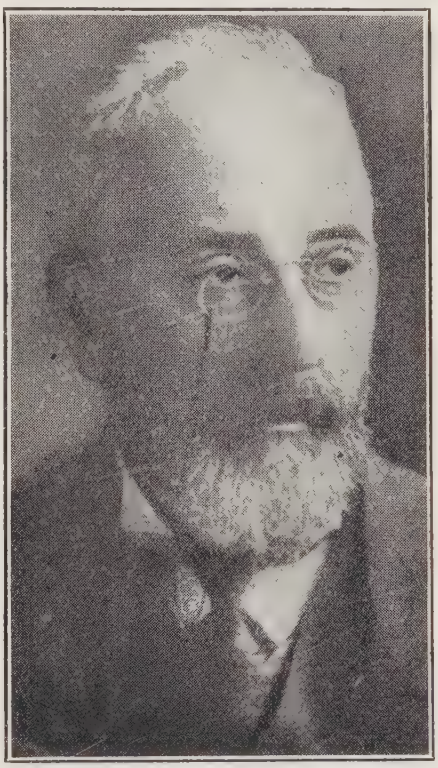
newly formed Associations of Farmers and Rentpayers. . . . Ireland is still rooted staunchly in the Catholic Faith, . . . but, whether for good or evil . . . the power of the clergy has been very greatly lessened. But a little while ago let any considerable national issue arise and a pronouncement by the Irish Catholic Hierarchy was expected as a matter of course. And when the Treaty was signed and Ireland had to make her choice between peace and war, such a pronouncement seemed inevitable. Most of the bishops were known to be . . . keenly desirous of peace, . . . but no pronouncement followed. . . . In administration, municipal and national, our new rulers are showing themselves notably efficient. . . . Here is a group of young men, almost without political experience, who pitted their wits against the ablest men of the British Cabinet; and . . . won for their country the status defined by the first Article of the draft Constitution—'The Irish Free State is a co-equal member of the community of nations forming the British Commonwealth of Nations.' . . . Adult suffrage was adopted as a matter of course. In Ireland henceforward for all purposes whatever 'men and women,' it is declared, 'have equal rights as citizens.' No title of honour may be conferred save with the approval of the Irish Ministers. . . . There is not much light-heartedness or gaiety in the make-up of the modern young Irishman. And as for the young woman! . . . We are grown strangely hard of late years. We make a cult of suffering, as though suffering were good in itself; we despise gentle manners as though these were the badge of servility not its opposite; we are desperately afraid of not being thought sufficiently solemn. Being what I am, I lean to the philosophy of M. Jérome Coignard, that delicious rogue *qui méprisait les hommes avec tendresse*. But Hudibras is more to the taste of the day; and the young Catholic Irishman—little as he suspects it sometimes—has the oddest resemblance to a seventeenth-century Puritan."—H. A. Law, *Tir na n'Og* (*Contemporary Review, July*, 1922).

ALSO IN: Marquess of Crewe, *Situation in Ireland* (*Contemporary Review, Aug.*, 1922).

1922 (January-July).—Ratification of treaty by Dail Eireann.—Resignation of De Valera.—Provisional government.—The "pact."—Draft constitution.—Elections.—During the Christmas recess of the Dail, the country gave unmistakable evidence of the truth of Arthur Griffith's statement that ninety-five per cent of the people were in favor of the treaty and peace. Re-assembly of the Dail was marked by acrimonious debates; but on January 7 ratification was carried by a majority of seven. Two days later, De Valera resigned the presidency, and on a vote for reëlection was defeated, and Arthur Griffith was unanimously chosen president by the sixty-five members who were left. The new president immediately summoned the southern parliament, which convened in the Mansion House, ratified the peace treaty, and created the provisional government. That done, this shadowy body, which was in large part composed of Dail members, dissolved itself. The provisional government of which Michael Collins was premier took over the Castle on January 16, and transference of the other government offices was made as rapidly as possible. Evacuation of the British troops was immediately begun and these events seemed to be the visible sign that peace had at last come to the weary country which had scarcely known it unless when she was laid low by exhaustion or despair. It was a vain thought. Almost immediately, De Valera again declared for a republic, and was joined by Cathal Burgess, former commander-in-chief, by Charles Gavan Duffy, one of the treaty makers, Rory O'Connor, Erskine Childers and others. In an effort to prevent further discord, the Ard Feis (Sinn Fein National convention), which met in Dublin in February, 1921, voted to adjourn for three months, during which time the Dail was to function instead of the provisional government. No election was to be held during the three months, and when it was held, the people were to be presented simultaneously with the articles of the agreement and the draft constitution of the free state. The Treaty Bill had already been ratified by the British Commons; but, on the explanation given by Arthur Griffith and Michael Collins, who were summoned to London, the bill was amended to meet its terms. It was passed quickly through the House of Lords and received assent on March 31, and the Irish Free State became a legal political entity. On March 30, after a conference in Lon-

don, between the leaders of the two governments, a treaty of peace between northern and southern Ireland was signed. The treaty provided for a further meeting to ascertain "whether means can be devised to secure the unity of Ireland," and failing this "whether an agreement can be arrived at on the boundary question otherwise than by recourse to the Boundary Commission." By this time Eamonn De Valera had gathered his forces around him, and was actively engaged in opposition to the constituted government, and on March 15 had organized a new republican society "to repudiate the proposed agreement with Great Britain as humiliating to the nation, and destructive of its rightful status and claims." At the same time, he endeavored to prevent the government from submitting the treaty to the people; and was active in creating a spirit of animosity in the Dail. "When May opened Ireland was a country groping through darkness towards a catastrophe. To all appearances the supporters of the Treaty had gained nothing by consenting to delay the elections. The Republicans still declined to be bound by the popular decision or even to allow it to be taken. The Free Staters had offered what seemed to be the maximum of compromise and barely stopped short of surrendering the Treaty itself. Unofficial mediation of various kinds between the two parties failed as completely. Mr. Griffith . . . announced in the firmest of language the Government's intention of holding the elections and fixed the date—June 16. . . . The country was manifestly disorganised and the gunmen enjoyed all the advantage of the confusion they had created. . . . [In the emergency, an unofficial committee of army officers, including Michael Collins and Richard Mulcahy, met and agreed:] 1. That a National Coalition Panel for this third Dail, representing both parties in the Dail and in the Sinn Fein Organisation, be sent forward on the ground that the National position requires the entrusting of the Government of the country into the joint hands of those who have been the strength of the National situation during the last few years, without prejudice to their present respective positions. 2. That this Coalition Panel be sent forward as from the Sinn Fein Organisation, the number of each party being their present strength in the Dail. 3. That the candidates be nominated through each of the existing Party Executives. 4. That every and any interest is free to go up and contest the election equally with the National—Sinn Fein—Panel. 5. That constituencies where an election is not held shall continue to be represented by their present deputies. 6. That after the election the Executive shall consist of the President (elected as formerly), the Minister of Defence (representing the army), and nine other Ministers—five from the majority party and four from the minority—each party to choose its own nominees. The allocation will be in the hands of the President. 7. That in the event of the Coalition Government finding it necessary to dissolve, a General Election will be held as soon as possible on Adult Suffrage." —*Ireland* (*Round Table, Sept.*, 1922, *pp.* 783-785). —This "pact" was adopted by the Dail, and on May 23 was ratified by the Ard Feis. It had an important effect on the policy of the northern parliament, in which Sir James Craig declared it changed the whole situation, so much so, that they would not now have a boundary commission under any circumstances. At the end of May the treaty signatories met in London, to consider the draft constitution which was submitted by the Irish Free State. An agreement was reached the week in which the election was to be held, and the document was published on the morning of June 16. The elections (of June 16) passed off without serious incident, and resulted in the return of ninety-two members in favor of the treaty as against thirty-six against it. Of the majority fifty-eight were listed as Sinn Fein pro-treaty; seventeen, labor; seven were farmers, and ten independent.

1922 (August).—Death of Griffith and Collins. —"On August 12 Arthur Griffith, President of the Dail Eireann and chief Irish negotiator of the Free State Agreement, died of a sudden heart-attack caused by over-work, at the age of 50. He was Ireland's greatest statesman. On the 22nd Michael Collins, head of the Provisional



TIMOTHY MICHAEL HEALY

Government of the Irish Free State, and commander of the Free State forces, was killed, at the age of 31. He was returning to Cork (accompanied by about 20 officers and men) from an inspection of the positions of the National Army south of that city, when the party was attacked from ambush by some 200 irregulars. The Collins party was composed of picked men, and after a fight of an hour the attackers fled, leaving many dead and wounded. It was near the very end of the fighting that Collins was mortally wounded. He died within a few minutes. He was Ireland's best fighting man and most powerful and attractive personality."—*Independent, Sept.* 2, 1922, *p.* 102.

1922 (September-December). — Constitution drafted.—Proclamation of Irish Free State.—Inauguration of government.—The new parliament opened on September 9 in the old parliament house building. On the 18th a bill to

enact the Irish Free State Constitution was introduced, and by October had passed its third reading. The change of government in England delayed its ratification by the British Parliament. Immediately after the meeting of the first session, however, it was rapidly passed through both houses, and on December 5 received the assent of the king, the new state was proclaimed and Timothy Healy, a Cork lawyer, who had sat in the British Parliament for years as Nationalist member for northeast Cork, was appointed first governor-general. But the generally disturbed state of the country precluded rejoicing, and the formal inauguration of the *Saorstat Eireann* or Irish Free State was made with little formality. Even

WILLIAM COSGRAVE

the appointment of the governor-general was communicated to him by telegram, since the king refused to do anything which might cause offense to the Republican party. The deputies to the provisional legislature automatically took their places in the new house, and elected William Cosgrave president. Formal proclamation of the Free State was made at the governor-general's house, where the lord chief justice read the proclamation, and the governor-general and the speaker of the house were sworn in. Later in the day the members of the Dail took the oath, and the members of the executive were announced as Kevin O'Higgins, minister of home affairs, Richard Mulcahy, minister of defense, John MacNeill, minister of education, Ernest Blythe, minister of local government, Joseph McGrath, minister of industry, commerce and labor, Desmond Fitzgerald, minister of foreign affairs. Among the nominations to the senate some of the more prominate were the earls of Granard, Wicklo, Kerry, Mayo and Dunraven, the marquess of Headfort, General Sir Bryan Mahon, Sir Horace Plunkett, Sir Thomas Esmonde, William Butler Yeats, and the Dowager Countess of Desart. Gloom was thrown over the early proceedings by the assassination of Sean Hales, a deputy, and Patrick O'Maille, the deputy speaker, on December 7. Swift and stern retribution was made. On December 8, Rory O'Connor, Liam Mellowes, Joseph McKelvey, and Richard Barrett, four republican leaders who had for some time been held in Mountjoy prison, were hastily tried by court martial and shot on December 8, admittedly in reprisal for the deed of the previous day.

1922-1923.—**Raids on Ulster.—Murder of Sir Henry Wilson.—Destruction of Four Courts.—Civil strife.**—While it was manifest from the beginning that the great majority of the Irish people were in favor of the agreement or treaty of peace, the militant minority both in and out of the Dail made every effort to overthrow it. Rory O'Connor seized upon the Four Courts in Dublin, and "from the security of his headquarters there, reimposed the Ulster boycott, in defiance of the Southern Government . . . (which had removed the boycott in agreement with the northern government). On the very day in which the Provisional Government was engaged in coming to terms with Republicanism, Republicans in the Counties Down and Antrim were occupied with a simultaneous and carefully planned rising on an ambitious scale, [in an attempt to force Ulster to unite with the south]. At the end of May Belleek and Pettigo, two towns, one within and the other astride the Ulster border on the Donegal side, in the troubled corner of Fermanagh that juts deep into Free State territory, were seized by irregular troops. . . . The Provisional Government repudiated the invasion and the British Government took prompt steps. . . . Both towns were occupied without bloodshed, together with some portions of Free State territory at Pettigo. . . . Nineteen battalions of British troops were now stationed in the Six Counties (in response to a plea for aid). Plans were laid for the military occupation, in case of necessity, of a neutral zone traced along, though not everywhere within, the Ulster border with the object of removing the Northern and Southern jurisdictions from contact. In the afternoon of June 22, Field-Marshal Sir Henry Wilson (one of the best-known soldiers in the World War, and an Ulster loyalist) was shot dead on the steps of his house in a quiet London street by two men who had waited for his arrival. . . . Though the two men were Irish by descent only, though both were veterans of the European war and one had lost his leg in service, proof was later given that they were under influence from Ireland and that one of the men had recently returned from an Irish visit. . . . In Ireland Mr. de Valera's comment on the murder amounted to a condonation. Mr. O'Connor contented himself with saying that it had not been committed under his orders . . . [and indeed no evidence was adduced that it had been so. It is more likely that the murder was the work of lesser minds.] On Monday, June 26, Free State troops arrested an officer of the Irregular forces, . . . [who] retaliated by kidnapping Lieutenant-General J. J. O'Connell, Assistant Chief of Staff, . . . [and] refused to surrender either their prisoner

or the Four Courts. Compromise now on the Government's part would have been abdication. In the early morning of Wednesday [June 29] Government troops invested and attacked the building. A Government proclamation called for the support and co-operation of the public in the steps necessary to bring revolver rule to an end. . . . [The Courts were attacked.] On the third day of a confused siege Free State troops gained a footing in the 'fortress,' battered and breached by shell-fire, and the garrison capitulated after firing a mine that completed the ruin [of the magnificent eighteenth century building] with its irreplaceable contents, the Records of Ireland."—*Ireland (Round Table, Sept.,* 1922).—The post office had been ruined in 1916; the custom house burned by Sinn Feiners in 1921, and to add to the general ruin of the beautiful little city from 5,000 to 6,000 prisoners had been arrested, whom it was proposed to intern on a west coast island, where a camp had been constructed for them. In September, the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, and military courts were set up. In October a proclamation of amnesty for all irregulars who surrendered before October 15 was made, but few took advantage of it. The southern irregulars were for some time under command of Ernest Childers and Mary McSwiney, a sister of Terence McSwiney, and one of the most decided opponents of the treaty. She was taken prisoner on November 4 together with three other women, and all four commenced a hunger strike, which lasted on the part of Miss McSwiney until she was released. During the time of her imprisonment, her sister Agnes McSwiney fasted outside the gate. Erskine Childers, the chief lieutenant of

FOUR COURTS IN DUBLIN
During the fighting of June 28-29, 1922

Eamonn De Valera now seized upon a block of hotels and other buildings. He was dislodged at the end of four days, but half of Sackville Street was a smouldering ruin. Three million pounds worth of damage was done, Rory O'Connor was captured at the taking of the Four Courts; Cathal Burgess was killed, and De Valera escaped. After the operations in Dublin had been concluded the Free State troops, now known as the national army, began to sweep through the country. But the irregulars adopted the guerrila tactics in which they had become so proficient. Roads and bridges were destroyed; the Marconi station at Clifden was partially destroyed; the ocean cables cut; a large part of what was left of the business portion of Cork was burned and the railways destroyed; Admiralty House and the Royal Naval Hospital at Queenstown were burned; bombs were openly exploded in the streets. In fact, the great aim of the new rebel party seemed to be destruction, in an effort to compel all modern social institutions to cease to function. By September Eamonn De Valera was arrested on November 10, and tried before a military court, on the charge of carrying arms. His counsel made desperate efforts to bring his case before the civil courts, but without avail, and he was executed on November 24. He was a brave man, who had fought in the British army throughout the war, and met death unflinchingly. He was said to have been "the brains" of De Valera's movement. It was a movement which was costing the country dear. In August, after the fighting and destruction in Cork had taken place, it was said that the south of Ireland had suffered damage to the extent of $100,000,000 and the new budget included the sum of £10,000,000 for compensation for property destroyed. By the close of the year it was said that the power of the Irregulars was practically broken, but their capacity for destruction was still large. In January, 1923, for instance, a band operating in Sligo seized the railway station, coupled seven or eight steam locomotives together, and sent them over the new sea wall, to

the destruction alike of wall and locomotives, at a cost of over £80,000.

See also AGRICULTURE: Modern: British Isles: 20th century; BREHON LAWS; CATHEDRAL: English, Scottish and Irish; CHURCH OF IRELAND; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Ireland; EDUCATION, ART: Modern: England, Ireland, Scotland; LIBRARIES: Modern: England, etc.; Ireland; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Ireland; MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Celtic: Ireland; PHILOLOGY: 9; 17; RURAL CREDIT.

ALSO IN: M. M. O'Hara, *Chief and tribune, Parnell and Davitt.*—H. Plunkett, *Ireland in the new century.*—T. P. O'Connor, *Parnell movement.*—J. T. Ball, *Irish legislative systems.*—S. L. Gwynn, *Case for Home Rule.*—Earl Grey, *Ireland: Causes of its present condition.*—D. Figgio, *Irish constitution explained.*—H. B. C. Pollard, *Secret societies of Ireland: Their rise and progress.*—C. J. C. Street, *Ireland in 1921.*—F. Hackett, *Story of the Irish nation.*—R. McNeill, *Ulster's stand for union.*—Y. M. Goblet, *L'Irlande dans la crise universelle.*—C. Johnston and C. Spencer, *Ireland's story.*

IRELAND, Constitution of.—The text of the constitution of Irish Free State was published by the provisional government, June 16, 1922. The treaty of December 6, 1921 with its annex was made part of the constitution. The text of the treaty is as follows:

Article I.—Ireland shall have the same constitutional status in the community of nations known as the British Empire as the Dominion of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of New Zealand and the Union of South Africa, with a Parliament having powers to make laws for peace and order and good government in Ireland, and an executive responsible to that Parliament, and shall be styled and known as the Irish Free State.

Art. II.—Subject to provisions hereinafter set out, the position of the Irish Free State, in relation to the Imperial Parliament, the Government and otherwise, shall be that of the Dominion of Canada, and the law, practice and constitutional usage governing the relationship of the Crown or representative of the Crown and the Imperial Parliament to the Dominion of Canada shall govern their relationship to the Irish Free State.

Art. III.—A representative of the Crown in Ireland shall be appointed in like manner as the Governor General of Canada and in accordance with the practice observed in making such appointments.

Art. IV.—The oath to be taken by the members of the Parliament of the Irish Free State shall be in the following form:

"I do solemnly swear true faith and allegiance to the Constitution of the Irish Free State as by law established, and that I will be faithful to his Majesty King George V., and his heirs and successors by law, in virtue of the common citizenship of Ireland with Great Britain and her adherence to and membership of the group of nations forming the British Commonwealth of Nations."

Art. V.—The Irish Free State shall assume liability for service of the public debt of the United Kingdom as existing at the date thereof and toward the payment of war pensions as existing on that date in such proportion as may be fair and equitable, having regard for any just claims on the part of Ireland by way of set-off or counter-claim, the amount of such sums being determined, in default of agreement, by the arbitration of one or more independent persons being citizens of the British Empire.

Art. VI.—Until an arrangement has been made between the British and Irish Governments whereby the Irish Free State undertakes her own coastal defense, defense by sea of Great Britain and Ireland shall be undertaken by his Majesty's imperial forces, but this shall not prevent the construction or maintenance by the Government of the Irish Free State of such vessels as are necessary for the protection of the revenue or the fisheries. The foregoing provisions of this article shall be reviewed at a conference of representatives of the British and Irish Governments to be held at the expiration of five years from the date hereof with a view to the undertaking by Ireland of a share in her own coastal defense.

Art. VII.—The Government of the Irish Free State shall afford to his Majesty's imperial force (a) in time of peace such harbor and other facilities as are indicated in the annex hereto, or such other facilities as may from time to time be agreed between the British Government and the Government of the Irish Free State, and (b) in time of war or of strained relations with a foreign power such harbor and other facilities as the British Government may require for the purposes of such defense, as aforesaid.

Art. VIII.—With a view to securing observance of the principle of international limitation of armaments, if the Government of the Irish Free State establishes and maintains a military defense force, the establishment thereof shall not exceed in size such proportion of the military establishments maintained in Great Britain as that which the population of Ireland bears to the population of Great Britain.

Art. IX.—The ports of Great Britain and the Irish Free State shall be freely open to the ships of the other country on the payment of the customary port and other dues.

Art. X.—The Government of the Irish Free State agrees to pay fair compensation, on terms not less favorable than those accorded by the act of 1920, to Judges, officials, members of the police forces and other public servants who are discharged by it or who retire in consequence of the change of government effected in pursuance of the hereof paragraph.

Provided that this agreement shall not apply to members of the auxiliary police force or persons recruited in Great Britain for the Royal Irish Constabulary during the two years next preceding the date hereof. The British Government will assume responsibility for such compensation or pensions as may be payable to any of these excepted persons.

Art. XI.—Until the expiration of one month from the passing of the act of Parliament for the ratification of this instrument, the powers of the Parliament and Government of the Irish Free State shall not be exercisable as respects Northern Ireland, and the provisions of the Government of Ireland act of 1920 shall, so far as they relate to Northern Ireland, remain of full force and effect, and no election shall be held for the return of members to serve in the Parliament of the Irish Free State for the constituencies of Northern Ireland unless a resolution is passed by both houses of Parliament of Northern Ireland in favor of holding such elections before the end of said month.

Art. XII.—If before the expiration of said month an address is presented to his Majesty by both houses of Parliament of Northern Ireland to that effect, the powers of the Parliament and Govern-

ment of the Irish Free State shall no longer extend to Northern Ireland, and the provisions of the Government of Ireland act of 1920 (including those relating to the Council of Ireland) shall, so far as they relate to Northern Ireland, continue to be of full force and effect, and this instrument shall have effect, subject to the necessary modifications:

Provided, that if such an address is so presented, a commission consisting of three persons, one to be appointed by the Government of the Irish Free State, one to be appointed by the Government of Northern Ireland, and one, who shall be Chairman, to be appointed by the British Government, shall determine in accordance with the wishes of the inhabitants, so far as may be compatible with economic and geographic conditions, the boundaries between Northern Ireland and the rest of Ireland, and for the purposes of the Government of Ireland act of 1920 and of this instrument the boundary of Northern Ireland shall be such as may be determined by such commission.

Art. XIII.—For the purpose of the last foregoing article the powers of the Parliament of Southern Ireland under the Government of Ireland act of 1920, to elect members of the Council of Ireland, shall, after the Parliament of the Irish Free State is constituted, be exercised by that Parliament.

Art. XIV.—After the expiration of said month, if no such address as mentioned in Article XII. hereof is presented, the Parliament of the Government of Northern Ireland shall continue to exercise as respects Northern Ireland the powers conferred upon them by the Government of Ireland act of 1920, but the Parliament of the Government of the Irish Free State shall in Northern Ireland have in relation to matters, in respect of which the Parliament of Northern Ireland has not the power to make laws under that act (including matters which, under said act, are within the jurisdiction of the Council of Ireland), the same powers as in the rest of Ireland, subject to such other provisions as may be agreed to in the manner hereinafter appearing.

Art. XV.—At any time after the date hereof the Government of Northern Ireland and the Provisional Government of Southern Ireland, hereinafter constituted, may meet for the purpose of discussing provisions, subject to which the last of the foregoing article is to operate in the event of no such address as is therein mentioned being presented, and these provisions may include: (a) Safeguards with regard to patronage in Northern Ireland; (b) safeguards with regard to the collection of revenue in Northern Ireland; (c) safeguards with regard to import and export duties affecting the trade and industry of Northern Ireland; (d) safeguards for the minorities in Northern Ireland; (e) settlement of financial relations between Northern Ireland and the Irish Free State; (f) establishment and powers of a local militia in Northern Ireland and the relation of the defense forces of the Irish Free State and of Northern Ireland, respectively, and if at any such meeting provisions are agreed to, the same shall have effect as if they were included among the provisions subject to which the powers of Parliament and of the Government of the Irish Free State are to be exercisable in Northern Ireland under Article XIV. hereof.

Art. XVI.—Neither the Parliament of the Irish Free State nor the Parliament of Northern Ireland shall make any law so as either directly or indirectly to endow any religion or prohibit or restrict the free exercise thereof or give any preference or impose any disability on the account of religious belief or religious status, or affect prejudicially the right of any child to attend school receiving public money without attending the religious instruction of the school, or make any discrimination as respects State aid between schools under the management of the different religious denominations, or divert from any religious denomination or any educational institution any of its property except for public utility purposes and on payment of compensation.

Art. XVII.—By way of provisional arrangement for the administration of Southern Ireland during the interval which must elapse between the date hereof and the constitution of a Parliament and a Government of the Irish Free State in accordance therewith, steps shall be taken forthwith for summoning a meeting of the Members of Parliament elected for the constituencies in Southern Ireland since the passing of the Government of Ireland act in 1920 and for constituting a Provisional Government. And the British Government shall take steps necessary to transfer to such Provisional Government the powers and machinery requisite for the discharge of its duties, provided that every member of such Provisional Government shall have signified in writing his or her acceptance of this instrument. But this arrangement shall not continue in force beyond the expiration of twelve months from the date hereof.

Art. XVIII.—This instrument shall be submitted forthwith by his Majesty's Government for the approval of Parliament and by the Irish signatories to a meeting summoned for the purpose of members elected to sit in the House of Commons of Southern Ireland, and, if approved, it shall be ratified by the necessary legislation.

Signed on behalf of the British delegation:
LLOYD GEORGE,
AUSTEN CHAMBERLAIN,
BIRKENHEAD,
WINSTON CHURCHILL,
WORTHINGTON-EVANS,
GORDON HEWART,
HAMAR GREENWOOD,

On behalf of the Irish delegation:

ART OF GRIOBHTHA (ARTHUR GRIFFITH),
MICHAEL O. O. SILEAIN (MICHAEL COLLINS),
RIOBARD BARTUN (ROBERT C. BARTON),
E. S. DUGAN (EAMON J. DUGGAN),
SEORSA GHABGAIN UI DHUBHT-HAIGH (GEORGE GAVAN DUFFY).

Dated the 6th of December, 1921.

ANNEX

An annex is attached to the treaty. Clause 1 specifies that Admiralty property and rights at the dockyard port of Berehaven are to be retained as at present date and the harbor defenses and facilities for coastal defense by air at Queenstown, Belfast, Lough and Loughswilly to remain under British care, provision also being made for oil, fuel and storage.

Clause 2 provides that a convention shall be made between the two Governments, to give effect to the following conditions: That submarine cables shall not be landed or wireless stations for communication with places outside of Ireland established, except by agreement with the British Government; that existing cable rights and wireless concessions shall not be withdrawn except by agreement with the British Government, and that the British Government shall be entitled to land additional submarine cables or establish additional wireless stations for communication with places

outside of Ireland; that lighthouses, buoys, beacons, &c., shall be maintained by the Irish Government and not be removed or added to except by agreement with the British Government; that war signal stations shall be closed down and left in charge of care and maintenance parties, the Government of the Irish Free State being offered the option of taking them over and working them for commercial purposes, subject to Admiralty inspection, and guaranteeing the upkeep of existing telegraphic communication therewith.

Clause 3 provides that a convention shall be made between the two Governments for the regulation of civil communication by air.

The official text of the constitution is as follows:

PRELIMINARY.—These presents shall be construed with reference to the Articles of Agreement for a treaty between Great Britain and Ireland set forth in the schedule hereto annexed (hereinafter referred to as "the Scheduled Treaty"), which are hereby given the force of law, and if any provision of this Constitution or of any amendment thereof or of any law made thereunder is in any respect repugnant to any of the provisions of the Scheduled Treaty, it shall, to the extent only of such repugnancy, be absolutely void and inoperative and the Parliament and the Executive Council of the Irish Free State shall respectively pass such further legislation and do all such other things as may be necessary to implement the Scheduled Treaty.

Section I.—Fundamental Rights

Art. 1.—The Irish Free State /Saorstat-Eireann is a co-equal member of the Community of Nations forming the British Commonwealth of Nations.

Art. 2.—All powers of government and all authority, legislative, executive and judicial, are derived from the people and the same shall be exercised in the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann through the organizations established by or under, and in accord with, this Constitution.

Art. 3.—Every person domiciled in the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann at the time of the coming into operation of this Constitution who was born in Ireland or either of whose parents was born in Ireland or who has been so domiciled in the area of the jurisdiction of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann for not less than seven years is a citizen of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann and shall within the limits of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann enjoy the privileges and be subject to the obligations of such citizenship, provided that any such person being a citizen of another State may elect not to accept the citizenship hereby conferred; and the conditions governing the future acquisition and termination of citizenship in the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann shall be determined by law. Men and women have equal rights as citizens.

Art. 4.—The national language of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann is the Irish language, but the English language shall be equally recognized as an official language. Nothing in this article shall prevent special provisions being made by the Parliament /Oireachtas for districts or areas in which only one language is in use.

Art. 5.—No title of honor in respect of any services rendered in or in relation to the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann may be conferred on any citizen of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann except with the approval or upon the advice of the Executive Council of the State.

Art. 6.—The liberty of the person is inviolable and no person shall be deprived of his liberty except in accordance with law. Upon complaint made by or on behalf of any person that he is being unlawfully detained, the High Court /Ard Chuirt and any and every Judge thereof shall forthwith inquire into the same and may make an order requiring the person in whose custody such person shall be detained to produce the body of the person so detained before such Court or Judge without delay and to certify in writing as to the cause of the detention and such Court or Judge shall thereupon order the release of such person unless satisfied that he is being detained in accordance with the law.

Art. 7.—The dwelling of each citizen is inviolable and shall not be forcibly entered except in accordance with law.

Art. 8.—Freedom of conscience and the free profession and practice of religion are inviolable rights of every citizen, and no law may be made either directly or indirectly to endow any religion, or prohibit or restrict the free exercise thereof or give any preference, or impose any disability on account of religious belief or religious status, or affect prejudicially the right of any child to attend a school receiving public money without attending the religious instruction at the school, or make any discrimination as respects State aid between schools under the management of different religious denominations, or divert from any religious denomination or any educational institution any of its property except for the purpose of roads, railways, lighting, water or drainage works, or other works of public utility, and on payment of compensation.

Art. 9.—The right of free expression of opinion as well as the right to assemble peaceably and without arms, and to form associations or unions is guaranteed for purposes not opposed to public morality. Laws regulating the manner in which the right of forming associations and the right of free assembly may be exercised shall contain no political, religious or class distinction.

Art. 10.—All citizens of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann have the right to free elementary education.

Art. 11.—The rights of the State in and to natural resources, the use of which is of national importance, shall not be alienated. Their exploitation by private individuals or associations shall be permitted only under State supervision and in accordance with conditions and regulations approved by legislation.

Section II.—Legislative Provisions

A. The Legislature

Art. 12.—A Legislature is hereby created to be known as the Parliament of the Irish Free State /Oireachtas. It shall consist of the King and two houses—the Chamber of Deputies /Dail Eireann and the Senate /Seanad Eireann. The power of making laws for the peace, order and good government of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann is vested in the Parliament /Oireachtas.

Art. 13.—The Parliament /Oireachtas shall sit in or near the City of Dublin or in such other place as from time to time it may determine.

Art. 14.—All citizens of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann, without distinction of sex, who have reached the age of twenty-one years and who comply with the provisions of the prevailing electoral laws shall have the right to vote for members of the Chamber of Deputies /Dail Eireann, and to take part in the Referendum or Initiative. All citizens of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann, without distinction of sex, who have reached the

age of 30 years and who comply with the provisions of the prevailing electoral laws shall have the right to vote for members of the Senate /Seanad Eireann. No voter may exercise more than one vote and the voting shall be by secret ballot. The mode and place of exercising this right shall be determined by law.

Art. 15.—Every citizen who has reached the age of 21 years and who is not placed under disability or incapacity by the Constitution or by law shall be eligible to become a member of the Chamber of Deputies /Dail Eireann.

Art. 16.—No person may be at the same time a member both of the Chamber /Dail Eireann and of the Senate /Seanad Eireann.

Art. 17.—The oath to be taken by members of Parliament /Oireachtas shall be in the following form:

> I .....do solemnly swear true faith and allegiance to the Constitution of the Irish Free State as by law established, and that I will be faithful to H. M. King George V., his heirs and successors by law in virtue of the common citizenship of Ireland with Great Britain and her adherence to and membership of the group of nations forming the British Commonwealth of Nations.

Such oath shall be taken and subscribed by every member of the Parliament /Oireachtas before taking his seat therein before the representative of the Crown or some person authorized by him.

Art. 18.—Every member of the Parliament /Oireachtas shall, except in case of treason, felony or breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest in going to and returning from and while within the precincts of either house, and shall not be amenable to any action or proceeding at law in respect to any utterance in either house.

Art. 19.—All reports and publications of the Parliament /Oireachtas or of either house thereof shall be privileged and utterances made in either house wherever published shall be privileged.

Art. 20.—Each house shall make its own rules and Standing Orders, with power to attach penalties for their infringement, and shall have power to insure freedom of debate, to protect its official documents and the private papers of its members, and to protect itself and its members against any person or persons interfering with, molesting or attempting to corrupt its members in the exercise of their duties.

Art. 21.—Each house shall elect its own Chairman and Deputy Chairman, and shall prescribe their powers, duties and terms of office.

Art. 22.—All matters in each house shall, save as otherwise provided by this Constitution, be determined by a majority of the votes of the members present other than the Chairman or presiding member, who shall have and exercise a casting vote in the case of an equality of votes. The number of members necessary to constitute a meeting of either house for the exercise of its powers shall be determined by its Standing Orders.

Art. 23.—The Parliament /Oireachtas shall make provision for the payment of its members and may, in addition, provide them with free traveling facilities in any part of Ireland.

Art. 24.—The Parliament /Oireachtas shall hold at least one session each year. The Parliament /Oireachtas shall be summoned and dissolved by the Representative of the Crown in the name of the King, and subject as aforesaid the Chamber /Dail Eireann shall fix the date of reassembly of the Parliament /Oireachtas and the date of the conclusion of the session of each house provided that the sessions of the Senate /Seanad Eireann shall not be concluded without its own consent.

Art. 25.—Sittings of each house of the Parliament /Oireachtas shall be public. In cases of special emergency either house may hold a private sitting with the assent of two-thirds of the members present.

B. The Chamber of Deputies /Dail Eireann

Art. 26.—The Chamber /Dail Eireann shall be composed of members who represent constituencies determined by law. The number of members shall be fixed from time to time by the Parliament /Oireachtas, but the total number of members of the Chamber /Dail Eireann shall not be fixed at less than one member for each thirty thousand of the population, or at more than one member for each twenty thousand of the population: Provided that the proportion between the number of members to be elected at any time for each constituency and the population of each constituency, as ascertained at the last preceding census, shall, so far as possible, be identical throughout the country. The members shall be elected upon principles of proportional representation. The Parliament /Oireachtas shall revise the constituencies at least once in every ten years, with due regard to changes in distribution of the population, but any alterations in the constituencies shall not take effect during the life of the Chamber /Dail Eireann sitting when such revision is made.

Art. 27.—At a general election for the Chamber /Dail Eireann the polls shall be held on the same day throughout the country and that day shall be a day not later than thirty days after the date of the dissolution and shall be proclaimed a public holiday. The Chamber /Dail Eireann shall meet within one month of such day, and shall unless earlier dissolved continue for four years from the date of its first meeting and not longer. The Chamber /Dail Eireann may not at any time be dissolved except on the advice of the Executive Council.

Art. 28.—In case of death, resignation or disqualification of a member of the Chamber /Dail Eireann, the vacancy shall be filled by election in manner to be determined by law.

C. The Senate /Seanad Eireann

Art. 29.—The Senate /Seanad Eireann shall be composed of citizens who have done honor to the nation by reason of useful public service or who, because of special qualifications or attainments, represent important aspects of the nation's life.

Art. 30.—Every university in the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann shall be entitled to elect two representatives to the Senate /Seanad Eireann. The number of Senators exclusive of university members shall be fifty-six. A citizen to be eligible for membership of the Senate /Seanad must be a person eligible to become a member of the Chamber /Dail Eireann and must have reached the age of 35 years. Subject to any provision for the constitution of the first Senate /Seanad the term of office of a member of the Senate /Seanad shall be twelve years.

Art. 31.—One-fourth of the members of the Senate /Seanad Eireann exclusive of the university members shall be elected every three years from a panel constituted as hereinafter mentioned at an election at which the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann shall form one electoral area, and the elections shall be held on principles of proportional representation. One member shall be elected by

each university entitled to representation in the Senate /Seanad every six years.

Art. 32.—Before each election of members of the Senate /Seanad Eireann — other than university members—a panel shall be formed consisting of—

(a) Three times as many qualified persons as there are members to be elected, of whom two-thirds shall be nominated by the Chamber /Dail Eireann, voting according to principles of proportional representation, and one-third shall be nominated by the Senate /Seanad Eireann voting according to principles of proportional representation; and

(b) Such persons who have at any time been members of the Senate /Seanad—including members about to retire—as signify by notice in writing addressed to the President of the Executive Council their desire to be included in the panel.

The method of proposal and selection for nomination shall be decided by the Chamber /Dail Eireann and Senate /Seanad, respectively, with special reference to the necessity for arranging for the representation of important interests and institutions in the country; provided that each proposal shall be in writing and shall state the qualifications of the person proposed. As soon as the panel has been formed a list of the names of the members of the panel arranged in alphabetical order with their qualifications shall be published.

Art. 33.—In case of the death, resignation, or disqualification of a member of the Senate /Seanad Eireann—other than a university member—his place shall be filled by a vote of the Senate /Seanad. Any Senator so chosen shall retire from office at the conclusion of the three-year period then running and the vacancy or vacancies thus created shall be additional to the places to be filled under Article 31. The term of office of the members chosen at the election after the first fourteen elected shall conclude at the end of the period or periods at which the Senator or Senators by whose death or withdrawal the vacancy or vacancies was or were originally created would be due to retire; provided that the fifteenth member shall be deemed to have filled the vacancy first created in order of time and so on.

In case of the death, resignation or disqualification of a university member of the Senate /Seanad, the university by which he was elected shall elect a person to fill his place, and the member so elected shall hold office so long as the member in whose place he was elected would have held office.

D. Legislation

Art. 34.—The Chamber /Dail Eireann shall in relation to the subject matter of money bills, as hereinafter defined, have legislative authority exclusive of the Senate /Seanad Eireann.

A money bill means a bill which contains only provisions dealing with all or any of the following subjects—namely, the imposition, repeal, remission, alteration or regulation of taxation; the imposition for the payment of debt or other financial purposes of charges on public moneys, or the variation or repeal of any such charges; supply; the appropriation, receipt, custody, issue or audit of accounts of public money; the raising or guarantee of any loan or the repayment thereof; subordinate matters incidental to those subjects or any of them. In this definition the expressions "taxation," "public money," and "loan," respectively, do not include any taxation, money or loan raised by local authorities or bodies for local purposes.

The Chairman of the Chamber /Dail shall certify any bill which in his opinion is a money bill to be a money bill, but if within three days after a bill has been passed by the Chamber /Dail two-fifths of the members of either house by notice in writing addressed to the Chairman of the house of which they are members so require, the question whether the bill is or is not a money bill shall be referred to a Committee of Privileges consisting of three members elected by each House with a Chairman, who shall be the Senior Judge of the Supreme Court able and willing to act, and who, in the case of an equality of votes, but not otherwise, shall be entitled to vote. The decision of the committee on the question shall be final and conclusive.

Art. 35.—The Chamber /Dail Eireann shall as soon as possible after the commencement of each financial year consider the budget of receipts and expenditure of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann for that year, and, save in so far as may be provided by specific enactment in each case, the legislation required to give effect to the budget of each year shall be enacted within that year.

Art. 36.—Money shall not be appropriated by vote, resolution, or law, unless the purpose of the appropriation has in the same session been recommended by a message from the Representative of the Crown acting on the advice of the Executive Council.

Art. 37.—Every bill initiated in and passed by the Chamber /Dail Eireann shall be sent to the Senate /Seanad Eireann, and may, unless it be a money bill, be amended in the Senate /Seanad Eireann, and the Chamber /Dail Eireann shall consider any such amendment; but a bill passed by the Chamber /Dail Eireann and considered by the Senate /Seanad Eireann shall, not later than two hundred and seventy days after it shall have been first sent to the Senate /Seanad, or such longer period as may be agreed upon by the two houses, be deemed to be passed by both houses in its form as last passed by the Chamber /Dail; provided that any money bill shall be sent to the Senate /Seanad for its recommendations and at a period not longer than fourteen days after it shall have been sent to the Senate /Seanad, it shall be returned to the Chamber /Dail, which may pass it, accepting or rejecting all or any of the recommendations of the Senate /Seanad, and as so passed shall be deemed to have been passed by both houses. When a bill other than a money bill has been sent to the Senate /Seanad a joint sitting of the members of both houses may, on a resolution passed by the Senate /Seanad, be convened for the purpose of debating, but not of voting upon, the proposals of the bill or any amendment of the same.

Art. 38.—A bill may be initiated in the Senate /Seanad Eireann and if passed by the Senate /Seanad shall be introduced into the Chamber /Dail Eireann. If amended by the Chamber /Dail the bill shall be considered as a bill initiated in the Chamber /Dail. If rejected by the Chamber /Dail it shall not be introduced again in the same session, but the Chamber /Dail may reconsider it on its own motion.

Art. 39.—A bill passed by either house and accepted by the other house shall be deemed to be passed by both houses.

Art. 40.—So soon as any bill shall have been passed or deemed to have been passed by both houses, the Executive Council shall present the same to the representative of the Crown for the signification by him, in the King's name, of the King's assent, and such representative may withhold the King's assent or reserve the bill for the signification of the King's pleasure; provided that

the representative of the Crown shall in the withholding of such assent to or the reservation of any bill, act in accordance with the law, practice and constitutional usage governing the like withholding of assent or reservation in the Dominion of Canada.

A bill reserved for the signification of the King's pleasure shall not have any force unless and until within one year from the day on which it was presented to the representative of the Crown for the King's assent, the representative of the Crown signifies by speech or message to each of the houses of the Parliament /Oireachtas), or by proclamation, that it has received the assent of the King in Council.

An entry of every such speech, message or proclamation shall be made in the Journal of each house and a duplicate thereof, duly attested, shall be delivered to the proper officer to be kept among the records of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann.

Art. 41.—As soon as may be after any law has received the King's assent, the clerk, or such officer as the Chamber may appoint for the purpose, shall cause two fair copies of such law to be made, one being in the Irish language and the other in the English language, (one of which copies shall be signed by the representative of the Crown to be enrolled for record in the office of such officer of the Supreme Court as the Chamber /Dail Eireann may determine, and such copies shall be conclusive evidence as to the provisions of every such law, and in case of conflict between the two copies so deposited, that signed by the representative of the Crown shall prevail.

Art. 42.—The Parliament /Oireachtas shall have no power to declare acts to be infringements of the law which were not so at the date of their commission.

Art. 43.—The Parliament /Oireachtas may create subordinate legislatures, but it shall not confer thereon any powers in respect of the navy, army or air force, alienage or naturalization, coinage, legal tender, trade marks, designs, merchandise marks, copyright, patent rights, weights and measures, submarine cables, wireless telegraphy, Post Office, railways, aerial navigation, customs and excise.

Art. 44.—The Parliament /Oireachtas may provide for the establishment of functional or vocational councils representing branches of the social and economic life of the nation. A law establishing any such council shall determine its powers, rights and duties, and its relation to the Government of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann.

Art. 45.—The Parliament /Oireachtas has the exclusive right to regulate the raising and maintaining of such armed forces as are mentioned in the Scheduled Treaty in the territory of the Irish Free State /Saorstat and every such force shall be subject to the control of the Parliament /Oireachtas.

E. Referendum and Initiative

Art. 46.—Any bill passed or deemed to have been passed by both houses may be suspended for a period of ninety days on the written demand of two-fifths of the members of the Chamber /Dail Eireann or of a majority of the members of the Senate /Seanad Eireann presented to the President of the Executive Council not later than seven days from the day on which such bill shall have been so passed or deemed to have been so passed. Such a bill shall be submitted by referendum to the decision of the people if demanded before the expiration of the ninety days, either by a resolution of the Senate /Seanad Eireann assented to by three-fifths of the members of the Senate /Seanad Eireann or by a petition signed by not less than one-twentieth of the voters then on the register of voters, and the decision of the people on such referendum shall be conclusive. These provisions shall not apply to money bills or to such bills as shall be declared by both houses to be necessary for the immediate preservation of the public peace, health or safety.

Art. 47.—The Parliament /Oireachtas may provide for the initiation by the people of proposals for laws or constitutional amendments. Should the Parliament /Oireachtas fail to make such provision within two years, it shall on the petition of not less than 100,000 voters on the register, of whom not more than 20,000 shall be voters in any one constituency, either make such provisions or submit the question to the people for decision in accordance with the ordinary regulations governing the referendum. Any legislation passed by the Parliament /Oireachtas providing for such initiation by the people shall provide (1) that such proposals may be initiated on a petition of 50,000 voters on the register, (2) that if the Parliament /Oireachtas rejects a proposal so initiated, it shall be submitted to the people for decision in accordance with the ordinary regulations governing the referendum; and (3) that if the Parliament /Oireachtas enacts a proposal so initiated, such enactment shall be subject to the provisions respecting ordinary legislation or amendments of the Constitution as the case may be.

Art. 48.—Save in the case of actual invasion, the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann shall not be committed to active participation in any war without the assent of the Parliament /Oireachtas.

Art. 49.—Amendments of this Constitution within the terms of the Scheduled Treaty may be made by the Parliament /Oireachtas, but every such amendment must be submitted to a referendum of the people; and shall not be passed unless a majority of the voters on the register record their votes and either a majority of the voters on the register or two-thirds of the votes recorded are in favor of the amendment.

Section III.—The Executive

A. Executive Council /Aireacht

Art. 50.—The Executive Authority of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann is hereby declared to be vested in the King, and shall be exercisable, in accordance with the law, practice and constitutional usage governing the exercise of the executive authority in the case of the Dominion of Canada, by the Representative of the Crown. There shall be a Council to aid and advise in the government of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann to be styled the Executive Council /Aireacht. The Executive Council shall be responsible to the Chamber /Dail Eireann, and shall consist of not more than twelve Ministers /Airi appointed by the Representative of the Crown, of whom four Ministers shall be members of the Chamber /Dail Eireann and a number not exceeding eight, chosen from all citizens eligible for election to the Chamber /Dail Eireann, who shall not be members of Parliament /Oireachtas during their term of office, and who, if at the time of their appointment they are members of Parliament /Oireachtas, shall by virtue of such appointment vacate their seats; provided that the

Chamber /Dail Eireann may from time to time on the motion of the President of the Executive Council determine that a particular Minister or Ministers not exceeding three may be members of Parliament /Oireachtas in addition to the four members of the Chamber /Dail Eireann above mentioned.

Art. 51.—The Ministers who are required to be members of the Chamber /Dail Eireann shall include the President of the Executive Council /Uachtaran and the Vice President of the Executive Council /Tanaist. The President of the Executive Council shall be the chief of the Executive Council and shall be appointed on the nomination of the Chamber /Dail, and the Vice President of the Executive Council and the other Ministers who are members of Parliament /Oireachtas shall be appointed on the nomination of the President of the Executive Council; and he and the Ministers nominated by him shall retire from office should he fail to be supported by a majority in the Chamber /Dail, but the President of the Executive Council and such Ministers shall continue to carry on their duties until their successors are appointed.

Art. 52.—Ministers who are not members of the Parliament /Oireachtas shall be nominated by a committee of members of the Chamber /Dail Eireann chosen by a method to be determined by the Chamber /Dail so as to be impartially representative of the Chamber /Dail. Such Ministers shall be chosen with due regard to their suitability for office and should as far as possible be generally representative of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann as a whole rather than of groups or of parties. Should a nomination not be acceptable to the Chamber /Dail, the committee shall continue to propose names until one is found acceptable.

Art. 53.—Each Minister not a member of the Parliament /Oireachtas shall be the responsible head of the Executive Department or Departments as head of which he has been appointed as aforesaid: provided that should arrangements for functional or vocational councils be made by the Parliament /Oireachtas these Ministers or any of them may, should the Parliament /Oireachtas so decide, be members of and be nominated on the advice of such councils. The term of office of any such Minister shall be the term of the Chamber /Dail Eireann existing at the time of his appointment or such other period as may be fixed by law, but he shall continue in office until his successor shall have been appointed; and no such Minister shall be removed from office during his term unless the proposal to remove him has been previously submitted to a committee chosen by a method to be determined by the Chamber /Dail so as to be impartially representative of the Chamber /Dail and then only if the committee shall have reported that such Minister has been guilty of malfeasance in office or has not been performing his duties in a competent and satisfactory manner, or has failed to carry out the lawfully expressed will of Parliament /Oireachtas.

Art. 54.—The Ministers who are members of the Parliament /Oireachtas shall alone be responsible for all matters relating to external affairs, whether policy, negotiations, or executive acts. Subject to the foregoing provision, the Executive Council shall meet and act as a collective authority; provided, however, that each Minister shall be individually responsible to the Chamber /Dail Eireann for the administration of the department or departments of which he is head.

Art. 55.—Ministers who are not members of the Chamber /Dail Eireann shall by virtue of their office possess all the rights and privileges of a member of the Chamber /Dail except the right to vote, and shall, if not members of the Parliament /Oireachtas, comply with the provisions of Article 17 as if they were members of the Chamber /Dail and may be required by the Chamber /Dail to attend and answer questions.

Art. 56.—Should the President of the Executive Council die, resign, or be permanently incapacitated, the Vice President of the Executive Council shall act in his place until a President of the Executive Council shall be elected. The Vice President of the Executive Council shall also act in the place of the President of the Executive Council during his temporary absence.

Art. 57.—The members of the Executive Council shall receive such remuneration as may from time to time be prescribed by law, but the remuneration of any Minister shall not be diminished during his term of office.

Art. 58.—The Representative of the Crown, who shall be styled the Governor General of the Irish Free State, shall be appointed in like manner as the Governor General of Canada and in accordance with the practice observed in the making of such appointments. The salary of the Governor General of the Irish Free State shall be of the like amount as that now payable to the Governor General of the Commonwealth of Australia, and shall be charged on the public funds of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann, and suitable provision shall be made out of those funds for the maintenance of his official residence and establishment.

Art. 59.—The Executive Council shall prepare the budget of receipts and expenditure of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann for each financial year and shall present it to the Chamber /Dail Eireann before the close of the previous financial year.

B. Financial Control

Art. 60.—All revenues of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann, from whatever source arising, shall, subject to such exceptions as may be provided by law, form one fund, and shall be appropriated for the purposes of the Irish Free State (Saorstat Eireann) in the manner and subject to the charges and liabilities imposed by law.

Art. 61.—The Chamber /Dail Eireann shall appoint a Comptroller and Auditor General to act on behalf of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann. He shall control all disbursements and shall audit all accounts of moneys administered by or under the authority of the Parliament /Oireachtas and shall report to the Chamber /Dail at stated periods to be determined by law.

Art. 62.—The Comptroller and Auditor General shall not be removed except for stated misbehavior or incapacity on resolutions passed by the Chamber /Dail Eireann and the Senate /Seanad Eireann. Subject to this provision the terms and conditions of his tenure of office shall be fixed by law. He shall not be a member of the Parliament /Oireachtas nor shall he hold any other office or position of emolument

Section IV.—The Judiciary

Art. 63.—The judicial power of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann shall be exercised and justice administered in the public courts established by Parliament /Oireachtas by Judges appointed in manner hereinafter provided. These

courts shall comprise Courts of First Instance and a Court of Final Appeal to be called the Supreme Court /Cuirt Uachtarach. The Courts of First Instance shall include a High Court /Ard Chuirt, invested with full original jurisdiction in and power to determine all matters and questions whether of law or fact, civil or criminal, and also courts of local and limited jurisdiction with a right of appeal as determined by law.

Art. 64.—The judicial power of the High Court shall extend to the question of the validity of any law having regard to the provisions of the Constitution. In all cases in which such matters shall come into question, the High Court alone shall exercise original jurisdiction.

Art. 65.—The Supreme Court of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann shall, with such exceptions (not including cases which involve questions as to the validity of any law), and subject to such regulations as may be prescribed by law, have appellate jurisdiction from all decisions of the High Court. The decision of the Supreme Court shall in all cases be final and conclusive, and shall not be reviewed or capable of being reviewed by any other court, tribunal or authority whatsoever.

Provided that nothing in this Constitution shall impair the right of any person to petition his Majesty for special leave to appeal from the Supreme Court to his Majesty in Council or the right of his Majesty to grant such leave.

Art. 66. The number of Judges, the constitution and organization of, and distribution of business and jurisdiction among the said courts and Judges, and all matters of procedure shall be as prescribed by the laws for the time being in force and the regulations made thereunder.

Art. 67.—The Judges of the Supreme Court and of the High Court and of all other courts established in pursuance of this constitution shall be appointed by the Representative of the Crown on the advice of the Executive Council. The Judges of the Supreme Court and of the High Court shall not be removed except for stated misbehavior or incapacity, and then only by resolutions passed by both the Chamber /Dail Eireann and the Senate /Seanad Eireann. The age of retirement, the remuneration and the pension of such Judges on retirement, and the declarations to be taken by them on appointment, shall be prescribed by law. Such remuneration may not be diminished during their continuance in office. The terms of appointment of the Judges of such other courts as may be created shall be prescribed by law.

Art. 68.—All Judges shall be independent in the exercise of their functions and subject only to the Constitution and the law. A Judge shall not be eligible to sit in Parliament /Oireachtas and shall not hold any other office or position of emolument.

Art. 69.—No one shall be tried save in due course of law, and extraordinary courts shall not be established. The jurisdiction of courts-martial shall not be extended to or exercised over the civil population save in time of war, and for acts committed in time of war, and in accordance with the regulations to be prescribed by law. Such jurisdiction shall not be exercised in any area in which the civil courts are open or capable of being held, and no person shall be removed from one area to another for the purpose of creating such jurisdiction.

Art. 70.—A member of the armed forces of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann not on active service shall not be tried by any court-martial for an offense cognizable by the civil courts.

Art. 71.—No person shall, save in case of summary jurisdiction prescribed by law for minor offences, be tried without a jury on any criminal charge.

Section V.—Transitory Provisions

Art. 72.—Subjects to this Constitution and to the extent to which they are not inconsistent therewith, the laws in force in the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann at the date of the coming into operation of this Constitution shall continue to be of full force and effect until the same or any of them shall have been repealed or amended by enactment of the Parliament /Oireachtas.

Art. 73.—Until courts have been established for the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann in accordance with this Constitution, the Supreme Court of Judicature, County Courts, Courts of Quarter Session and Courts of Summary Jurisdiction, as at present existing, shall for the time being continue to exercise the same juristliction as heretofore, and any Judge or Justice, being a member of any such court, holding office at the time when this Constitution comes into operation, shall for the time being continue to be a member thereof and hold office by the like tenure and upon the like terms as heretofore, unless, in the case of a Judge of the said Supreme Court or of a County Court, he signifies to the Representative of the Crown his desire to resign. Any vacancies in any of the said courts so continued may be filled by appointment made in like manner as appointments to Judgeships in the courts established under this Constitution.

Provided that the provisions of Article 65 as to the decisions of the Supreme Court established under this Constitution shall apply to decisions of the Court of Appeal continued by this article.

Art. 74.—If any Judge of the said Supreme Court of Judicature or of any of the said County Courts resigns as aforesaid, or if any such Judge, on the establishment of courts under this Constitution, is not with his consent appointed to be a Judge of any such court, he shall, for the purpose of Article 10 of the Scheduled Treaty, be treated as if he had retired in consequence of the change of government effected in pursuance of the said treaty, but the rights so conferred shall be without prejudice to any rights or claims that he may have against the British Government.

Art. 75.—Every existing officer of the Provisional Government who has been transferred to that Government from the British Government, and every existing officer of the British Government who, at the date of the coming into operation of this Constitution, is engaged or employed in the administration of public services which on that date become public services of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann—except those whose services have been lent by the British Government to the Provisional Government—shall on that date be transferred to and become an officer of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann and shall hold office by a tenure, and shall be entitled to the benefit of Article 10 of the Scheduled Treaty.

Art. 76.—As respects departmental property, assets, rights and liabilities, the Government of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann shall be regarded as the successors of the Provisional Government, and, to the extent to which functions of any department of the British Government become functions of the Government of the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann, as the successors of such department of the British Government.

Art. 77.—After the date on which this Constitution comes into operation, the House of Parliament elected in pursuance of the Irish Free State (Agreement) act, 1922 (being the Constituent Assembly for the settlement of this Constitution), may, for a period not exceeding one year from that date, but subject to compliance by the members thereof with the provisions of Article 17 of this Constitution, exercise all the powers and authorities conferred on the Chamber /Dail Eireann by this Constitution, and the first election for the Chamber /Dail Eireann under Articles 26 and 27 hereof shall take place as soon as possible after the expiration of such period.

Art. 78.—The first Senate /Seanad Eireann shall be constituted immediately after the coming into operation of this Constitution in the manner following, that is to say:

(a) The first Senate /Seanad shall consist of two members elected by each of the universities in the Irish Free State /Saorstat Eireann and fifty-six other members, of whom twenty-eight shall be elected and twenty-eight shall be nominated.

(b) The twenty-eight nominated members of the Senate /Seanad shall be nominated by the President of the Executive Council, who shall, in making such nominations, have special regard to the providing of representation for groups or parties not then adequately represented in the Chamber /Dail Eireann.

(c) The twenty-eight elected members of the Senate /Seanad shall be elected by the Chamber /Dail Eireann voting on principles of proportional representation.

(d) Of the university members, one member elected by each university to be selected by lot, shall hold office for six years; the remaining university members shall hold office for the full period of twelve years.

(e) Of the twenty-eight nominated members, fourteen, to be selected by lot, shall hold office for the full period of twelve years; the remaining fourteen shall hold office for . . . six years.

(f) Of the twenty-eight elected members, the first fourteen elected shall hold office for the period of nine years, the remaining fourteen shall hold office for the period of three years.

(g) At the termination of the period of office of any such members, members shall be elected in their place in manner provided by Article 31.

(h) Casual vacancies shall be filled in manner provided by Article 33.

(i) For the purpose of the election of members for any university under this article, all persons whose names appear on the register for the university in force at the date of the coming into operation of this Constitution shall, notwithstanding anything in Article 14, be entitled to vote.

Art. 79.—The passing and adoption of this Constitution by the Constituent Assembly and the British Parliament shall be announced as soon as may be, and not later than the sixth day of December, nineteen hundred and twenty-two, by Proclamation of the Majesty, and this Constitution shall come into operation on the issue of such proclamation.

IRENAEUS, Saint (c. 130-c. 202), Greek church father. Became bishop of Lyons, 177. See CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Church in Gaul and Spain.

IRENE (c. 752-803), Roman empress (Eastern), 797-802. See ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY.

IRIGOYEN, Hipólito (1853-), president of Argentine since 1916. See ARGENTINA: 1916-1917; U.S.A.: 1921.

IRIS, British cruiser, which took part in attack on Zeebrugge. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: a, 1.

IRISH ANNALS. See ANNALS: Irish annals.

IRISH CHURCH. See CHRISTIANITY: 5th-9th centuries.

IRISH CHURCH ACT (1869). See CHURCH OF IRELAND.

IRISH FREE STATE. See IRELAND: 1921; 1922 (September-January); also 1691: Maps.

IRISH HOME RULE BILL (1893). See ENGLAND: 1892-1894.

IRISH LABORERS' ACT. See IRELAND: 1906.

IRISH LAND BILLS (1870, 1886). See ENGLAND: 1868-1870; 1885-1886.

IRISH LANGUAGE. See PHILOLOGY: 9; 17.

IRISH LAW. See BREHON LAWS: Description.

IRISH LITERATURE. See ANNALS, IRISH; CELTS: Ancient Irish sagas; DRAMA: 1892-1921; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 3rd century; 1880-1920.

IRISH MUSIC. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Celtic: Ireland.

IRISH NATIONAL LAND LEAGUE (1879). See IRELAND: 1873-1879.

IRISH NATIONAL LEAGUE. See IRELAND: 1882.

IRISH NIGHT. See LONDON: 1688.

IRISH PALATINE COUNTIES. See PALATINE, IRISH COUNTIES.

IRISH REBELLION (1916). See IRELAND: 1916 (April).

IRISH REPUBLIC. See IRELAND: 1919.

IRISH REPUBLICAN BROTHERHOOD (1858). See IRELAND: 1847-1860.

IRISH REVOLUTIONARY BROTHERHOOD. See IRELAND: 1858-1867.

IRISH TENANT LEAGUE (1850). See IRELAND: 1847-1860.

IRISH TITHES. See ENGLAND: 1832-1833.

IRISH VOLUNTEERS. See IRELAND: 1913-1916; 1914-1916.

IRKUTSK, capital of the province of Irkutsk in the southern part of central Siberia (see ASIA: Map), scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: a, 2; RECREATION: 1914-1918.

IRLES, town in France, in the Somme region, taken by the Allies during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: e, 6.

IRON. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Early industrial processes; 16th-17th centuries: Industry; 18th century: Industry; 19th century: Industry; ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Minoan Age: B.C. 1200-750; MICHIGAN: 1842-1900; MINNESOTA: 1884-1916; U.S.A.: 1865-1872.

Combinations in production. See TRUSTS: United States: Climax of consolidation.

IRON AGE. See ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Minoan Age; EUROPE: Prehistoric: Iron Age; STONE AGE.

IRON CROSS, Order of the, Prussian order of knighthood instituted in 1815 by Frederick William III. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VIII. War medals: a.

IRON CROWN OF LOMBARDY. See LOMBARDY, IRON CROWN OF.

IRON MASK, Man in the.—"It is known that a masked and unknown prisoner, the object of extraordinary surveillance, died, in 1703, in the Bastille, to which he had been taken from the St. Marguerite Isles in 1698; he had remained about ten years incarcerated in these isles, and traces of him are with certainty found in the fort of Exilles, and at Pignerol, as far back as about 1681. This singular fact, which began to be vaguely bruited a little before the middle of

the 18th century, excited immense curiosity after Voltaire had availed himself of it in his 'Siècle de Louis XIV.,' wherein he exhibited it in the most touching and tragic light. A thousand conjectures circulated: no great personage had disappeared in Europe about 1680. What interest so powerful had the government of Louis XIV. for concealing this mysterious visage from every human eye? Many explanations more or less plausible, more or less chimerical, have been attempted in regard to the 'man with the iron mask' (an erroneous designation that has prevailed; the mask was not of iron, but of black velvet; it was probably one of those 'loups' so long in use), when, in 1837, the bibliophile Jacob (M. Paul Lacroix) published a very ingenious book on this subject, in which he discussed all the hypotheses, and skilfully commented on all the facts and dates, in order to establish that, in 1680, Fouquet was represented as dead; that he was masked, sequestered anew, and dragged from fortress to fortress till his real death in 1703. It is impossible for us to admit this solution of the problem; the authenticity of the minister Louvois' correspondence with the governor of the prison of Pignerol, on the subject of Fouquet's death, in March, 1680, appears to us incontestable; and did this material proof not exist, we still could not believe in a return of rigor so strange, so barbarous, and so unaccountable on the part of Louis XIV., when all the official documents attest that his resentment had gradually been appeased, and that an old man who asked nothing more than a little free air before dying had ceased to be feared. There are many more presumptions in favor of Baron Heiss' opinion, reproduced by several writers, and, in the last instance, by M. Delort ('Histoire de l'homme au masque de fer'; 1825),—the opinion that the 'man with a mask' was a secretary of the Duke of Mantua, named Mattioli, carried off by order of Louis XIV. in 1679, for having deceived the French government, and having sought to form a coalition of the Italian princes against it. But however striking, in certain respects, may be the resemblances between Mattioli and the 'iron mask,' equally guarded by the governor St. Mars at Pignerol and at Exilles, however grave may be the testimony according to which Mattioli was transferred to the St. Marguerite Isles, the subaltern position of Mattioli, whom Catinat and Louvois, in their letters, characterize as a 'knave' and St. Mars threatens with a cudgel, ill accords, we do not say with the traditions relating to the profound respect shown the prisoner by the keepers, the governor, and even the minister,—these traditions may be contested,—but with the authentic details and documents given by the learned and judicious Father Griffet in regard to the extreme mystery in which the prisoner at the Bastille was enveloped, more than twenty years after the abduction of the obscure Mattioli, in regard to the mask that he never put off, in regard to the precautions taken after his death to annihilate the traces of his sojourn at the Bastille, which explains why nothing was found concerning him after the taking of that fortress. Many minds will always persist in seeking, under this impenetrable mask, a more dangerous secret, a mysterious accusing resemblance; and the most popular opinion, although the most void of all proof, will always doubtless be that suffered to transpire by Voltaire, under cover of his publisher, in the eighth edition of his 'Dictionnaire philosophique' (1771). According to this opinion, the honor of the royal household was involved in the secret, and the unknown victim was an illegitimate son of Anne of Austria. The only private crime of which Louis XIV. was perhaps capable, was a crime inspired by fanaticism for monarchical honor. However this may be, history has no right to pronounce upon what will never emerge from the domain of conjecture."—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV, v.* 1, *p.* 40, *foot-note.*—"The Paris correspondent of the 'Daily Telegraph' records a fact which, if it is correctly reported, goes a long way towards clearing up one of the problems of modern history. A letter to Louvois by Louis XIV., written in cipher, has been long in the archives of the Ministry of War, and has at length been deciphered. In it the King orders Louvois to arrest General de Burlonde for having raised the siege of Conti without permission, to send him to Pignerol, and to conceal his features under a 'loup' or black-velvet mask. The order was executed, and the presumption is therefore violent that the 'Man in the Iron Mask'—it was a black-velvet one with iron springs—was General de Burlonde. The story tallies with the known fact that the prisoner made repeated attempts to communicate his name to soldiers, that he was treated with respect by his military jailors, and that Louis XV., who knew the truth of the whole affair, declared it to be a matter of no importance. The difficulty is to discover the King's motive for such a precaution; but he may have feared discontent among his great officers, or the soldiery."—*Spectator, Oct.* 14, 1893.—The cipher despatch above referred to, and the whole subject of the imprisonment of General de Burlonde, are discussed at length, in the light of official record and correspondence, by M. Émile Burgaud and Commandant Bazeries (the latter of whom discovered the key to the cipher), in a book entitled "Le Masque de Fer: Révélation de la correspondance chiffrée de Louis XIV," published at Paris in 1893. It seems to leave small doubt that the mysteriously masked prisoner was no other than General de Burlonde.

Also in: G. A. Ellis, *True history of the state prisoner commonly called the Iron Mask.*

IRONCLAD OATH.—An oath styled the "Ironclad oath" was prescribed by Congress, during the Civil War, in July, 1862, to be taken by every person elected or appointed to any office under the government of the United States, the president only excepted. He was required to swear that he had "never voluntarily borne arms against the United States"; that he had "voluntarily given no aid, countenance, counsel, or encouragement to persons engaged in armed hostility to the National Government"; that he had "neither sought nor accepted, nor attempted to exercise the functions of any office whatever under authority or pretended authority in hostility to the United States"; that he had "never yielded a voluntary support to any pretended Government within the United States, hostile or inimical thereto."—J. G. Blaine, *Twenty years of Congress, v.* 2, *p.* 88.—See also Arkansas: 1865-1866.

IRONSIDES, name for Cromwell's troops. See England: 1643 (May).

"IRONSIDES, Old," name given to the American frigate *Constitution.* See U.S.A.: 1814.

IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY.—The Iroquois Indians of New York (see New York: Aboriginal inhabitants) had the most highly centralized government in America outside of Mexico and Peru.

This was achieved through the league or confederacy of the Mohawk, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga and Seneca Indian nations, joined finally by the Tuscaroras. At the present day the nucleus of the league itself is located in Ontario, Canada. "The origin and proper meaning of the word Iroquois are doubtful. All that can be said with certainty is that the explanation given by Charlevoix cannot possibly be correct. The name of Iroquois, he says, is purely French, and has been formed from the term 'hiro,' 'I have spoken,' a word by which these Indians close all their speeches, and 'koué,' which, when long drawn out, is a cry of sorrow, and when briefly uttered is an exclamation of joy. . . . But . . . Champlain had learned the name from his Indian allies before he or any other Frenchman, so far as is known, had ever seen an Iroquois. It is probable that the origin of the word is to be sought in the Huron language; yet, as this is similar to the Iroquois tongue, an attempt may be made to find a solution in the latter. According to Bruyas, the word 'garokwa' meant a pipe, and also a piece of tobacco,—and, in its verbal form, to smoke. This word is found, somewhat disguised by aspirates, in the Book of Rites,—denighroghkwayen,—'let us two smoke together.' . . . In the indeterminate form the verb becomes 'ierokwa,' which is certainly very near to Iroquois. It might be rendered 'they who smoke,' or 'they who use tobacco,' or, briefly, 'the Tobacco People.' This name, the Tobacco Nation ('Nation du Petun') was given by the French, and probably also by the Algonkins, to one of the Huron tribes, the Tionontates, noted for the excellent tobacco which they raised and sold. The Iroquois were equally well known for their cultivation of this plant, of which they had a choice variety."—H. Hale, *Iroquois book of rites, appendix, note A.*—"The special achievement of the Iroquois was the organization, probably between 1400 and 1450, of the famous League of the Iroquois, a confederation of the Five Nations just named, for purposes of defence and offence. The conception of the league is traditionally ascribed to a Hiawatha, who may or may not have been an historical personage, who, it is said, enlisted the support of a leading chief of the Onondaga; and acting in concert they succeeded in successfully carrying out the idea. [See HIAWATHA.] The salient features of the league were that it was a confederacy of the five tribes, each remaining independent in matters of local concern but delegating supreme outhority in questions of general import to a council of sachems elected from the constituent tribes. The members of this council were limited in number and were equal in rank and authority. Fifty sachemships were founded and named in perpetuity in certain clans of the several tribes, and these tribes retained the right to fill vacancies by election or to depose for cause. The right to invest a sachem-elect with office was reserved by the general council. These sachems of the confederacy were sachems also in their several tribes, and with the 'chiefs' or leading men of these tribes formed the tribal council. This tribal council had supreme authority over all matters pertaining exclusively to the tribe. In the council of the confederacy unanimity was essential to every act; and since in that body the sachems voted by tribes, each tribe had a veto power over all the others. The general council could be convened by the call of the council of any tribe, but it had no power to convene itself. It was open to orators of the people for the discussion of public questions, the decision resting solely with the elected sachems. The confederacy had no executive or official head, but for great military operations two war-chiefs were appointed, who were made equal in rank and authority. Space will not permit a detailed discussion of the various phases of the organization: it was a magnificent conception and splendidly carried out. The weak point seems to have been the lack of provision for an executive, but this was largely compensated for by the power of public opinion in compelling obedience to decrees of the council. Whatever its inherent weakness, the league was so successful that for centuries it enjoyed complete supremacy over its neighbors. It was, apparently, not intended to be limited to the five original tribes, for overtures were made to the related Erie, Huron, and other tribes to join the league. The only success was in the case of the Tuscarora, who in 1715 migrated from their southern home and joined the league under certain restrictions, making the group the Six Nations. An unimportant branch of the family between Lake Ontario and Lake Huron was also included at that time. The other divisions of the stock were treated as enemies, and many of the most savage campaigns of the league were waged against the Erie and the Huron."—L. Farrand, *Basis of American history, pp.* 155-157.—See also ALLEGHANS; MINGOES; SENECAS: Their name; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern woodland area; Southeastern area.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Narratives.*

Language characteristics. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Linguistic characteristics.

Iroquoian family.—"At the outset of the 16th Century, when the five tribes or nations of the Iroquois confederacy first became known to European explorers, they were found occupying the valleys and uplands of northern New York, in that picturesque and fruitful region which stretches westward from the head-waters of the Hudson to the Genesee. The Mohawks, or Caniengas—as they should properly be called—possessed the Mohawk River, and covered Lake George and Lake Champlain with their flotillas of large canoes, managed with the boldness and skill which, hereditary in their descendants, make them still the best boatmen of the North American rivers. West of the Caniengas the Oneidas held the small river and lake which bear their name. . . . West of the Oneidas, the imperious Onondagas, the central and, in some respects, the ruling nation of the League, possessed the two lakes of Onondaga and Skaneateles, together with the common outlet of this inland lake system, the Oswego River to its issue into Lake Ontario. Still proceeding westward, the lines of trail and river led to the long and winding stretch of Lake Cayuga, about which were clustered the towns of the people who gave their name to the lake; and beyond them, over the wide expanse of hills and dales surrounding Lakes Seneca and Canandaigua, were scattered the populous villages of the Senecas, more correctly called Sonontowanas, or Mountaineers. Such were the names and abodes of the allied nations, members of the far-famed Kanonsionni, or League of United Households, who were destined to become for a time the most notable and powerful community among the native tribes of North America. The region . . . was not, however, the original seat of those nations. They belonged to that linguistic family which is

known to ethnologists as the Huron-Iroquois stock. This stock comprised the Hurons or Wyandots, the Attiwandaronks or Neutral Nation, the Iroquois, the Eries, the Andastes or Conestogas, the Tuscaroras and some smaller bands. The tribes of this family occupied a long irregular area of inland territory, stretching from Canada to North Carolina. The northern nations were all clustered about the great lakes; the southern bands held the fertile valleys bordering the headwaters of the rivers which flowed from the Allegheny mountains. The languages of all these tribes showed a close affinity. . . . The evidence of language, so far as it has yet been examined, seems to show that the Huron clans were the older members of the group; and the clear and positive traditions of all the surviving tribes, Hurons, Iroquois, and Tuscarora, point to the lower St. Lawrence as the earliest known abode of their stock. Here the first explorer, Cartier, found Indians of this stock at Hochelaga and Stadaconé, now the sites of Montreal and Quebec. . . . As their numbers increased, dissensions arose. The hive swarmed, and band after band moved off to the west and south. As they spread they encountered people of other stocks, with whom they had frequent wars. Their most constant and most dreaded enemies were the tribes of the Algonkin family, a fierce and restless people, of northern origin, who everywhere surrounded them. At one period, however, if the concurrent traditions of both Iroquois and Algonkins can be believed, these contending races for a time stayed their strife, and united their forces in an alliance against a common and formidable foe. This foe was the nation, or perhaps the confederacy, of the Alligewi or Talligewi, the semi-civilized 'Mound-builders' of the Ohio Valley, who have left their name to the Allegheny river and mountains, and whose vast earthworks are still, after half-a-century of study, the perplexity of archæologists. A desperate warfare ensued, which lasted about a hundred years, and ended in the complete overthrow and destruction, or expulsion, of the Alligewi. The survivors of the conquered people fled southward. . . . The time which has elapsed since the overthrow of the Alligewi is variously estimated. The most probable conjecture places it at a period about a thousand years before the present day. It was apparently soon after their expulsion that the tribes of the Huron-Iroquois and the Algonkin stocks scattered themselves over the wide region south of the Great Lakes, thus left open to their occupancy."—H. Hale, *Iroquois book of rites, introduction.*—After the coming of the Europeans into the New World, the French were the first to be involved in hostilities with the Iroquois, and their early wars with them produced a hatred which could never be extinguished. Hence the English were able to win the alliance of the Five Nations, when they struggled with France for the mastery of the North American continent, and they owed their victory to that alliance, probably, more than to any other single cause. England still retained the faithful friendship and alliance of the Iroquois when she came to a struggle with her own colonies, and all the tribes except the Oneidas were in arms against the Americans in the Revolutionary War. "With the restoration of peace, the political transactions of the League were substantially closed. This was, in effect, the termination of their political existence. The jurisdiction of the United States was extended over their ancient territories, and from that time forth they

IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY

became dependent nations. During the progress of the Revolution, the Mohawks abandoned their country and removed to Canada, finally establishing themselves partly upon Grand River, in the Niagara peninsula, and partly near Kingston, where they now reside upon two reservations secured to them by the British government. . . . The policy of the State of New York [toward the Iroquois nations] was ever just and humane. Although their country, with the exception of that of the Oneidas, might have been considered as forfeited by the event of the Revolution, yet the government never enforced the rights of conquest, but extinguished the Indian title to the country by purchase, and treaty stipulations. A portion of the Oneida nation [who had sold their lands to the state, from time to time, excepting one small reservation] emigrated to a reservation on the river Thames in Canada, where about 400 of them now [1851] reside. Another and a larger band removed to Green Bay, in Wisconsin, where they still make their homes to the number of 700. But a small part of the nation have remained around the seat of their ancient council-fire . . . near Oneida Castle, in the county of Oneida." The Onondagas "still retain their beautiful and secluded valley of Onondaga, with sufficient territory for their comfortable maintenance. About 150 Onondagas now reside with the Senecas; another party are established on Grand River, in Canada, and a few have removed to the west. . . . In the brief space of twelve years after the first house of the white man was erected in Cayuga county (1789) the whole nation [of the Cayugas] was uprooted and gone. In 1795, they ceded, by treaty, all their lands to the State, with the exception of one reservation, which they finally abandoned about the year 1800. A . . . band settled at Sandusky, in Ohio, from whence they were removed by government, a few years since, into the Indian territory, west of the Mississippi. About 120 still reside among the Senecas, in western New York. . . . The Tuscaroras, after removing from the Oneida territory, finally located near the Niagara river, in the vicinity of Lewiston, on a tract given to them by the Senecas. . . . The residue of the Senecas are now shut up within three small reservations, the Tonawanda, the Cattaraugus and the Allegany, which, united, would not cover the area of one of the lesser counties of the State."—L. H. Morgan, *League of the Iroquois, bk. 1, ch. 1.*—"The Indians of the State of New York number about [5,503] . . . and occupy lands to the estimated extent of 87,677 acres. With few exceptions, these people are the direct descendants of the native Indians, who once possessed and controlled the soil of the entire State."—*Report of the special commission to investigate the Indian problem of the state of New York,* 1889.

Tribes of the South.—"The southern Iroquois tribes occupied Chowan River and its tributary streams. They were bounded on the east by the most southerly Lenape tribes, who were in possession of the low country along the sea shores, and those of Albemarle and Pamlico Sounds. Towards the south and the west they extended beyond the river Neuse. They appear to have been known in Virginia, in early times, under the name of Monacans, as far north as James River. . . . Lawson, in his account of the North Carolina Indians, enumerates the Chowans, the Meherrins, and the Nottoways, as having together 95 warriors in the year 1708. But the Meherrins or Tuteloes and the Nottoways in-

habited respectively the two rivers of that name, and were principally seated in Virginia. We have but indistinct notices of the Tuteloes. . . . It appears by Beverly that the Nottoways had preserved their independence and their numbers later than the Powhatans, and that, at the end of the 17th century, they had still 130 warriors. They do not appear to have migrated from their original seats in a body. In the year 1820, they are said to have been reduced to 27 souls, and were still in possession of 7,000 acres in Southampton county, Virginia, which had been at an early date reserved for them. . . . The Tuscaroras were by far the most powerful nation in North Carolina, and occupied all the residue of the territory in that colony, which has been described as inhabited by Iroquois tribes. Their principal seats in 1708 were on the Neuse and the Taw or Tar rivers, and according to Lawson they had 1,200 warriors in fifteen towns." In 1711 the Tuscaroras attacked the English colonists, massacring 130 in a single day, and a fierce war ensued. "In the autumn of 1712, all the inhabitants south and southwest of Chowan River were obliged to live in forts; and the Tuscaroras expected assistance from the Five Nations. This could not have been given without involving the confederacy in a war with Great Britain; and the Tuscaroras were left to their own resources. A force, consisting chiefly of southern Indians under the command of Colonel Moore, was again sent by the government of South Carolina to assist the northern Colonies. He besieged and took a fort of the Tuscaroras. . . . Of 800 prisoners 600 were given up to the Southern Indians, who carried them to South Carolina to sell them as slaves. The Eastern Tuscaroras, whose principal town was on the Taw, twenty miles above Washington, immediately made peace, and a portion was settled a few years after north of the Roanoke, near Windsor, where they continued till the year 1803."—A. Gallatin, *Synopsis of the Indian tribes (Archæologia Americana, v. 2, introduction, sect. 2).*

Also in: J. W. Moore, *History of North Carolina, v. 1, ch. 3.*—C. Colden, *History of the five Indian nations of Canada.*

Their conquests and wide dominion.—"After the formation of the League, the Iroquois rose rapidly in power and influence. . . . With the first consciousness of rising power, they turned their long-cherished resentment upon the Adirondacks, who had oppressed them in their infancy as a nation, and had expelled them from their country, in the first struggle for the ascendancy. . . . At the era of French discovery (1535), the latter nation [the Adirondacks] appear to have been dispossessed of their original country, and driven down the St. Lawrence as far as Quebec. . . . A new era commenced with the Iroquois upon the establishment of the Dutch trading-post at Orange, now Albany, in 1615. . . . Friendly relations were established between the Iroquois and the Dutch, which continued without interruption until the latter surrendered their possessions upon the Hudson to the English in 1664. During this period a trade sprang up between them in furs, which the Iroquois exchanged for European fabrics, but more especially for fire-arms, in the use of which they were afterwards destined to become so expert."—F. Parkman, *Conspiracy of Pontiac, ch. 1.* —"With the possession of fire-arms commenced not only the rapid elevation, but absolute supremacy of the Iroquois over other Indian nations. In 1643, they expelled the Neuter Nation from the Niagara peninsula and established a permanent settlement at the mouth of that river. They nearly exterminated, in 1653, the Eries, who occupied the south side of Lake Erie, and from thence east to the Genesee, and thus possessed themselves of the whole area of western New York, and the northern part of Ohio. About the year 1670, after they had finally completed the dispersion and subjugation of the Adirondacks and Hurons, they acquired possession of the whole country between lakes Huron, Erie and Ontario, and of the north bank of the St. Lawrence, to the mouth of the Ottawa river, near Montreal. . . . They also made constant inroads upon the New England Indians. . . . In 1680, the Senecas with 600 warriors invaded the country of the Illinois upon the borders of the Mississippi, while La Salle was among the latter. . . . At various times, both before and after this period, the Iroquois turned their warfare against the Cherokees upon the Tennessee, and the Catawbas in South Carolina. . . . For about a century, from the year 1600 to the year 1700, the Iroquois were involved in an almost uninterrupted warfare. At the close of this period, they had subdued and held in nominal subjection all the principal Indian nations occupying the territories which are now embraced in the states of New York, Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, the northern and western parts of Virginia, Ohio, Kentucky, Northern Tennessee, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, a portion of the New England States, and the principal part of Upper Canada. Over these nations, the haughty and imperious Iroquois exercised a constant supervision. If any of them became involved in domestic difficulties, a delegation of chiefs went among them and restored tranquillity, prescribing at the same time their future conduct."—L. H. Morgan, *League of the Iroquois, bk. 1, ch. 1.*—"Their [the Iroquois's] war-parties roamed over half America, and their name was a terror from the Atlantic to the Mississippi; but when we ask the numerical strength of the dreaded confederacy, when we discover that, in the days of their greatest triumphs, their united cantons could not have mustered 4,000 warriors, we stand amazed at the folly and dissension which left so vast a region the prey of a handful of bold marauders. Of the cities and villages now so thickly scattered over the lost domain of the Iroquois, a single one might boast a more numerous population than all the five united tribes."—*Ibid.*

Indian Wars. See Shawanese; Susquehannas.

1608-1700.—Wars with French. See Canada: 1608-1611; 1615-1616; 1640-1700; 1696; Quebec, Province of: 1672-1689.

1648-1649.—Destruction of Hurons and Jesuit missions. See Canada: 1634-1652; Hurons; Jesuits: 1542-1649.

1684-1768.—Surrenders and conveyances to English.—Cession of claims of western Pennsylvania, West Virginia and Kentucky. See New York: 1684; 1726; Ohio: 1748-1754; U.S.A.: 1765-1768; Virginia: 1744.

1778-1779.—Part in American Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1778 (July); 1779 (August-September).

IROQUOIS THEATER, Burning of. See Chicago: 1903.

IRREDENTISTS.—"This is the name given to a political organisation formed in 1878, with the avowed object of freeing all Italians from foreign rule, and of reuniting to the Italian kingdom all those portions of the Italy of old which have passed under foreign dominion. The operations of

the 'Italia Irredenta' party are chiefly carried on against Austria, in consequence of the retention by that Empire of Trieste and the Southern Tyrol. Until these territories have been relinquished, Italy, or at least a certain part of it, will remain unsatisfied."—J. S. Jeans, *Italy* (*National life and thought, ch.* 8).—The Irredentist movement became intensified in 1914, owing to the outbreak of the World War, and as a result of the Treaty of Versailles, Italy has acquired the former Austrian provinces of the Trentino, Gorizia, and Istria. See ITALY: 1870-1901; 1914: Position of Italy.

IRREPRESSIBLE CONFLICT, expression used by William H. Seward in a speech at Rochester in 1858. This speech "was a philippic against the Democratic party and its devotion to slavery. . . . He exposed the injustice of the slave system, and contrasted the good of freedom with the evil of slavery. 'It is an irrepressible conflict between opposing and enduring forces, and it means that the United States must and will, sooner or later, become either entirely a slave-holding nation or entirely a free-labor nation.' Few speeches from the stump have attracted so great attention or exerted so great an influence."—J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States, v.* 2, *p.* 344.

IRRESISTIBLE, British warship sunk by a mine in the Dardanelles offensive. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: a, 1; a, 2.

IRRIGATION. See AGRICULTURE: Ancient: Domestic animals.

Argentina. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Argentina.

Australia. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Australia.

Canada. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Canada: 1879-1921.

China. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: China: B.C. 2297-A.D. 1915.

Egypt. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Egypt; EGYPT: Position and nature of the country.

India. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: India: 1876-1913.

Italy. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Italy: B.C. 800-A.D. 1915.

Japan. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Japan: Ancient; JAPAN: Agriculture.

South Australia. See SOUTH AUSTRALIA: 1916.

Spain. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Spain.

United States. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1847-1901; 1918; CALIFORNIA: 1900; WYOMING: 1900-1905.

IRVING, Sir Henry (1838-1905), English actor. First stage appearance at Sunderland, 1856; began his famous connection with the Lyceum theater in 1871, winning success in "The Bells," "Eugene Aram," "Richelieu," and "Hamlet"; assumed control of Lyceum theater in 1878, and with Miss Ellen Terry, entered upon that long and brilliant partnership which made the Lyceum the most important theater in London; knighted in 1895, being the first actor to receive this recognition; buried in Westminster Abbey.

IRVING, Washington (1783-1859), American author. His first real achievement was the "Knickerbocker's" "History of New York," 1809; the "Sketch Book of Geoffrey Crayon, Gent.," appeared in 1819; his visit to Spain, 1826–1829, resulted in the production of four books, two of which, the "History of the Life and Times of Christopher Columbus," and "Alhambra," added considerably to his fame. His "Life of Oliver Goldsmith," 1849, and his "Life of Washington" rank among his best works.—See also AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1790-1860.

IRVINGITES, name frequently applied in England to members of the Catholic Apostolic Church. See CATHOLIC APOSTOLIC CHURCH.

ISAAC I, Comnenus (d. 1061), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1057-1059. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1057-1081.

Isaac II, Angelus (d. 1204), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1185-1195 and 1203-1204. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1203-1204; BULGARIA: 12th century.

ISABELLA (1518-1558), queen of Hungary, wife of John Zapolya. See HUNGARY: 1526-1567.

ISABELLA I, the Catholic (1451-1504), queen of Castile. Married to Ferdinand of Aragon, 1469; succeeded to the throne of Castile and Leon, 1474; Ferdinand succeeded to the throne of Aragon, 1479; they united the provinces and wage successful war against the Moors of Granada, 1482-1492; gave aid to Columbus in his exploration enterprises, 1492; expelled the Jews from Spain, 1492. See SPAIN: 1368-1479; AMERICA: 1484-1492; 1493; 1493-1496; JEWS: Spain: 8th-15th centuries.

Isabella II (1830-1904), queen of Spain, 1833-1868. See SPAIN: 1833-1846; LATIN AMERICA: 1836-1895.

ISABELLA OF AUSTRIA (Clara Eugenia) (1566-1633), infanta of Spain. See NETHERLANDS: 1594-1609.

ISABELLA OF JERUSALEM (fl. c. 1189-1197), daughter of Amaury I, king of Jerusalem. See JERUSALEM: 1187-1229.

ISABELLA, city founded by Columbus on the island of Hispaniola, or Haiti. See AMERICA: 1493-1496.

ISACHSEN, G. Norwegian explorer in Spitsbergen. See SPITZBERGEN: 1906-1921.

ISAGORIA, ancient Greek expression for equal freedom of speech. See ISONOMY.

ISAIAH (c. 760-700 B.C.), Hebrew prophet. See JEWS: Religion and the prophets.

ISANDLANA, Battle of (1879). See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1877-1879.

ISASZEG, Battle of (1849). See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849.

ISAURIAN DYNASTY. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 717-797; Part in history.

ISAURIANS.—The Isaurians were a fierce and savage race of mountaineers, who occupied anciently a district in Asia Minor, between Cilicia and Pamphylia on the south and Phrygia on the north. They were persistently a nation of robbers, living upon the spoils taken from their neighbors, who were never able to punish them justly in their mountain fastnesses. Even the iron hand of the Romans failed to reduce the Isaurians to order, although P. Servilius, in 78 B.C., destroyed most of their strongholds, and Pompey, eleven years later, in his great campaign against the pirates, put an end to the lawless depredations on sea and land of the Cilicians, who had become confederated with the Isaurians. Five centuries afterwards, in the days of the Eastern Empire, the Isaurians were the best soldiers of its army, and even gave an emperor to the throne at Constantinople in the person of Zeno or Zenon [474-495].—E. W. Brooks, *Emperor Zenon and the Isaurians* (*English Historical Review, Apr.,* 1893).—Leo III was the second Isaurian occupant of the Byzantine throne, 417-741; and became the founder of a dynasty of three generations.

ALSO IN: J. B. Bury, *History of the later Roman empire.*—C. Oman, *Dark Ages.*—W. M. Ramsay, *Historical geography of Asia Minor.*

ISCA.—The name of two towns in Roman Britain, one of which is identified with modern Exeter and the other with Caerleon-on-Usk. The latter was the station of the 2d legion.—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, bk.* 8, *ch.* 5.—See also Exeter; Caerleon.

ISEGHEM, town in the province of West Flanders, Belgium, taken by the Allies during the World War. See World War: 1918: II. Western front: r, 2.

ISELBERG, Battle of (1809). See Germany: 1809-1810 (April-February).

ISENOKAMI, Abe, Japanese prime minister. See Japan: 1797-1854.

ISFAHAN, former capital of Persia and still one of its chief cities. It is very ancient, and was once the scene of great magnificence. The population in 1922 was estimated at 80,000.

14th century.—Massacre by Timur. See Timur.

1907-1908.—Riots. See Persia: 1907-1908.

1915.—Revolt against Russia. See World War: 1915: VII. Persia and Germany.

ISHII, Kikujiro, Viscount (1866-), Japanese statesman. Headed special mission to the United States in 1917, when the Ishii-Lansing agreement was drawn up and signed. See U. S. A.: 1907-1917; Monroe Doctrine: Application by Japan to Asia.

ISHMAELIANS. See Ismaileans.

ISHTAR, Assyrian god. See Mythology: Babylonian and Assyrian.

ISIDOR MERCATOR, name appropriated by the unknown author of the False Decretals. See Ecclesiastical law: 400-1000; Papacy: 829-847.

ISIDORE OF SEVILLE, or Isidorus Hispalensis (c. 560-636), Spanish encyclopedist and historian. See History: 19.

ISINÆ. See Causannæ.

ISIS, most famous goddess of the Egyptians. She was the sister-wife of Osiris and the mother of Horus. Her cult spread into the western world during the early years of the Roman empire, and maintained itself in Italy into the fifth century.

ISLAM. See Mohammedanism: Africa: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Moslem occupation; Arabia: Ancient succession and fusion of races; Pan-Islamism; Religion: 622; Wahhabis.

ISLAM, DAR-UL, and DAR-UL-HARB. See Dar-ul-Islam.

ISLAND NUMBER TEN, in the Mississippi river below Columbus, Kentucky, captured by the Union forces during the Civil War. See U. S. A.: 1862 (March-April: On the Mississippi).

ISLE OF BOURBON, name of island in Mascarene group. See Mauritius.

ISLE OF FRANCE, old French province containing Paris. Also the French name of Mauritius island, taken by England in 1810. See Mauritius.

ISLE OF MAN, island in the Irish sea. See Manx kingdom; Suffrage, Woman: England: 1860-1905.

ISLE OF PINES, forty miles southeast of the southernmost part of Cuba.

1903.—Ceded to Cuba. See Cuba: 1903.

1907.—Controversy between Cuba and United States.—Decision of United States Supreme Court. See Cuba: 1907 (April).

ISLE ROYALE, name for Cape Breton island. See Cape Breton island: 1720-1745.

ISLES, Lords of the. See Hebrides: 1346-1504; Harlaw, Battle of.

ISLES OF THE BLESSED, name for Canary islands. See Canary islands.

ISLY, Battle of (1843). See Barbary states: 1830-1846; France: 1842-1848.

ISMAIL I (1479-1523), shah of Persia, 1502-1523. See Persia: 1499-1887; Bagdad: 1393-1638.

Ismail II, shah of Persia, 1576-1577.

ISMAIL, capital of the province of the same name in Bessarabia. It was captured by the Russians in 1790. See Turkey: 1776-1792.

ISMAIL PASHA (1830-1895), khedive and viceroy of Egypt, 1863-1879. See Egypt: 1840-1869, to 1882-1883.

ISMAILIA, town on the Suez canal in lower Egypt.

1882.—Struggle of British and Egyptians. See Egypt: 1882-1883.

1915.—Region of Turkish attack. See World War: 1915: VI. Turkey: b, 1.

ISMAILIANS, or Ishmaelians, Mohammedan sect. See Assassins; Bagdad: 1258; Caliphate: 908-1171; Carmathians.

ISMID, town in Asia Minor at the head of the Gulf of Ismid, and across the straits from Constantinople. See Turkey: Land.

ISOCRATES, Corinthian admiral. See Greece: B.C. 429-427: Peloponnesian War: Phormio's sea fights.

ISONOMY, ISOTIMY, ISAGORIA.—"The principle underlying democracy is the struggle for a legalised equality which was usually described [by the ancient Greeks] by the expressions Isonomy, or equality of law for all,—Isotimy, or proportionate regard paid to all,—Isagoria, or equal freedom of speech, with special reference to courts of justice and popular assemblies."—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The state, pt.* 2, *ch.* 12.

ISONZO, river about ten miles east of the 1914 boundary of Italy. During the World War it was the scene of severe fighting between Italians and Austrians; the adjacent territory was ceded to Italy in 1919. See World War: 1915: IV. Italy: a; d; 1916: IV. Austro-Italian front: b, 1; c; 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: a; d.

Battle of (489). See Rome: Medieval city: 488-526.

ISOPOLITY.—"Under Sp. Cassius [493 B.C.], Rome concluded a treaty with the Latins, in which the right of isopolity or the 'jus municipi' was conceded to them. The idea of isopolity changed in the course of time, but its essential features in early times were these: between the Romans and Latins and between the Romans and Caerites there existed this arrangement, that any citizen of the one state who wished to settle in the other, might forthwith be able to exercise there the rights of a citizen."—B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on the history of Rome, v.* 1, *lect.* 13.

ISOTIMY, Greek expression for proportionate regard before the law. See Isonomy.

ISRAEL, Kingdom of. See Jews: Kingdoms of Israel and Judah.

ISRAEL, Lost ten tribes of. See Jews: Conquest of Canaan; Kingdoms of Israel, etc.

ISRAELITES. See Jews.

ISRAELS, Josef (1824-1911), Dutch painter. See Painting: Europe (19th century).

ISSUS, Battle of (333 B.C.). See Cyprus: Early history; Macedonia: B.C. 334-330; B.C. 330-323.

ISTÆVONES, ancient Germanic tribe. See Germany: As known to Tacitus.

ISTAKR, OR STAKR, native name, under the later, or Sassanian, Persian empire, of the ancient capital, Persepolis.—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy, ch.* 3, *foot-note.*

ISTAMBOUL. See Stamboul.

ISTER, or Istros, ancient Greek name of the Danube, below the junction of the Theiss and the Save. See DANUBE: B.C. 5th-A.D. 15th century; MOESIA.

ISTHMIAN CANAL. See PANAMA CANAL.

Commission. See PANAMA CANAL: 1904-1905.

ISTHMIAN GAMES. See NEMEAN AND ISTHMIAN GAMES.

ISTHMUS OF PANAMA. See PANAMA.

ISTRIA, Count Capo D'. See CAPO D'ISTRIA.

ISTRIA, Italian province situated on the north-eastern shore of the Adriatic sea.

Slavonic occupation. See SLAVS: 6th-7th centuries.

803.—Embraced in Eastern empire by Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. See VENICE: 697-810.

944.—Destruction of Istrian pirates. See VENICE: 810-961.

1797.—Acquisition by Austria from Napoleon. See FRANCE: 1796-1797 (October-April).

1805.—Ceded to Italy by Austria. See GERMANY: 1805-1806.

1915.—Promised to Italy by secret Treaty of London. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF; ADRIATIC QUESTION: Treaty of London.

1916.—Ports bombed by Italy.—Italian bombing operations did great damage to Austrian shipping.

1919.—Friction between Italy and Jugo-Slavia.—Yielded to Italy by St. Germain Treaty. See ADRIATIC QUESTION: Friction between Italy and Jugo-Slavia; ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF (1919): Section I: Italy.

ISTRIANS. See ILLYRIA.

ISUMEB, Battle of (1915). See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1915.

ISURIUM, Roman town in Britain, which had previously been the chief town of the British tribe of the Brigantes. It is identified with Aldborough, Yorkshire, "where the excavator meets continually with the tesselated floors of the Roman houses."—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon, ch.* 5.

ITAGAKI, Taisuke, Count (1837-1920), Japanese statesman. See JAPAN: 1868-1894; 1894-1912.

ITALI. See ŒNOTRIANS.

ITALIA IRREDENTA. See IRREDENTISTS.

ITALIAN ANNALS. See ANNALS: French, German, Italian, etc.

ITALIAN EAST AFRICA. See SOMALILAND; AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

ITALIAN LANGUAGE. See PHILOLOGY: 9; 11.

ITALIAN LITERATURE

Transition from Latin to Italian.—"After the glory of Rome had gone down before the barbarian hordes that swept in like a sea from the north, Italy remained for some three hundred years in intellectual darkness. . . . Latinism was dead. The rare classic manuscripts, which remained hidden in the monasteries, were readable only by the very few. Italian speech, as we know it, did not yet exist, but in the various provinces a new tongue was coming into life. . . . The *volgare* was naturally scorned by the scholars. The rare new books that this age produced were written in a corruption of the splendid Latin of the past."—M. L. E. Castle, *Italian literature, p.* 1.—"The position, . . . of the Italians at the close of the thirteenth century with regard to language, was this. They possessed the classic Latin authors in a bad state of preservation, and studied a few of them with some minuteness, basing their own learned style upon the imitation of Virgil and Ovid, Cicero, Boethius, and the rhetoricians of the lower empire. But at home, in their families, upon the market-place, and in the prosecution of business, they talked the local dialects, each of which was more or less remotely representative of the ancient vulgar Latin. However these dialects might differ, they formed in combination a new language, distinct from the parent stock of rustic Latin, and equally distinct from French and Spanish. . . . In these circumstances it was the problem of writers, at the close of the thirteenth century, to construct the ideal vulgar tongue, to discover its capacities for noble utterance, to refine it for artistic usage by the omission of cruder elements existing in each dialect, and to select from those store-houses of living speech the phrases which appeared well suited to graceful utterance. The desideratum, to use Dante's words, was 'that illustrious, cardinal, courtly, curial mother-tongue, proper to each Italian State, special to none, whereby the local idioms of every city are to be measured, weighed, and compared.' Dante saw that this selection of a literary language from the fresh shoots sent up by the antique vulgar Latin stock could best be accomplished in a capital or Court, the meeting-place of learned people and polished intelligences. But such a metropolis of culture, corresponding to Elizabeth's London or the Paris of Louis XIV., was ever wanting in Italy. . . . The peculiar conditions of Italy, as he described them, were destined to subsist throughout the next two centuries and a half, when men of learning, taking Tuscan as their standard, sought by practice and example to form a national language. The self-consciousness of the Italians front to front with this problem, as revealed to us in the pages of the *De Eloquio*, and the decision with which the great authors of the fourteenth century fixed a certain type of diction, accurately spoken nowhere, though nearer to the Tuscan than to any other idiom, may be reckoned among the most interesting phenomena in the history of literautre. Tuscan predominated; but that the masterpieces of the *trecento* were not composed in any one of the unadulterated Tuscan dialects is clear, not merely from the contemporary testimony of Dante himself, but also from the obstinate discussions raised upon this subject by Bembo at a later period. A guiding and controlling principle of taste determined the instinctive method of selection whereby Tuscan was adapted to the common needs of Italy. . . . It is impossible to fix even an approximate date for the emergence of Italian prose. Law documents, deeds of settlement, contracts, and public acts, which can be referred with certainty to the first half of the thirteenth century, display a pressure of the vulgar speech upon the formal Latin of official verbiage. The effort to obtain precision, in designating some particular locality or some important person, forces the scribe back upon his common speech; and these evidences of difficulty in wielding the Latin which had now become a dying language, prove that, long before it was written, Italian was spoken. . . . From the dry records of incipient prose it is refreshing to turn to another species of popular poetry; for poetry in the period of origins is always more adult than

prose. Numerous fragments of political songs have been disinterred from chronicles, which can be referred to the thirteenth century. . . . In quite a different region, but of no less importance for the future of Italian literature, must be reckoned the religious hymns, which, during the thirteenth century, began to be composed in the vernacular. . . . During the thirteenth century the dialects of each district had begun to seek literary expression. There are many indications that the products of one province speedily became the property of the rest. Spontaneous motives were mingled with French and Provençal recollections; and already we can trace the unconscious effort to form a common language in the process known as *Toscaneggiamento,* or the translation of local songs into Tuscan idiom. It would, therefore, be incorrect to imagine either that the Sicilian poets were blank imitators of Provençal models, or that the Italian language started into being at Palermo. What really happened was, that Frederick's Court became the centre of a widespread literary movement. . . . Nearly all the poetry of the Sicilian epoch has been transmitted to us in Florentine MSS., after undergoing *Toscaneggiamento.* We possess but a few stanzas in a pure condition. There is, therefore, reason to believe that when Dante treated of the courtly Sicilian poets in his essay *De Vulgari Eloquio,* he knew their writings in a form already Tuscanised. In commending the curial and illustrious vernacular, as something distinct from the dialects, he was in truth praising the dialect of his own province, refined by the practice of polite versifiers. At the date of the composition of that essay, the Suabian House had been extinguished; the literary society of the south was broken up; and to Florence had already fallen the heritage of art. What is even more remarkable, the Bolognese poets, who preceded Dante and his peers by one generation, had abandoned their own dialect in favour of the purified Tuscan. Consequently the new Italian literature was already Tuscan either by origin, or by adoption, or by a process of transformation, before the Florentines assumed the dictatorship of letters."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: Italian literature, v.* 1, *pp.* 31-35, 37, 40-43.

12th-14th centuries.—Sicilian poetry.—Umbrian school.—Tuscan prose.—"The earliest known work in the *volgare* is a catilena written by **Ciullo d'Alcamo,** the son of one of the Italian immigrants. This poet took his name from his birthplace, an Arab fortress some miles from Palermo. The poem, which was probably composed between 1172 and 1178, is in the form of a dialogue between a lover and his lady. . . . The Court of Sicily reached its highest brilliance in the first half of the thirteenth century, during the reign of **Frederick II.,** Emperor of Rome, King of Naples and Sicily, known to his contemporaries as *Stupor Mundi.* . . . He not only encouraged writers of Italian love-songs, and gathered them about him, but he himself was a poet of no mean quality. His canzone 'Of his Lady in Bondage' has a beauty akin to that of the work of Ciullo d'Alcamo, but with a deeper note of tenderness. [See also ITALY: 1183-1250.] . . . Frederick's son, **Enzo,** King of Sardinia (1225-1272), was a poet of a lesser talent. The Emperor's Minister **Pietro delle Vigne** (*circa* 1190-1249) is a more important figure in literature, for to him belongs the honour of having been the first to compose an Italian sonnet. . . . The Sicilian dialect passed over to Italy. With the end of the twelfth century the centre of culture shifted, and we find the love-verses of the vulgar tongue flourishing in the peninsula instead of in the island. Bologna was the home of many poets, but their writing has lost the early freshness that belonged to Ciullo d'Alcamo. . . . There is but one immortal of the Bolognese school, the tender singer **Guido Guinicelli.** . . . Guido was born in Bologna, in 1220, of a noble family, famous for its learning. There is very little known of his life. . . . Upon the rise of Guelf power in the town he was exiled, and after two years' broken-hearted wandering he died. His famous canzone beginning *Al Cor Gentil* had the great honour of being imitated by Dante. . . . There was a school of Umbrian verse unnoticed by contemporaries. It was mainly religious, and rose from that spring of beautiful inspiration, the Franciscan Order. **Francis of Assisi** (1182-1226) was himself the first singer of the cycle. His canticas have the lovely freshness which is characteristic of all that concerns him. . . . That masterpiece of prose-poetry, rightly named the *Fioretti di San Francesco,* has the same perfume of purity about it. The 'Flowers' were originally composed by a companion of St. Francis. . . . A prominent and pathetic figure of the Umbrian School is **Fra Jacopone da Todi,** who was born about the year 1230. . . . He composed several 'mystery plays' for public performances organized by the Franciscans. Devout men, both lay and clerical self-named the 'Jongleurs of God,' journeyed from place to place in those days, acting Scriptural scenes for the edification of the people. . . . The new tongue reached its perfection in Tuscany. To-day the *Lingua Toscana* is a byword for its purity; so was it long ago. **Bonaggiunta of Lucca** and **Dante da Majano** are among the singers of the generation immediately preceding that of the greater Dante. The only poet of importance among the precursors, **Guido Cavalcanti,** belongs by intellect to that cycle, though by date he was contemporaneous with the author of the 'Divine Comedy.' Guido Cavalcanti was born in Florence in 1250. He came of a rich and noble race, of Guelf traditions. . . . It was no wonder that Guido should have been Dante's first and dearest friend, in spite of the difference in age, for they were like in many ways. . . . Some of Cavalcanti's poems are laboured and involved, and seem empty of genuine inspiration; but the few that come from his heart have a very different quality. . . . **Brunetto Latini** (*circa* 1210-1294) holds a curious place in Italian literature. He is chiefly known to the modern world by the fact that Dante was his scholar, but he has other claims to renown. Giovanni Villani says that Brunetto was 'the beginner and earliest master of the refining of the Florentines,' and this because he was the first to translate certain books of Cicero and other ancient authors into the new tongue. Of his original works, the *Tesoretto,* a tiresome allegorical poem with jingling rhyme, was the only one written in Italian. The book by which he himself set the greatest store, the *Livre du Trésor,* a prose encyclopædia of medieval knowledge, was written in French, because Brunetto, being in exile when he composed it, wished to gain a livelihood in France. It was very soon translated into the *volgare* by Bono Giamboni and became extremely popular. . . . The Tuscans were the first to write prose in the vulgar tongue. The earliest example is to be found in the epistles of **Fra Guittone d'Arezzo,** of the secular Order of the Frati Gaudenti, who died in Florence about the year 1294. . . . In these times prose was scarcely used for anything except epistles and chronicles. The oldest chronicle that exists is that of the Neapolitan, **Matteo Spinelli,** who died in 1268, but it is not of any importance.

Riccardo Malaspini (d. 1281) wrote a *Storia di Firenze*. The beginning is a collection of many floating legends of the age, full of ludicrous anachronisms; but the account of contemporary happenings is clear and reliable. His nephew, **Giachetto Malaspini,** continued the history down to 1286. Then the mantle fell to **Dino Compagni** (? 1265-1323), the first great chronicler. Dino was a democratic Guelf, and his writings are strongly coloured with his views. . . . His *Cronaca* covers the time between 1280 and 1312. . . . His book is severely historical, but has all the fascination of a romance."—M. L. E. Castle, *Italian literature, pp.* 2, 4-7, 9-10, 12-13, 16, 19-21, 23-25.

1283-1375.—Establishment of Italian as a literary language.—Leaders of the great Trecento. — Dante. — Petrarch. — Boccaccio. — "When, in 1283, Dante Alighieri at the age of eighteen wrote his first sonnet, it was clear that the Tuscan vernacular was to become the literary language of Italy. His own successful use of it won for it ultimate preëminence over all claimants, even though in an unfinished Latin work *De vulgari eloquentia*) he urged the choice of the best elements of each dialect as the only way to form a sound and living Italian vernacular. The loosely-knit prose of his *Vita nuova* (1292) has a peculiarly tender effectiveness; more Latin and more complex in its syntax is the prose of his *Convivio* (1308). . . . When after his death (1321) his poem, *La Commedia,* at which he had been working for many a year, became known in its completeness in literary circles, all discussion ceased. Yet he himself and his contemporaries were under the impression that Latin was still a living language in Italy. . . . [Cavalcanti was] almost the centre of a Florentine group of poets of *stil nuovo,* as they called themselves, to which Dante belonged, together with Lapo Gianni, Dino Frescobaldi, and others. Cino de' Sigisbuldi of Pistòia, the learned lawyer, was at one and the same time the friend of Dante, the last of the poets of *stil nuovo,* and the link between this group and Petrarch."—C. Foligna, *Epochs of Italian literature, pp.* 10-11.—"**Dante (Durante) Alighieri** was born at Florence in 1265. . . . Our knowledge of Dante's outer life at this period of his history is imperfect, [but] it is otherwise with his spiritual life, which he has revealed as no other could, in the . . . *Vita Nuova*. . . . It is simply the record of his attachment to a young lady whom he calls Beatrice, and whom Boccaccio enables us to identify with one whom we know from other sources to have actually existed, Beatrice de' Portinari. . . . For some years Dante participated in [the] endeavours [of the Ghibellines] to reinstate themselves by force; but eventually . . . he became a wanderer among the courts of the princes and nobles of Northern Italy, generally finding honour and protection, which he frequently repaid by diplomatic services. . . . His most distinguished patron in his later years was Cane della Scala, surnamed the Great, Lord of Verona, from whose court he retired in 1320 to that of Guido Novello da Polenta, at Ravenna. In the following year he undertook a mission to Venice, and there contracted a fever, which, aggravated it is said by the inhospitality of the Venetians in compelling him to return by land, carried him off on September 14, 1321, shortly after he had completed his great epic. . . . [Of Dante's minor writings] the *Vita Nuova* stands first both in time and in importance. It is epoch-making in many ways, as the first great example of Italian prose, the first revelation of the genius of the greatest mediæval poet. . . . The main note of Dante's genius here is its exquisite and unearthly spirituality. . . . Although the *Vita Nuova* is essentially true history, the same cannot be said of a later work preferred to it by the author himself, albeit posterity has reversed his judgment. This is the *Convito,* or *Banquet,* in which Beatrice appears as an allegory of divine philosophy. . . . The mortal maiden . . . becomes a type of supernatural glory and perfection, as we see her in the *Divina Commedia*. . . . She is no longer Beatrice de' Portinari, but Philosophy, and unfortunately in too many instances Dante's poetry has become philosophy also. . . . The literary merits of the Italian language are more fully expounded in another work of Dante's, which, however, he composed in Latin, that his arguments might reach those who would not have condescended to read the vernacular. The *De Vulgari Eloquio,* originally entitled *De Eloquentia Vulgari,* or *Of the Vulgar Tongue,* is shown by historical allusions to have been composed by 1304. Like the *Convito* it is unfinished, only two books of the four of which it was to have consisted having been written. Dante's conception of the capabilities of his native tongue does him honour, even though he restricts the number of subjects adapted to it, and would deny its use to all but gifted writers. . . . The hopes founded upon the appearance of the Emperor in Italy in 1311 probably induced Dante to publish a work written some years previously, his treatise *De Monarchia,* embodying the best mediæval conception of the spheres of temporal and spiritual government upon earth. [See ITALY: 1310-1313.] . . . To have assumed a position so far in advance of, and so decisively discriminated from that of any of his contemporaries, as in the *Vita Nuova,* would alone have ensured Dante immortality as a poet. But his lyrical works are to his epic [the Divine Comedy] as Shakespeare's sonnets to Shakespeare's dramas. . . . Dante's place in comparison with the other chief poets of the world is difficult to determine, for none but he has written an apocalypse. . . . In the year 1304, on the very day when Dante and his exiled companions were making their desperate attempt to fight their way back into Florence, **Francesco Petrarca,** the child of one of their number, was born . . . in the Tuscan town of Arezzo. Six years after Dante's death a casual encounter with a lady who awoke the faculty of song within him made the scholar the first poet of his age. But neither the innate love of letters nor the awakened faculty of poetry would have exalted Petrarch to the literary supremacy. . . . [In 1333] Petrarch graduated as a patriotic poet by composing his fine Latin metrical epistle on the woes of Italy. . . . Petrarch's [later] rural leisure was largely employed in the composition of a Latin history of Rome, which . . . would have been deeply interesting as exhibiting the classical feeling of the representative of the early Renaissance. He ultimately destroyed it, and turned to the composition of his Latin epic on the Punic war, *Africa,* for and from which he long expected immortality. His detestation of the Papal Court breaks out about this time in some powerful sonnets. His Italian poems, meanwhile, had made their way with the world to a degree surprising in an age unacquainted with printing. In 1340 he received on the same day the offer of the poetic laurel from the cities of Paris and Rome. Deciding for the latter, he embarked at Marseilles in February 1341, voyaged to Naples,

received signal marks of favour from the King, and, repairing to Rome, was invested with the laurel by the Senator of the city, April 8, 1341. From this day the history of modern literature as a recognised power may be said to date. Ere his return at the beginning of 1342, he had finished his *Africa*. . . . [In] 1344 he wrote the first of his great political odes, *Italia mia benchè il parlar sia indarno*. . . . The next few years were chiefly spent in literary occupations, the most remarkable of which was the composition (1347) of his ode to the Tribune Cola di Rienzi, in whom he saw the deliverer of his country. . . . Although Petrarch preferred Latin to Italian in the abstract, and even affected to undervalue Dante because his chief works were composed in the vulgar tongue, he acknowledged that he had missed the perfection in Latin which he was conscious of having attained in Italian. His only prose-writings with any significance for us now are the autobiographic. . . . The most important of . . . [his ethical writings are] the *De Remediis utriusque Fortunæ* (1356), in two books . . . his tract *De sua et aliorum Ignorantia* (1361), . . . [and] his *Secretum, sive de Contemptu Mundi* (1342), where the conflict in his mind between the sense of moral obligation and his passion for Laura is so depicted as to render him the prototype of Rousseau, and entitle us to derive one of the most characteristic departments of modern literature from him. He is no less the father of modern autobiography by the slight but charming sketch he has left of himself in his *Epistola ad Posteros*, prefixed to the general collection of his letters. . . . The most important of all Petrarch's Latin works is his collection of Epistles, partly formed by himself in his lifetime, and greatly enriched by the diligence of recent editors, especially Fracassetti. . . . Petrarch's activity as a scholar claimed so much larger a portion of his time and thoughts than his *Canzoniere*, and the bulk of the latter, considerable as it is, is so small in comparison with that of the mass of his writings, that [John Addington] Symonds seems almost justified in depreciating his work as an Italian lyrist in comparison with his influence as a humanist. Yet Petrarch's Latin works were like the falling rain, which passes away as a distinct existence, . . . while his poetry, confined to a definite channel by the restraints of consummate diction and style, flows in a crystal stream for ever. Here and there in other men's books, no doubt, an isolated love-strain of higher quality may be found, but nothing approaching the *Canzoniere* as an epitomised encyclopædia of passion."—R. Garnett, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 24-25, 30-32, 34-36, 40, 49, 53, 56-58, 63-64, 66.—See also EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Petrarch as a factor, etc.—"A friend and admirer of Petrarch, the third of the great Tuscans of the Trecento [Boccaccio], had like him a desire to know thoroughly the art of the Romans; he wrote likewise a Latin better than that of the scholastics and of Alighieri, but far from the elegance of some of our later writers; and in the vernacular, besides various valuable writings, he has left us one masterpiece. As Petrarch was the greatest lyric writer, so Boccaccio was the greatest Italian prose writer of the early centuries. **Giovanni Boccaccio** was born at Paris in 1313. . . . In the autumn of [1374] . . . he was obliged by illness to retire to the castle of Certaldo, the home of his ancestors, where he died December 21, 1375. Boccaccio left many works, in prose and in verse, in Italian and in Latin. In his love poems he gives some weak reflection of the lyric splendor of Dante, whom he passionately admired, and of whom he wrote an enthusiastic biography, in addition to a commentary on the first seventeen cantos of the *Inferno*. He followed often in the steps of Petrarch as well, in these poems, though not without some originality. But more original and important are his romances and his longer poems,—the *Filòcolo* and the *Fiammetta*, the *Teseide*, the *Filostrato*, the *Ameto*, the *Amorosa visione* and the *Ninfale fiesolano* ('Nymph of Fiesole'). . . . Having gained facility in fictitious writing by these works in prose and verse . . . Boccaccio began his masterpiece, . . . the *Decameron*, upon which he was engaged from 1348 to 1353. It consists of one hundred stories, divided into ten days, and preceded by a poem. . . . The *Decameron* is a mirror of Italian life in the *trecento;* customs and types, drawn from the actual, are pictured in life-like form and color. . . . The *Decameron* is very licentious and immoral. This the author himself recognized, especially after 1361, when his conscience was disturbed by the visit of one Gioacchino Ciani, formerly companion of Pietro Petroni, of Siena, who had died with the reputation of a saint. However, of the hundred novels, thirty are customarily placed in the hands of the young without fear of evil influence. As says Carducci: . . . 'the *Decameron*, the human comedy of Giovanni Boccaccio, is the only work comparable for universality to Dante's Divina Commedia.' "—F. Flamini, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 69-71, 73-75.

1450-1595.—Renaissance.—Lorenzo de' Medici and his court.—Leonardo da Vinci.—Savonarola.—Ariosto.—Michael Angelo.—Machiavelli.—Tasso.—"With the conclusion of the fourteenth century ends the finest epoch of Italian literature. It is curious how suddenly the change came. After Boccaccio, after Petrarch, there arose no more mighty souls for a long time. . . . Petrarch and Boccaccio were themselves unwitting instruments of this change. Their study of the antique, and their encyclopædic works had given the first impetus to the movement of the Renaissance. The love of learning superseded the love of art in the minds of their disciples. The beautiful *volgare*, which had been growing ever more brilliant and powerful during the last four centuries, was now, at its zenith, cast aside in favour of the decrepit Latin. . . . Nothing now was noble in men's eyes save the literature of pagan days. Aristotle had been the god of the mediæval scholiasts; Cicero was the god of Renaissance literature. . . . It was considered heresy to deviate by a hair's breadth from his example. Strange that such intellectual slavery should follow immediately upon the freedom of the *glorioso trecento*. . . . **Lorenzo dei Medici** (1448-1492), grandson of Cosimo, was educated with scrupulous care. . . . He grew up to be a man of intellectual brilliance and of very evil life. He reigned over Florence, at first conjointly with his brother Giulio, and alone after the murder of the latter in the conspiracy of the Pazzi. [See FLORENCE: 1469-1492.] . . . He reorganized the library commenced by Cosimo, and despatched envoys to Greece and to the East, that they might collect manuscripts to enrich it. He inaugurated a Platonic academy, where he sustained learned discussions with such scholars as Marsilio Ficino, Pico della Mirandola, and Angelo Poliziano. Although Lorenzo dei Medici set little store by his own language, he was nevertheless instrumental in restoring to it a shadow of its old prestige. He composed Italian songs for Carnival —those *Canti Carnascialeschi* that were condemned

FAMOUS ITALIAN WRITERS

by Savonarola. He wrote a few long poems, such as the *Selva d'Amore*, and several sonnets, which are his best work. His court of sycophants imitated him by also writing some lighter works in the *volgare*, and so gradually that lovely speech became once more accepted in the literary world. . . . **Angelo Poliziano** (1454-1494) was the poet-laureate of the Court of the Medici, and tutor to Giovanni of that house, the future Pope Leo X. His works are mainly in Latin and upon classical subjects, but one or two poems are in Italian. . . . The three brothers, **Bernardo, Luca, and Luigi Pulci**, were also poets of the Medicean cycle. The two former do not merit much attention, but Luigi is a more important person. He was born in the year 1432, and died about 1487. His writings take one right away from the classical atmosphere. His long poem, the *Morgante Maggiore*, is the first of those romantic epics, treating of the wars of Charlemagne, which enjoyed such a vogue in Italy, and prepared the way for the fame of the *Orlando Furioso*. . . . **Matteo Maria Bojardo** (1430-1494) filled at the Court of Ferrara the same literary position that Pulci held in Florence. Although the two were contemporaries, it is probable that Bojardo, encouraged by the phenomenal success of the *Morgante Maggiore*, framed his *Orlando Innamorato* in direct imitation of it. . . . **Leonardo da Vinci** (1452-1519), that delightful and fantastic being, did all things well. He only sinned in being too versatile. Had he concentrated he would have been inconceivably great. His treatise on Hydraulics and his treatise on Painting are pleasant reading still. **Girolamo Savonarola** was born at Ferrara in 1452. Revolted by the wickedness of the age, he sought refuge in the monastic life, but to him even the cloister was a battle-field. The Dominican convent of San Marco in Florence, where he soon became the leading spirit, was the centre of fierce controversy, both religious and political. His noble death upon the scaffold in 1498 effaced the memory of his errors from many minds, and caused him to be regarded by his followers as a martyr for the reform of the Church. His chief genius was for oratory, and his writings have not the soul-stirring quality of his sermons. Nevertheless, there is a rugged beauty in many of his devotional works. His treatise on the Government of Florence has all the strength of great enthusiasm. His *Cantiche*, or sacred songs, which he composed to replace the *Canti Carnascialeschi* of his hated Medici, have a simple loveliness which atones for their faulty versification."—M. L. E. Castle, *Italian literature, pp.* 168-171, 173-174, 176-177.—"**Ludovico Ariosto** was born in 1474, of noble ancestors, in the city of Modena. . . . Some lyrics of his attracted the notice of Cardinal Hippolito d'Este, and by him and his brother, the Duke Alfonso, after him, Ariosto was employed in various posts, mostly more honorable than lucrative. At their court he worked for years to perfect his epic of the 'Orlando Furioso,' which he published in 1516, the year before Luther's revolt. . . . He turned his talents in many directions to produce poems serious and satirical, which might help him in the somewhat arduous cares of life; but he never wearied in the work of constantly correcting and improving his great poem, of which the second edition appeared sixteen years after the first, just a year before the poet's death. . . . An exhaustive study of Italian poetry would dwell on Ariosto's minor poems, especially for the interesting details they give of his life; but the 'Orlando Furioso,' which he resolved to make and did make his masterpiece, is what ranks him with the immortals. It has endeared him to the hearts of all his countrymen, and has won no stinted praise from the greatest critics of all ages. . . . **Michael Angelo** was born in the same year as Ariosto, and died in 1563, the year before the birth of Shakespeare. A course on Italian poetry must never omit his name, though it is no place for a survey of his works. His poetry, like that of so many Italians, is founded on the model of Petrarch, in sonnets and madrigals. . . . His poetry has much the same traits as his sculpture: loftiness of design, an intense love of beauty, somewhat injured by the artist's absorption in his own skill, so that we rather admire the craft of the designer than the result of his labor . . . and, more than all, a prevailing air of withdrawal from the crowd, of self-contained contemplation."—W. Everett, *Italian poets since Dante, pp.* 62, 64, 96.—"**Jacopo Sannazaro** (1458-1530) won a wide fame by his book, *L'Arcadia*, a prose narrative interspersed with poetry. . . . *L'Arcadia* had much influence upon Italian and French literature, and has been aped by many writers. . . . **Niccolò Machiavelli** was born in 1469. He was the second child of Bernardo Machiavelli and Bartolommea dei Nelli, his wife. The family was ancient and honourable, fairly wealthy, being possessed of some property in Tuscany and in Florence. . . . He rose to power in troublous times. Savonarola had just been executed. The Medicis, dethroned tyrants of Florence, were for ever intriguing for a restoration of their old glory. Italy was in the throes of civil war, groaning under the heel of a score of tyrants . . . [After an active public life] he retired in 1513 to his little country estate near Florence. There he lived in seclusion with his wife and his four young sons and one daughter. . . . What was more grievous to him than his poverty was his present forced inaction after the fifteen years of strenuous and interesting work. . . . If Machiavelli had not fallen on these evil days, the world would not possess one-fourth of his immortal writings. He had, indeed, already composed a few treatises, a poem, and a play, but it was here, in his country retreat, that he worked upon his most famous books. . . . The first of these compositions was the 'Discourses,' treating of many political matters, and being, indeed, a compendium of all the theories which he afterwards worked out in other books. The next and most celebrated of his writings, 'The Prince,' deals entirely with the rule of the despot, and is, as it were, the breviary of the absolute Sovereign. . . . 'The Discourse on Florentine Government,' composed in response to . . . command, shows Niccolò's character in its finest light. . . . He says frankly what he thinks. A republican government is best for Florence. . . . In the year 1520 he was commissioned by the Cardinal, who was head of the 'studio' of Florence, to compile the history of that city. . . . He died on June 22, 1527. . . . That extraordinary work, 'The Prince,' has been the subject of more controversy than any other work. It was placed on the Index by the Church of Rome, which is not surprising, for it is a positive storehouse of wickedness. It has been called the 'breviary of tyrants.' . . . Machiavelli's other works include an essay upon 'The Manner of Treating the Rebellious Peoples of the Val di Chiana'; a 'Discourse on the Providing of Money'; a versified chronicle of contemporary events; and some plays of which the most famous is *Mandragola*."—M. L. E. Castle, *Italian literature, pp.* 246, 248, 253, 281-282, 285-286, 290, 292, 298-299.—See also History: 22; Italy: 1494-1527.—"**Torquato Tasso**, son of Bernardo Tasso, the poet, . . . and Porzia de' Rossi, of a

noble family of Pistoia, was born March 11, 1544, in Sorrento. . . . In 1559 Torquato went to Venice, where his father was carrying his *Amadigi* through the press in that great center of printing and libraries. Here he continued his studies with special attention to the classics, while he aided his father in his literary occupations and frequented the society of Venier, Molin, Girolamo Ruscelli, Paolo and Aldo Manuzio, and other men of worth. . . . To this time, it seems, the first attempts at *Rinaldo* and *Jerusalem Delivered* are to be assigned. . . . The *Gerusalemme Liberata* was completed in April, 1575. . . . The literature left by Tasso is varied and abundant. As a lyric poet he is the most productive of the century; and, though his *canzoniere* are modeled upon Petrarch's, still he is among the most original, by his flowing style, the exuberance of ornament, and the variety of content. His verses may be divided into amorous, heroic and sacred. . . . *Le sette giornate del Mondo creato* ('The Seven Days of Creation'), in blank verse, is not exempt from monotony and prolixity; but in singing the origin of created things from the Christian point of view, Tasso compares favorably, in some passages, with Lucretius. As a prose-writer he was among the most famous of the century. . . . In his letters, amounting to more than 1500, he left a precious mirror of his soul and of his genius. . . . But Tasso lives gloriously through the centuries in his *Gerusalemme Liberata*."—F. Flamini, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 218-219, 221, 225-226.—"In. November, 1593, the Sacred College offered [Tasso] the laurel crown which none had borne since Petrarch. He accepted the offer, but the ceremony was postponed . . . and just before the day set, he died, on the 25th [of April, 1595], in the convent of St. Onofrio, where he is buried. . . . The 'Jerusalem Delivered' is a true epic poem. . . . And with this epic closes the great line of Italian poetry which has sustained itself at so commanding a height for three hundred years."—W. Everett, *Italian poets since Dante, pp.* 107, 122.

1600-1700.—New spirit in literature.—Marino and his influence.—Lyric poets.—"Tasso was the last of the great Italian poets. During the century that followed his death the country reached its lowest ebb, both politically and economically. . . . Yet the seventeenth century was characterised by a craving for novelty. Never was scientific enquiry, which had broken loose from the chains of authority during the Renaissance, carried on so fearlessly in Italy as at this time; and it reached its zenith in the great discoveries of Galileo. But when this craving for novelty began to affect literature the results were not so fortunate. . . . There was a violent reaction against the ancients, against Petrarch and Tasso, and all that had hitherto been considered most authoritative in literature. . . . We find the same phenomena in most of the leading countries of Europe. . . . In Italy 'Seicentismo' was not confined to Literature. The same peculiarities appeared in art and architecture, while Lorenzo Bernini (1598-1680) reigned supreme. Belloni considers it impossible to discover any single cause for them, but holds that they owe their origin partly to the political condition of the country, partly to the rigidness of the Catholic reaction, and partly to the influence of Spain, which has always shown a tendency to the florid and the grandiose. But the leader of the movement is universally considered to have been **Giambattista Marino** (1569-1625), upon whose shoulders the blame for these affectations throughout Europe has sometimes been laid. . . . Though Marino's abilities easily found him patrons, his scandalous conduct resulted in his being twice imprisoned. . . . In 1615 he visited Paris and became popular with Maria de Medici and her court. His long-expected 'Adone' appeared in Paris, magnificently printed in 1623, and Marino's return to his own country was a veritable triumphal progress. Two years later he died in Naples. . . . He borrowed freely from the ancients, especially from Ovid and Claudian, whose decadent style had great attractions for him. 'La canzone de' baci,' an exposition of the art of kissing in all its varieties, written in his twentieth year, first brought him into notice. 'La lira' is a collection of his lyrics. 'La Sampogna' (1620) contains his 'Idilli' on various classical and pastoral tales. He is at his best in describing the pleasures of the senses, and his pictures of nature, especially of the Bay of Naples, have a more genuine ring than most of his work. But all his worst faults appear in his more conventional poems. . . . 'With Marino, the last son of the literary Renaissance,' says Vittorio Rossi, 'art was precipitated into the abyss of decadence; with Galileo Galilei, the last son of the scientific Renaissance, thought reached its full and fruitful maturity.' And there was little sign of decadence in the prose in which it found expression. Galileo himself was one of the best Italian prose-writers of all time."—L. Collison-Morley, *Modern Italian literature, pp.* 1-6.—"Although Galileo belongs preëminently to the realm of science, he was a great writer also, and he is quite the most important figure in the literature of this barren epoch. . . . His 'Dialogues on the System of the World' contain an epitome of his discoveries, written in delightful and flowing Italian."—M. L. E. Castle, *Italian literature, p.* 324.—"**Enrico Caterino Davila** (1576-1631), author of the 'Istoria della guerre civili,' is the last of the statesmen-historians of whom Machiavelli was the greatest. With his work we may class the important letters and the 'Storia della guerra di Findara' of Card. Guido Bentivoglio (1579-1644). **Traiano Boccalini** (1556-1613) was a leading publicist and a lively writer of prose, and mention must be made of **Fra Paolo Sarpi's** (1552-1623) admirable 'Storia del Concilio di Trento,' to which **Sforza Pallavicino** (1607-1667) wrote a reply on the Papal side. But if Marino's influence was the most important at this time, it was not the only one at work. Several writers returned to the Greek and Roman lyric poets, notably Pindar and Horace, for their form rather than for their content; and, though none of them altogether escaped the taint of 'Seicentismo' or 'Marinismo,' as it has also been called, it is from this period, according to Leopardi, that we may date the rise of the Ode, as distinct from the Canzone, to a prominent place in Italian literature and the beginnings of the modern lyric. The first of these was **Bagriello Chiabrera** (1552-1638), who declared that, like Columbus, he would either discover a new world or perish in the attempt. Chronologically most of his work belongs to the last century, but artistically it belongs to the new. He owes much to Ronsard. Pindar was his master and he endeavoured, like Trissino, to revive the Pindaric ode. . . . Restless and discontented, **Fulvio Testi** (1593-1646) of Ferrara, was at first highly honoured by the d'Este princes. A collection of poems in praise of the Duke of Savoy, who was taking up arms against Spain, brought about his temporary banishment through Spanish influence, but he was . . . restored to favour and . . . suddenly arrested on the discovery of his successful intrigues, . . . and placed in the fortress of Modena, where he died of disease in the same year. Leopardi unhesitatingly placed Testi at the head of the lyric poets of

the seventeenth century, and few people will dispute this decision. . . . His subjects, . . . though obviously suggested by Horace, are yet coloured by his own experience. . . . **Vincenzo da Filicaia** (1642-1707) owed his fame in his own day principally to his canzoni on the siege of Vienna by the Turks in 1683, and on its subsequent relief. . . . But these canzoni are now rightly discredited as mere florid rhetoric without a spark of genuine inspiration, and Filicaia will henceforth always be remembered for his two famous patriotic sonnets. . . . We must also mention **Francesco Redi** (1626-98), . . . whose dithyramb in praise of Montepulciano wine is full of life, and energy and the best of its kind in Italian, and **Alessandro Guidi** (1650-1712) whose style, though possessed of all the pomposity and excessive rhetoric of the age, is nevertheless not without a certain stateliness. . . . To this century Italy also owes her first mock-heroic poem, the 'Secchia Rapita,' by **Alessandro Tassoni** (1565-1635), which was the parent of all later poems of the kind, including Pope's 'Rape of the Lock' and Boileau's 'Lutrin.'"—L. Collison-Morley, *Modern Italian literature, pp.* 7-9.

1670-1745.—Philosophy and history.—Vico.—Muratori.—"Among the philosophical writers who conferred so much distinction upon Italy in the eighteenth century, the first, both in order of time and of importance was **Giovanni Battista Vico,** a Neapolitan (1668-1744). . . . Vico's fame rests less upon any particular achievement than upon the general impression which he produces as a man greatly in advance of his age. His superiority in almost every branch of investigation except physical science, of which he knew little, arises from his unflinching application of a principle which he was almost the first of moderns to recognise, that man is to be viewed collectively. . . . As a metaphysician and a jurist, Vico's claims to attention are very high, but do not properly fall within our scope. . . . We [are concerned with] . . . Vico where he comes into contact with history and literary criticism, as he does very remarkably in his criticisms upon Roman history and upon Homer. . . . [A great] name is **Lodovico Antonio Muratori** (1672-1745), but his imperishable monument was raised not as author but as editor. The publication of twenty-seven folio volumes of mediæval Italian historians displays a man singly equal to many learned societies. No one has stamped his name more deeply on the historical literature of his country than he has done by this publication."—R. Garnett, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 290, 294-295.—See also HISTORY: 25; 30.

1690-1800.—Arcadian Academy and some of its members.—Rise of opera.—Metastasio.—"The Arcadian Academy, which represents the first attempt at a reform, sought to counteract Marino's turgid conceits by the imagined simplicity of the pastoral life. . . . This Academy owes its origin to Christina of Sweden. . . . In 1690, the year after her death, the gatherings were continued. . . . Italy has always been the home of academies and the Arcadian Academy, with Crescimbeni, the historian of Italian poetry, as its President (Custode) at once came into existence. . . . Very soon, thanks largely to the energy and enthusiasm of their President, the academy captured Roman society. . . . Colonies were established all over Italy till Crescimbeni could boast that there were over a thousand poets in the country. This was not surprising when one sonnet was enough to earn a man the title. In 1725, King John V of Portgual gave the Academy a triangular piece of ground on the Janiculum, called the Serbatoio, which is still its headquarters. Arcadia was thoroughly in keeping with the artificiality of the country life of the eighteenth century, whether in Italy, in France, or in the England of Queen Anne. . . . We shall only mention a few of the principal Arcadians. **Carlo Frugoni** (1692-1768) is generally considered the most complete embodiment of their ideas. Baretti invented the word 'frugoneria' to describe his sonorous, grandiose style. . . . Besides libretti for numerous operas, he is credited with some 2,000 occasional poems. . . . **Tommaso Crudeli** (1703-45) . . . wrote a great quantity of verse. . . . His fables, in imitation of those of Lafontaine, are probably his best work. . . . Far and away the best of the lyrists of this early period was **Paolo Rolli** (1687-1765). . . . He attracted the attention of Bolingbroke and came to England in 1715. Here he . . . wrote operas, which Carducci calls 'detestable,' for Handel and others. His translation of 'Paradise Lost' is 'so faithful to the text as to be unfaithful to the traditions of Italian poetry' and earned him a place in the 'Dunciad.' He also edited various classics. But as a lyric poet he has considerable merit, and not even Metastasio has a greater variety of metres. . . . Rolli differs from the average Arcadian by the fact that he describes things as he really sees them, and he is, in consequence, really vivid. . . . We must pass over in silence the other 900 and odd poets of the academies, and proceed to Pietro Metastasio, the greatest product of Arcadia. We shall first, however, give some account of the 'melodrama' or opera, with the reform and perfection of which his name is so closely connected. Italy can claim to have given birth to the opera and finally to have brought it to maturity in the eighteenth century. . . . By this time, in fact, Italian opera had not only driven almost every other form of dramatic entertainment from the stage in the land of its birth, but had invaded virtually the whole of Europe. . . . Yet it was in many ways in a very unsatisfactory state at the beginning of the century. Scenic display was the first consideration, and the audience expected the most elaborate stage effects. . . . Some kind of reform was absolutely necessary, and the reformer appeared in Venice in the person of **Apostolo Zeno** (1668-1750). . . . Zeno wished to construct his plays more regularly, on the lines of French classical tragedy, without, however, rigidly observing the unities of time and space. . . . Zeno had given early proof of his abilities in historical poems such as 'L'incendio Veneto,' and he prefers classical or historical subjects for his operas, though he often merely adapts a play, like Racine's 'Andromache,' to suit his purposes. 'Scipione,' 'Semiramide,' and 'Caio Fabrizio' were among his most popular productions. With the assistance of Pariati he even dramatised 'Don Quixote' and the story of 'Hamlet.' The complete ignorance of Shakespeare prevalent in Italy at this time can be gathered from the fact that Zeno had never apparently heard of our greatest poet. 'Ambleto' is based on Saxo Grammaticus' story with some remarkable variations. . . . It is obvious that the traditions of the opera were more important than historic truth in Zeno's eyes. Everything harrowing or tragic is eliminated. . . . Zeno's best work is to be found in his oratorios, such as 'Gioaz' and 'David,' in which he was hardly surpassed by Metastasio himself. . . . **Pietro Trapassi, or Metastasio** (1698-1782), was born in Rome. . . . The 'Giustino' [was] a classical play composed in his fourteenth year on a subject from the 'Italia Liberata' on the lines of Gravina's own tedious productions. . . . He certainly has the true

lyric gift, with the necessary touch of melancholy, and his Neapolitan *cantate* to Nice seem to describe a genuine passion, which breaks out in 'La Tempesta' even in those formal days. His 'La Libertà,' better known as the Ode to Nice, beginning 'Grazie agli inganni tuoi,' may be called the love-poem of the eighteenth century. . . . Metastasio, however, was soon to find his true vocation. In 1721 . . . he produced the 'Orti Esperidi,' which instantly made him famous, for it gave full scope to his rich poetic gift, his descriptive powers and the musical qualities of his verse. . . . 'Didone abbandonata,' his first real opera . . . appeared in 1721. It took Naples by storm and was given at Venice and in Rome in the following year, being set to music by all the chief composers of the day. Metastasio's position was now assured, for he showed from the first a genius for writing musical verse which has never been surpassed. . . . The 'Didone' is the best of his early works. . . . The plays that followed—'Siroe,' 'Catone in Utica,' 'Artaserse,' etc., were artificial in construction and inferior to 'Didone,' though they were enthusiastically welcomed throughout Europe. . . . Among the eleven plays of the period [between 1731 and 1740] are 'Olimpiade,' 'Adriano in Siria,' 'Clemenza di Tito,' 'Achille in Sciro,' 'Temistocle,' 'Zenobia' and 'Attilio Regolo,' which was not, however, performed till 1750, and with 'Didone' they contain his best work. . . . Metastasio had definitely separated tragedy from comedy in the opera, but comedy continued to develop on its own lines throughout the early part of the century, especially at Naples, and often in dialect, for it aimed at portraying the life of the people. The best composers wrote music for the opera-bouffe, so great was its popularity, till at last it gave birth to a masterpiece in the 'Socrate immaginario,' which has been called 'one of the most delightful productions of Italian dramatic literature.' It was planned by the witty **Galiani** and completed by **Lorenzi**, the comic dramatist, and is largely an amusing skit on a learned Neapolitan doctor. At Vienna, opera-bouffe soon ousted serious opera almost entirely. Here **Casti** wrote 'Teodoro in Venezia' and his famous 'Prima la musica, poi le parole,' in revenge for his having once been told that Salieri had completed the music and he must provide words for it—a circumstance which clearly shows the inevitable doom that was threatening the librettist. More important was **Lorenzo Da Ponte**, Casti's rival for Imperial favour, a literary adventurer whose memoirs are capital reading and who ended his days in America. He was in Vienna from 1782-1793 and wrote 'Don Giovanni' and the 'Nozze di Figaro' for Mozart. But as literature the opera reached its zenith and disappeared with Metastasio and his contemporaries. Since then the words have been a mere accessory to the music."—L. Collison-Morley, *Modern Italian literature, pp.* 11-16, 18-22, 24-27, 31.

1710-1890. — Drama. — Goldoni. — Alfieri. — French influence. — Romanticism. — Manzoni's influence on drama.—Pastoral plays.—Early realists.—"**Carlo Goldoni** [1707-1793] . . . began his dramatic career as a writer of those scenarios upon which the comedians were wont to embroider as the inspiration of the moment prompted them. . . . Goldoni soon learned that he could not depend upon the actors to put into his story any of the finer shades of meaning or any of the subtler touches of character that were in his own image of it. So he proceeded to write out the words he wanted the actors to speak. The result was a drama, a real drama on the general outline of the *Commedia.*"—L. MacClintock, *Contemporary drama of Italy, p.* 10.—"Goldoni was prosaic and matter of fact, genial and tolerant. His highest ambition was to give a picture of the life of his day, especially in Venice, exactly as he saw it. He was no satirist. His keen sense of humour made the world as it was with all its extravagances, inconsistencies and even vices, so amusing in his eyes that he had no wish to reform it. Nor was he a profound philosopher, plumbing the depths of character. He caught character as it showed itself in action without seeking for the springs that move it. Had he attempted more he could never have been the author of some 250 plays and scenarios. Yet he considered that character was the foundation of all good comedy. His personages are not passionate, for passion was not a characteristic either of Goldoni or of the age in which he lived. . . . Goldoni belonged to the middle classes and had little sympathy with the nobility. He avoids describing them as much as possible, and they are always the most artificial people in his plays. He was bound to show them some respect, however, and he yielded to popular prejudice by giving Pamela a noble father. All his admiration was reserved for the old merchant class which had made Venice great, though it had almost disappeared by the eighteenth century, and Pantalone dei Bisognosi, the typical old-fashioned Venetian father, was his ideal. . . . The merest trifle suggested a play to his fertile brain. He draws upon older writers, as in the 'Buggiardo,' founded on Corneille's 'Menteur,' or upon his own experience, as in 'Gli innamorati,' or in 'L'avventuriere onorato,' or upon an incident that had arrested his attention. Then, in a few strokes, he starts the story. You are interested at once and the plot develops as if of itself. He is at his best in street scenes, as in the 'Bottega del Caffè' or 'Il Ventaglio,' where the life and bustle were exactly suited to his mixed and uncritical audience, brought up on the 'Commedia dell' arte.'"—L. Collison-Morley, *Modern Italian literature, pp.* 66-67, 69.—Among Goldoni's best comedies must be included "La Donna de Garbo," "Pamela nubile," "Le Baruffe chiozzotte," "I Rusteghi," "Todero Brontolon," "La Casa nova," "Il Burbero benefico," and "La Locandiera." "The place that Goldoni occupies in comedy must in tragedy be assigned to **Alfieri** [1749-1803]. In tragedy he is the fountainhead of Italian inspiration. Since his overmastering talent gave its first impulse to verse tragedy this form of drama has been admired and enjoyed in Italy with a relish and a steadiness that it has not achieved in any other country. Alfieri had a certain definite theory of tragedy which he followed with unswerving fidelity. He aimed at the simplicity and directness of the Greek drama. He sought to give one clear, definite action, which should advance in a straight line from beginning to end, without deviation, and carry along the characters—who are, for the most part, helplessly entangled in the toils of a relentless fate—to an inevitable destruction. For this reason the well-known *confidantes* of the French stage were discarded, no secondary action or episodes were admitted, and the whole play was shortened to a little more than two-thirds of the average French classic drama. . . . Alfieri's purpose in producing these plays was not to amuse an idle public, but to promulgate throughout his native land—then under Spanish domination—the great and lofty principle of liberty which inspired his whole life. A deep, uncompromising hatred of kings is seen in every drama, where

invariably a tyrant figures as the villain. There is a constant declamation against tyranny and slavery. Liberty is portrayed as something dearer than life itself. The struggle for freedom forms the subjects of five of his plays,—'Virginia,' 'The Conspiracy of the Pazzi,' 'Timoleon,' the 'First Brutus,' and the 'Second Brutus.' One of these is dedicated to George Washington—'Liberator dell' America.' The warmth of feeling with which, in the 'Conspiracy of the Pazzi,' the degradation and slavery of Florence under the Medici is depicted, betrays clearly Alfieri's sense of the political state of Italy in his own day. And the poet undoubtedly has gained the gratitude of his countrymen for his voicing of that love for liberty which has always existed in their hearts. . . . There is a uniformity, or even a monotony, in these nineteen plays, whose characters are more or less alike, whose method of procedure is the same, whose sentiments are analogous, and in which an activity devoid of incident hurries the reader to an inevitable conclusion, foreseen from the first act. And yet the student cannot fail to detect great tragic power, sombre and often unnatural, but never producing that sense of the ridiculous which sometimes mars the effect of Victor Hugo's dramas. The plots are never obscure, the language is never trivial, and the play ends with a climax which leaves a profound impression."—L. O. Kuhns, *Vittorio Alfieri* (*World's Best Literature*, J. W. Cunliffe and A. H. Thorndike, ed., *v.* 1, *pp.* 372-374).—"In direct contrast to the comedy of Goldoni, the tragedy of Alfieri is not native to Italian soil, has no root in the life of the people. It is rather a purely conventional art drama on the classical model. . . .

"This influence of French models upon Italian literature, notably upon drama, is one of the outstanding features of the modern movement. The borrowing from the French is incessant; all aspects of the movement had had a prompt echo in Italy. . . . **Alessandro Manzoni** (1785-1873) . . . when still a youth . . . became acquainted with Northern literature under the guidance of Madame de Staël. . . . Through her he became acquainted with the plays of Shakespeare, whom he passionately admired. . . . He wrote two important plays, . . . *Il Conte di Carmagnola* (1819) and *Adelchi* (1822). . . . From a technical point of view Manzoni is of great importance in the history of the drama. In his day the Italian play was still saddled with the weight of the three unities, and other conventional working rules. . . . Manzoni is the outstanding dramatic writer of Italian Romanticism. [See also below: 1750-1873.] . . . Next to Manzoni . . . the man who stands out above the group is **Giovanni Battista Niccolini** (1782-1861). He was prominent enough to give his name to a type of play. After his tragedy *Nabucco*, the patriotic drama came to be called the *'tragedia Niccoliana.'* He enjoyed in his own day a most flattering success, which may have been due to the popular nature of his subject matter rather than to the dramatic or poetic merits of his plays; William Dean Howells, however, who has translated parts of Niccolini's best known play, *Arnaldo di Brescia*, calls this play a mighty tragedy."—L. MacClintock, *Contemporary drama of Italy*, *pp.* 13, 15, 19, 21.—Among his plays are "Polissena," 1870, "Media," 1812, "Nabucco," 1816, "Antonio Foscarini," 1821, "Giovanni da Procida," 1830, "Ludovico Sforza," 1832, "Rosmunda d'Inghilterra," 1838, "Arnaldo di Brescia," 1843, and "Felippo Strozzi," 1847. "It is **Pietro Cossa** that stands out as the commanding figure of this epoch of the Italian theatre; he was the first genuine man of the theatre of the nineteenth century. . . . *Nero* is in many respects Cossa's best play and remains almost a great play. . . . Besides *Nero* one is tempted to single out for mention *Messalina*, called by some critics his best, and *Cleopatra*, in connection with which Costetti has not hesitated to mention the name of Shakespeare. As a poet Cossa seldom rose above the level of mediocrity, but his average verse is quite well suited to dramatic dialogue. . . . While the historical play in its various varieties was the most characteristic product of Italian Neo-Romanticism, the pastoral play was, fortunately, confined to the sixties and seventies. **Marenco**, just as he had invented the *Dramma medievale*, boasts that with his *Marcellina* (1860), *Giorgio Gandi* (1861) and *Celeste* (1866) he set a fashion and wrote the first of a long line of similar plays. Indeed they did start a type of drama as false to life as it was to art. . . . The same motives which in America inspired the New England farm drama found their expression in Italy in the pastoral plays of Marenco and his followers. **Paolo Giacometti** (1816-1882), though the best of them, serves to represent a large group of writers who flourished at this time, whose cry was sensation, and whose effort was solely for effect— . . . the large group of melodramatists. . . . He is put in the front rank of melodramatic playwrights by his two plays *Maria Antonietta, Regina di Francia* and *La Morte Civile*, which Tonelli calls the most notable works of Italian *basso romanticismo*. The latter was particularly important. . . . It was Paolo Giacometti who produced what we are justified in calling the first comedy of manners of the modern school, a play which he assures us is an *étude sur le vif*, and a picture of manners or satire in dialogue rather than a comedy—*The Poet and the Dancing Girl* (*Il Poeta e la Ballerina*). . . . **Felice Cavalotti** wrote comedies also, his *The Song of Songs* and *Love Letters*, delightful and flimsy pieces, still being seen occasionally; but with Paolo Ferrari, Achille Torelli, Del Testa and Martini comedy really anticipates the modern movement. That realism which is latent in the historical plays and melodramas becomes vocal in the comedies. The plays of **Paolo Ferrari** (1822-1889) fall inevitably into three groups: in the first historical plays, in the manner of Goldoni in which Ferrari did his most expert work, producing two masterpieces *Goldoni and his Sixteen New Comedies* (*Goldoni e le sue sedici commedie nuove*) (1852) and *Satire and Parini* (*La Satira e Parini*) (1856) both on subjects derived from Italian literary history; in the second group are plays of popular inspiration and of contemporary life, *A Sick Girl's Medicine* (*La medecina d'onna ragazza amaleda*) and *Uncle Venanzio's Will* (*Il Codicillo del Zio Venanzio*); in the third group, under the inspiration of Augier, Dumas *fils* and Pailleron, he goes frankly over to the *pièce à thèse*."—*Ibid.*, *pp.* 26-31.—In this group, besides other plays, are "Prose," 1867, "The Dual," 1868, and "Ridicule," 1872.

1750-1873.—Satirical poetry of Parini.—Growth of national consciousness.—Revival of classical influence.—Monti.—Poetry and criticism of Foscolo.—Pindemonte.—Leopardi.—Romantic spirit.—Poetry and novels of Manzoni.—**Giuseppe Parini** "was born in Bosisio, an obscure town of the Milanese, on the 22d of May, 1729. . . . He had to struggle with hard poverty all his life, and engaged in work as a private tutor to support himself and his mother. At every leisure moment he labored on what he intended should be his great work, a satire which

he called 'Il Giorno,' or 'The Day,' which he published in parts. He attracted the favorable notice of the Austrian minister in Lombardy, who encouraged his writing and ultimately obtained for him some important positions as Professor of Literature, where his lectures bore worthy fruit. He joined a so-called patriotic society, which engaged him to write the funeral eulogy of the Empress Maria Theresa. . . . The premature reforms of Joseph II drew his attention to politics. . . . On the arrival of the French in Milan, he was placed on the magistracy of the city . . . but he died poor, on the 15th of August, 1799. The chief work of Parini is his satire of 'The Day' in three parts, 'Morning,' 'Noon,' and 'Evening.' It is conceived precisely in the temper of the Roman satirist Persius, and is a bitter piece of irony, arraigning the worthless young nobility of Milan—their indolence, their frivolity, their effeminacy, their surrender to the cook, the barber, and the dancing-master."—W. Everett, *Italian poets since Dante, pp.* 217-219.—"If Parini had paved the way for the moral regeneration of Italy and Alfieri for the political, it was to the French Revolution that she owed her first taste of liberty and self-government. . . . But a restoration of the old governments did not mean a restoration of the old order of things. . . . Italy had become conscious of herself as a nation, and unity and independence were soon the goals towards which all that was best in the land was struggling. Just as in the Middle Ages the ideal was religious, as at the Renaissance it was aesthetic, so now it had become political. Hence it is impossible to separate literature from politics, for the idea of Italian unity gradually becomes the dominant note in the one as in the other. . . . This transition period is noticeable for a steady revival of the classical influence in poetic form, while even in content classicism recovered much lost ground. Its most typical representative in every way was **Vincenzo Monti** (1754-1828)."—L. Collison-Morley, *Modern Italian literature, pp.* 143-144.—"When Alfieri died . . . there was a strong feeling, which lasted long, that his true successor, the veritable regenerator of Italian poetry, was Vincenzo Monti. . . . He was sent to the University of Ferrara, and developed such fondness for literature and poetry that he gave up his life to them entirely. . . . He was admitted to the academy called Arcadia, where he showed a disposition to satire and a dislike of criticism by no means acceptable to his coadjutors. . . . Alfieri was at this time winning his first tragic successes, and Monti brought out a drama called 'Aristodemus,' [1786] in which was to be all Alfieri's life and force with greater elegance of style. . . . The 'Aristodemus' has a plot that revolted everybody and I fail to find in it any compensating attraction. Monti followed it up with 'Galeotto Manfredi,' and subsequently with 'Caius Gracchus,' both in imitation of Alfieri, but they have little force. About this time Basseville, the Girondist ambassador at Rome, was assassinated in the streets, and Monti poured himself forth in a poem in which all the horrors of the ultra-Catholics and Legitimists against the French Convention was displayed in what was supposed to be the true style of Dante. He retained this tone for some years, till, on the advent of Napoleon, he discovered that here was to be the deliverer of Italy; and the same pen that had compared Lewis XVI to the Savior of the world was employed to extol Bonaparte as the savior of the Italians. Monti was employed in the service of the Cisalpine Republic, and Bonaparte, hearing one of his poems in honor of revolutionary liberty, declared him a mighty genius. . . . Monti continued to exalt Bonaparte through his career, but interrupted his court poetry to prepare a translation of Homer, admitting he knew no Greek. After Napoleon's fall, he composed two poems in praise of the imperial house of Austria, and lived on, a voluminous and controversial bookman, till 1828."—W. Everett, *Italian poets since Dante, pp.* 220-222.—"Monti . . . was always an *improvvisatore,* and the subjects which events cast in his way were like the themes which the improvvisatore received from his audience. He applied his poetic faculty to their celebration with marvelous facility, and, doubtless, regarded the results as rhetorical feats. His poetry was an art, not a principle; and perhaps he was really surprised when people thought him in earnest, and held him personally to account for what he wrote. 'A man of sensation, rather than sentiment,' says Arnaud, 'Monti cared only for the objective side of life. He poured out melodies, colors, and chaff in the service of all causes.' . . . Of course such a man instinctively hated the ideas of the Romantic school, and he contested their progress in literature with great bitterness. He believed that poetry meant feigning, not making; and he declared that 'the hard truth was the grave of the beautiful.' . . . His poems fill many volumes; and all display the ease, perspicuity, and obvious beauty of the improvvisatore."—W. D. Howells, *Modern Italian poets, pp.* 110-111.—"**Ugo Foscolo** (1778-1827), the second eminent poet of the revolutionary period, successively Monti's champion and his adversary, is in most respects a violent contrast to him. . . . His romance, *Jacopo Ortis* (1798), perhaps the most celebrated of his productions, is a reminiscence of *Werther* and a forerunner of *René,* but adds to the merely personal sorrows of these tragic autobiographies the nobler motive of despair at the ruin and enslavement of the hero's country. Foscolo, though born at Zante, was prouder of his Venetian descent than of his Greek nativity, and the ignominious end of so glorious a history as the Republic's not unnaturally or ignobly drove him to despair. . . . Unlike the exuberant Monti, Foscolo wrote little poetry, but his scanty production is of choice quality. His most celebrated poem is the *Sepolcri* (1807), which in style and subject bears a remarkable resemblance to . . . Bryant's *Thanatopsis.* . . . Foscolo's other most considerable poetical composition, his *Hymns to the Graces,* celebrated as the beneficent spirits of Greece, Italy, and an ideal world, was long but an aggregation of fragments, and was recovered as a whole only in 1856. . . . Foscolo's tragedies, *Ajax* and *Ricciarda,* are fine compositions in the spirit of Alfieri. . . . The few minor poems of Foscolo are admirable. . . . As a critic he accomplished more than it will be easy to accomplish after him, coming just at the moment when Europe, weary of the superficial aesthetics of the eighteenth century, was anxiously looking for a guide to the spirit of the past. It is as much by this happy fortune as by their intrinsic merit that his essays mark an era in the literary history of Dante, Petrarch, Tasso, and Boccaccio. . . . Little as **Ippolito Pindemonte** (1754-1825) resembled Foscolo either as an author or as a man, their names are frequently associated on account of Pindemonte's reply to Foscolo's *Sepolcri,* a fine poem breathing the spirit of resignation and tranquillity, for which his gloomy predecessor had left him abundant scope. Pindemonte's best production, however, is his *Antonio Foscarini,* a true tale of unhappy love, recited with great pathos in ele-

gant octaves. . . . Monti and Foscolo, with their genius, could not escape the influence of their times. In the French and Italian literature of the Imperial period, and still more in its art, a certain pseudo-classical affectation is visible."—R. Garnett, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 337-342. —"In the year 1798, at Recanati, a little mountain town of Tuscany, was born, noble and miserable, the poet **Giacomo Leopardi**. . . . At the age of sixteen . . . Leopardi already knew all Greek and Latin literature; he knew French, Spanish and English; he knew Hebrew, and disputed in that tongue with the rabbis of Ancona."—W. D. Howells, *Modern Italian poets, p.* 245.—"At eighteen he wrote a remarkable poem on the Approach of Death. . . . In 1819 he wrote and published two odes, expressing the deep distress of all his countrymen at the sad position in which Italy found herself. . . . No lyrics so powerful had been written since Filicaja, one should rather say since Petrarch. . . . He published more poems which, like all he wrote, received the warmest applause. . . . [He] drifted to Florence, where he formed a new and considerate friend in Ranieri, with whom he passed the last few years of his life in Naples. During these he wrote one tremendous satire on his country's foreign tyrants. . . . But the feeble frame was worn out, and he died on the 15th of June, 1837."—W. Everett, *Italian poets since Dante, pp.* 234-235.—"Leopardi's poems, though the majority are in blank verse, may generally be defined as canzoni, either odes in the strict sense of the term, addresses to friends, impassioned outpourings of lovely thought, . . . or apostrophes to inanimate objects. . . . Three of the most celebrated odes, *To Italy, On the Florentine monument to Dante,* and *To Angelo Mai on the Recovery of Cicero de Republica,* may be styled patriotic. . . . Leopardi's blank verse is the finest in Italian literature. . . . [His] prose works, his correspondence and philological essays excepted, are, like his poetry, limited in extent and in range of subject, but incomparable for refinement and beauty of form. . . . The most remarkable of his prose writings are the Dialogues, which almost all turn upon the everlasting theme of the misery of mankind."—R. Garnett, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 360-362.—"The reigning taste required to be brought nearer to Nature, and the writer who could effect this was sure to mark an epoch in the literature of his country. The mission was discharged by **Alessandro Manzoni**, a man who announces a new departure in many ways. . . . From one point of view he signalises the invasion of the romantic spirit. . . . From another, he founds the Neo-Catholic school, and personifies the revival of the religious spirit in its most gentle and edifying form. . . . In 1812 he began to produce his hymns, mostly on the festivals of the Church. . . . They attracted little attention until the appearance of his famous ode on the death of Napoleon, *Il Cinque Maggio*. . . . A patriotic poem of equal power, the ode on the march of the Piedmontese volunteers to succour the Lombards in 1821 . . . has suffered less, or indeed nothing, from the lapse of time. [See also above: 1710-1890.] . . . If Manzoni was surpassed as a dramatist and equalled as a lyrist by others among his countrymen, he has hitherto found no competitor as a novelist. *I Promessi Sposi* (1825) was the first great Italian romance, and it remains the greatest. . . . His other prose works comprise, the *Column of Infamy,* an historical appendix to *I Promessi Sposi, Letters on Romanticism,* an able polemic on behalf of the romantic school, and *Letters on the Unities of Time and Place,* demonstrating that the unity of action is the only unity which need be regarded by the dramatist."—*Ibid., pp.* 342-345, 348-349.

1827-1872.—**Political activity and writings of Gioberti and Mazzini.**—"Among the more distinguished authors . . . who systematically laboured for the deliverance and regeneration of their country must be named two most illustrious men, both called upon to deal with practical affairs, yet chiefly efficacious through their writings, **Vincenzo Gioberti** and **Giuseppe Mazzini**. Both were subjects of the King of Sardinia—Gioberti a royal chaplain at Turin; Mazzini a man of letters at Genoa writing essays in defence of the romantic school. Both were incarcerated and banished—Gioberti through the animosity of the Jesuits, Mazzini as a Carbonaro. Gioberti betook himself to France, Mazzini to England. Gioberti soon obtained an European reputation by his philosophical writings, but does not appear to have materially influenced French opinion in favour of his country. Mazzini, on the other hand, produced great effects by his mission to England,

VINCENZO GIOBERTI

where the 'swift, yet still, Ligurian figure; merciful and fierce; true as steel, the word and thought of him limpid as water' (Carlyle), fascinated the best men and women, and made the emancipation of Italy a cause dear to the heart of the people. . . . Gioberti accomplished infinitely more for the national cause by his great book, *Il Primato d'Italia* (1845), which dissuaded Italy from abortive conspiracies, and preached spiritual as a preparation for political unity. It also, by its own merits and the reputation which the author had already gained as a thinker, compelled men of intellect to look into her case. . . . Gioberti . . . died suddenly in 1852, just as a new chapter of events was opening. . . . It would have been well for the political, though not the literary reputation of Mazzini if he had died about the same time in the good odour of the courage and capacity he had shown in the defence of Rome against the French. . . . His public career down to his death in 1872 is a series of lamentable mistakes. . . . Happily there was another and more extensive field in which this enthusiasm was perfectly in place. Mazzini was much more than a conspirator, more even than a patriot. As a man of letters, he concerned himself with Ger-

man, English, and Slavonic literature, and opened up new horizons to Italian thought. . . . His mysticism, his austere magnanimity, and his deeply religious feeling find their most perfect expression in his noble epistle to the members of the Œcumenical Council of 1869."—R. Garnett, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 370-373.—See also ITALY: 1831-1848.

1830-1912. — **Modern poetry. — Giusti. — Carducci and his followers.—Aleardi.—Modern tendencies. — Fogazzaro. — Pascoli.** — "**Giuseppe Giusti,** who is the greatest Italian satirist of the [nineteenth] century, and . . . in some respects the greatest Italian poet, was born in 1809 at Mossummano in Tuscany, of parentage noble and otherwise distinguished. . . . He was a political satirist, whose success was due to his genius, but who can never be thoroughly appreciated by a foreigner, or even an Italian not intimately acquainted with the affairs of his times; and his reputation must inevitably diminish with the waning interest of men in the obsolete politics of those vanished kingdoms and duchies. . . . Ever since the French Revolution of 1830, and the sympathetic movements in Italy, Giusti had written political satires which passed from hand to hand in manuscript copies, the possession of which was rendered all the more eager and relishing by the pleasure of concealing them from spies. . . . A Swiss printed edition appeared in 1844."—W. D. Howells, *Modern Italian poets, pp.* 275, 278.—After the publication of a volume of minor verses, Giusti's fame was thoroughly established by the satire "Gingillino." Later poems included "Il Re Travicello" (or King Log), "Il Brindisi di Girella" (the Weathercock's Toast), and the "Dies Iræ." "**Giosue Carducci,** the regenerator of Italian literature, was born near Pietrasanta, in Tuscany. . . . In Pisa, where he went to study in 1853, Carducci . . . passed the time . . . in poetising and studying. . . . No sooner had he left the University than we find him in 1856 at Florence editing, along with 'Gli Amici Pedanti,' the literary review *Il Poliziano,* in which were waged the first battles against the tenets of the Romantic school. In 1860, at the dawn of the Unification, the Government of the newly united kingdom invited young Carducci, the first poet of the third Italy, to fill the chair of Literature at the University of Bologna. There the ardent and imaginative poet, after a long and illustrious career, died in 1907. . . . The work of Carducci as a poet, a critic and a prose writer is imposing. The earliest period of his poetical activity reflects the classical revolutionary stage of the young republican engaged in fierce battle in the arena of political passion. The *Juvenilia,* the *Levia Gravia,* the *Giambi ed Epodi* fully revealed the character and temper of the poet, if not the artistic perfection which he afterwards attained. His *Hymn to Satan,* which gained more than national notoriety, is the culminating triumph of this period. . . . The *Rime Nuove* mark a new stage in the poet; Carducci's political passions began to abate, his anti-clericalism becomes moderate, and his whole conscience undergoes a complete evolution, the poet has become an artist. It is, however, in the three series of the *Odi Barbare* that Carducci reveals himself as a complete poetical personality. These odes possess a force, a grace, a tenderness, and a plastic perfection of form and style which we seek in vain to find united together in the work of any contemporary poet. Carducci's prose works are very numerous. His historical and literary essays combine force, charm, and erudition. His prose is most unlike the prose of a poet. . . . Carducci has been rightly styled the father of modern Italian literature, for from his school have come Chiarini, Marradi, Guerrini, Panzacchi, Graf, Pascoli, Ferrari, Mazzoni, and D'Annunzio—all poets and critics whose qualities of fancy, style, harmony, and technique link them with the beloved master."—E. Grillo, *Italian prose-writers, pp.* 537-539.—"In the first quarter of the [nineteenth] century was born a poet, in the village of San Giorgio, near Verona, of parents who endowed their son with the magnificent name of **Aleardo Aleardi.** . . . His first long poem, Arnaldo, . . . was published at Milan in 1842, and . . . won him immediate applause. It was followed by the tragedy of Bragadino; and in the year 1845 he wrote "Le Prime Storie," which he suffered to lie unpublished for twelve years. It appeared in Verona in 1857, a year after the publication of his "Monte Circellio," written in 1846. The revolution of 1848 took place. . . . In 1852, for the part he had taken in the revolution, he was arrested and imprisoned in the fortress at Mantua, thus fulfilling the destiny of an Italian poet of those times. . . . [After his release] Aleardi returned to Verona and to his books, publishing another poem in 1856, called "Le Città Italiane Marinare e Commercianti." His next publication was, in 1857, "Rafaello e la Fornarina"; then followed by "Un' Ora della mia Giovinezza," "Le Tre Fiume," and "Le Tre Fanciulle," in 1858. . . . His publications since 1859 [include] a Canto Politico and "I Se He Soldati." . . . The first considerable work of Aleardi was "Le Prime Storie" (Primal Histories) in which he traces the course of the human race. . . . A very little book holds all the poems which Aleardi has written. . . . He has in greater degree than any other Italian poet of this age, or perhaps of any age, those qualities of feeling and brilliancy of expression. He lacks simplicity of idea, and his style is an opal which takes all lights and hues, rather than the crystal which lets the daylight colorlessly through. He is distinguished no less by the themes he selects than by the expression he gives them."—W. D. Howells, *Modern Italian poets, pp.* 333, 335-336, 338, 358.—"Aleardi . . . as a poet had the applause of his countrymen in this age, and certainly he was not wanting in activity of mind and in sentiment; but it not infrequently becomes sentimentalism, academic and empty. . . . Finally, the primacy is claimed from Prati and Aleardi by **Giacomo Zanella** (1820-1888), of Chiampo in the Vicentino, Professor for many years in the University of Padua, who was truly one of the noblest poets of New Italy. . . . Among his lyrics the most perfect and most profound is the ode to a fossil sea-shell, which is most exquisitely elaborated. Very beautiful are also the *Veglia* ('Vigil'), *Il taglio dell' istmo di Suez* ('The Cutting of the Suez Isthmus'), *Egoismo e carità, Milton e Galileo,* and the collection of poems entitled *Astichello.* Many other poets had their readers and admirers at this period. [Among these was] **Giuseppe Revere** (1812-1889), of Trieste, author of historic dramas not adapted to the stage, and of prose lively and occasionally humorous,—*Bozzetti alpini* ('Alpine Sketches') and *Marine e paesi.* . . . To the Milanese **Emilio Praga** (1839-1875), one of the brightest minds of what was called the third generation of romanticists, but by reason of his dissolute life dead in the flower of his years, we owe some collections of poesy, where, in the midst of French imitations and faults of style, are passages original in thought and form. **Francesco Dall' Ongaro** (1810-1873), of Oderzo, a priest, then a Garibaldian and an exile, and lastly a professor, rose to fame

especially by a drama *Il fornaretto,* by his *Stornelli* on political subjects and in popular tone, which were a happy novelty, and by many beautiful poems. The extempore poet **Giuseppe Regaldi** (1809-1883), of Novara, . . . became public Instructor of History in the new Kingdom of Italy, and devoted himself to polishing his verses and writing more, among them the fine ode on the pass in the Cottian Alps and a poem in polimeter on Water. . . . The three poets mentioned above—Prati, Aleardi, and Zanella—were still in their glory when Carducci's first volume appeared in 1857. . . . Naturally such a poet founds a school. Among his followers were Gabriele D'Annunzio . . . and Guido Mazzoni.

"**Giuseppe Chiarini,** of Arezzo, born in 1833, author of poems of merit, in which the chord of sorrow often vibrates, experimented with the new Carduccian meters in translations from Greek and Latin. . . . Severino Ferrari, born in 1856, of Alberino near Bologna, and Giovanni Marradi, born in 1852, of Leghorn, returning to the older measures of the country, expressed sentiment or depicted natural scenery with lively fantasy."—F. Flamini, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 348-349, 351.—"**Antonio Fogazzaro** (1842-1911), poet and novelist, was born at Vicenza. He studied law at the University of Turin, and subsequently became a disciple of the poet Zanella. As a youth he began to write verses, and in 1874 published *Miranda,* a novel in verse, which was followed by *Valsolda and Profumo,* two volumes of lyrics. His novels met with great success, and their popularity soon extended to France and England. Amongst the most interesting works from his pen are: *Daniele Cortis, Malombra, Il Piccolo Mondo Antico, Il Piccolo Mondo Moderno. Il Santo* had a 'succès de scandale,' and was placed on the *Index Expurgatorius* on account of its modernist views, in spite of the author's unquestioned orthodoxy." —E. Grillo, *Italian prose-writers, p.* 565.—"We should speak of many others, if space were not lacking, who rise above the common herd of adorers of the Muses that have swarmed throughout the peninsula in the past three decades. . . . We must content ourselves with noting that the attention of Italians is now fixed with particular confidence upon three poets: **D'Annunzio, Marradi,** and **Giovanni Pascoli,** the last-named born in 1855 [d. 1912] at San Mauro di Romagna, noted also as an exquisite Latinist and as a critic."—F. Flamini, *History of Italian literature, p.* 352.—Pascoli's "genius developed under the poetical inspiration of Carducci, of whom he was the beloved pupil and friend. . . . In 1907 the poet was invited to fill Carducci's chair in the University of Bologna. Pascoli started his poetical career in 1891 with the publication of a work entitled *Myricae.* There followed in rapid succession the volumes entitled *I Poemetti, I Canti di Castelvecchio, I Poemi Conviviali, Odi,* and *Inni.* He also published several interesting volumes in prose, including various valuable studies on Dante. Pascoli is considered one of the most original disciples of Carducci, and regarded as a harmonious poet endowed with a deep sentiment for nature." —E. Grillo, *Italian prose-writers, p.* 585.

1860-1914.—Prose.—Criticism.—Influence of De Sanctis.—Political and economic writing.—Development of the novel and romance.—Revival of historical writing and philology.—"Italy, once more a united nation after so many misfortunes and so great glory, seems for a time less active and productive in literary work. The best results of the artistic efforts of the Italians, from 1860 to 1870, are perhaps in criticism. Into this field Carducci and D'Ancona have entered; and in it, justly praised and admired, reigns supreme the inaugurator of psychologic and æsthetic criticism, Francesco De Sanctis."—F. Flamini, *History of Italian literature, p.* 346.—"**Francesco De Sanctis** [1817-1883] was born at Morra Irpina in South Italy. . . . Joining the Liberal movement for the emancipation of Italy he suffered imprisonment for three years. On his liberation he taught Italian literature first at Turin and afterwards at the Polytechnic of Zurich. Returning to Naples in 1860 he received many marks of honour from Garibaldi, and was elected Deputy, Minister of Public Education and Professor of Literature in the University of Naples. As the founder of the æsthetic school of criticism De Sanctis occupies an important place among the men of letters of the nineteenth century. His *Letteratura Italiana, Saggi Critici, Nuovi Saggi Critici, Lectures and Monographs on Leopardi and Petrarch* are works of great moment."—E. Grillo, *Italian prose-writers, p.* 499.—"Other critics and writers of various kinds of literature flourished between 1860 and 1880: **Eugenio Camerini** (1811-1875), of Ancona, whose *Profili* and *Nuovi profili letterarii,* rich in wise and original observations, are still deservedly held in high esteem; **Carlo Tenca** (1816-1883), of Milan, author of praiseworthy political and literary writings; **Giuseppe Guerzoni** (1835-1885), of Mantua, a politician and soldier who occupied the chair at Padua formerly held by Zanella, where he was engaged in the civic education of Italian youth, and wrote fine biographies of Garibaldi and of Bixio; **Vittorio Imbriani** (1840-1886), of Naples, a critic witty, bold, combative, erudite, and of singular temper; and, above all, **Luigi Settembrini** (1813-1877), a Neapolitan also, who, after an imprisonment of many years at Santo Stefano, nobly endured, was chosen professor in the University of Naples and devoted himself with ardor to the work of teaching. Between 1866 and 1872 he published three volumes of lessons in Italian Literature, pleasing and systematic, but superficial; besides a translation of Lucian, he left beautiful and important recollections of his life. Settembrini's *Lezione,* like the history of Italian Literature by Paolo Emiliani Giudici, a Sicilian, have had their day. The work of De Sanctis remains, and doubtless will remain. . . .

"Among the contemporary prose-writers is Carducci again, one of the very first by the Italianity and the singular vigor and originality of his style. Quite different from his is the prose of Edmondo De Amicis, . . . the sole 'epigono' of Manzoni that has risen to renown."—F. Flamini, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 347, 353.—"The popular writer, **Edmondo De Amicis** (1846-1908), was born at Oneglia. [He was] educated at the Military School of Modena. . . . In 1867 he contributed to the Italia Militare and to the Nuova Antologia the *Bozzetti Militari* and the *Novelle,* which were generally admired and met with such success that the writer retired from the army and devoted himself entirely to literature. De Amicis travelled through many parts of the world and described the countries he visited in many popular books: *Spagna, Marocco, Olanda, Costantinopli, Sull' Oceano,* and *Alle Porte d' Italia.* He assayed also novel-writing, publishing *Il Romanzo di un Maestro* and *La Maestrina degli Operai.* Amongst his other contributions to literature, *Cuore,* a text-book for schoolboys which was translated into all European languages, occupies a prominent place. *I Ritratti Letterari, Gli Amici, L'Idioma Gentile,* and *La Carrozza di Tutti*

enjoyed also great reputation. De Amicis is a pleasing writer who has gained much popularity by the beauty of his literary style, the purity of his language, and the graphic power which he displays, especially in his descriptions of landscapes."—E. Grillo, *Italian prose-writers, p.* 571.—"Another prose-writer of our time who takes a place among the most celebrated is **Ruggiero Bonghi** (1827-1895), a Neapolitan, an admirable writer, translator of Plato, author of innumerable works in politics, history, philosophy, criticism and economy. Much less prolific but a very terse writer, was **Marco Tabarrini,** of Pomarance (1818-1898), to whom we owe valuable studies in historical criticism and a beautiful book on Gino Capponi. In clear and candid elegance of style he is rivaled by **Cesare Guasti** (1822-1889), of Prato, historian and philologist. **Tullo Massarani** (1826-1905), of Mantua, and **Gaetano Negri** (1838-1902), of Milan, published suggestive books on various subjects. **Ferdinando Martini,** of Monsummano, born in 1841, a statesman, orator, and *conferenziere,* writes brilliant and subtle prose. Less fluency but a singular variety of ideas was in **Paulo Fambri** (1827-1897), a Venetian, known also as a writer of comedies. **Giuseppe Puccianti,** born in Pisa in 1830, a Manzonian and writer of graceful Tuscan, is the author of poems, tales in rhyme, epigrams, and little comedies for the young; also of a good educative book, *Il Piccolo Emilio,* and noteworthy critical essays. . . . In the romance and in the novel of Italy after 1860 liberal imitations from the French predominated over original work, especially imitations of Zola, the most celebrated representative of the realistic school. The historical romance, which had no longer reason to be, having disappeared, the masterpiece of Manzoni continued none the less to exert an influence on our writers. The characteristic tradition of our country was not interrupted; **Anton Giulio Barrili,** born in 1836, of Savona, prolific and versatile, continued it with his innumerable romances; **Salvatore Farina,** born in 1846, of Sorso near Sassari, connected himself with it, approaching the manner of Dickens in the optimism and the humor of which certain of his stories are full. But the Italian romance of the past thirty years has been inspired by the same ideas that inform contemporaneous foreign romances; that is to say, not common food for the curiosity of readers weary or in haste or inattentive, but founts of intellectual enjoyment for those able to appreciate the subtle dissection of character and passion. To **Giovanni Verga,** born in 1840, of Catania, the life of the people and of the middle class in his Sicily has offered subjects for many romances and novels that are full of truth and vigor, notwithstanding certain artifices of manner. **Matilde Serao,** born at Patrasso in 1856, who stands first among the women authors of fame in Italy, by activity of imagination and vigor of style, also has tales masterfully constructed from observation of men and manners which probably will stand the test of time. **Gabriele D'Annunzio,** too, has made psychologic analysis a feature of his novels, read to-day throughout Europe, as well as of some of his dramas—among which *La figlia di Jorio* is particularly original and vigorous. He owes much to the French—Zola, Flaubert, Maupassant, and others—and something to the Russians—Tolstoi and Dostojevski. . . . Much better for the young are the romances of **Antonio Fogazzaro,** of Vicenza, born in 1842. . . . Of the other living novelists who are held in high estimation—as Girolamo Rovetta, Luigi Capuana, Renato Fucini, the last-named a lively painter of manners in the *Veglie di Neri,* and author of fine sonnets in the Pisan dialect—we cannot speak more particularly. . . .

"After 1860 critical and philological work took many able minds from original literary production —work carried on with zeal and a common intent to give the nation a history of its letters worthy the traditions of its culture. The lead in this line of study was taken almost simultaneously by **Carducci, D'Ancona** and **Bartoli.** . . . In history, **Giuseppe De Leva,** of Zara (1821-1895), with a vast work upon Charles V from documentary sources, and **Pasquale Villari,** a Neapolitan born in 1827, with powerful works on Savonarola and Machiavelli, have taught the abandonment of subjective criticism and preconceived political ideas in the search for truth."—F. Flamini, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 353-355, 357-358, 360.—"Pasquale Villari [1827-1914] was born at Naples, where he studied in the faculty of arts under the eminent critic, Francesco de Sanctis. Involved in the revolutionary movement of 1848 against the Bourbons, he fled to Florence in order to avoid the cruel fate of Settembrini and his companions. In 1859 he was chosen to fill the chair of History in the Institute di Studi Superiori, in which office he applied his energies to the constitutional reconstruction of the unified kingdom of Italy. Villari has enjoyed in full measure the confidence and esteem of his fellow-countrymen and has held the important offices of Deputy, Minister of Education, and Vice-President of the Senate. His great historical works have run through many editions and have been translated into several languages. His best-known works are: *Savonarola e i suoi tempi, I Primi due Secoli della Storia di Firenze, Le Invasioni Barbariche in Italia, I Saggi Critici, La Civiltà Latina e La Civiltà Germanica.*"—E. Grillo, *Italian prose-writers, p.* 509.—"Of civil in addition to literary history are the writings upon Dante and the work in three volumes upon Dino Compagni, by **Isidoro Del Lungo,** born in 1841 at Montevarchi, an able critic and elegant writer. No small additions to the study of our literature have been made by the Roman philologist **Domenico Comparetti** (born in 1835), investigating with vast learning the fame and fortunes of Virgil in the Middle Ages, and by **Pio Rajna** (born in 1847), of Sondrio, a noted neo-Latinist. . . . Finally, the knowledge of ancient Italian and of the various dialects of the peninsula has been greatly advanced by the studies of learned and laborious linguists, the highest authority among whom in Italy and in other countries is **Graziadio Isaia Ascoli,** born in 1829 at Gorizia, founder of the *Archivio glotto logico.*"—F. Flamini, *History of Italian literature, p.* 360.

1860-1920.—Modern drama.—Minor writers.—Transition from romanticism to realism.—Work of Giacosa.—Dramas and novels of Verga.—"**Tommaso Gherardi del Testa** (1815-1881), of Terricciola di Pisa, draws with spirit the manners of the middle class in Tuscany in his numerous comedies, notable also for the purity of their Italian style. Vincenzo Martini, of Florence (1803-62), whose *Il cavaliere d'industria* is still famous, stands high as a playwright. As Felice Romani held the field upon our stage with his famous musical dramas, so did **Paolo Ferrari,** of Modena (1822-1889), until about 1880 with his historic comedies, of which some are really praiseworthy—*Goldoni e le sue sedici commedie nuove, Parini e la satira,*—and with his dramas *a tesi* (problem dramas), that is, aiming to prove a moral or

social theory. He was good in comedy; but in this latter kind of drama—*Il suicido, Il duello, Le due dame,* and others—of the class of those in France by Augier and Dumas *fils*—his characters declaim too much, and he carries to excess the use of some hackneyed stage expedients. **Paolo Giacometti,** of Novi Ligure (1817-1882), among his many and varied histrionic works, has some dramas *a tesi,* as *La morte civile,* where the effort at strength and brilliance is too apparent. In comedy at a certain time he seemed to contest the palm with Ferrari· Achille Torelli, a Neapolitan born in 1844, who gained great applause with his *Mariti* in 1867. There were, from 1870 to 1880, noteworthy cultivators of the historic drama. One, **Pietro Cossa** (1830-1881), a Roman, drew his inspiration from the memories of his glorious city; but he treated the great personages that he brought upon the stage without rhetorical enthusiasm, clearing away the dim or roseate mists of legend from them; and in *Nerone, Messalina, Cleopatra,* and others, he draws with realism and crude coloring the corruptions of ancient Rome in lines close to common speech, the versification weak, but adapted to the mixture of comic and tragic, and to the variety of the numerous interlocutors. In other than Roman subjects Cossa is not so good. They have been treated with better success by **Felice Cavallotti** (1842-1898), a Milanese and a celebrated political orator, to whom we owe also a scenic 'bozzetto' in Martellian verse exquisitely elaborated, *Il Cantico dei Cantici* ('The Canticle of Canticles'), and comedies original in conception if not always technically correct; and by Leopoldo Marenco (1836-1899), the son of Carlo, a noted author of tragedies who lived in the first half of the century. The stage was held long by *bozzetti* and *proverbi,* among them some unusually brilliant and graceful by Ferdinando Martini, previously recorded, a son of the comedy-writer Vincenzo—*Chi sa il guoco non l'insegni* ('He who knows the game does not teach it'), *Il peggio passo è quello dell' uscio* ('The worst step is the one at the threshold'), and others; and by the mediæval idyls, like *Il trionfo d'amore* ('The Triumph of Love') and *Una partita a seacchi* ('A Game of Chess'), by Giuseppe Giacosa, . . . the latest outcome of romanticism in dramatic poetry." —F. Flamini, *History of Italian literature, pp.* 356-357.—"The work of **Giuseppe Giacosa** links together in a very interesting way the old and the new manners in Italian drama. He . . . was born October 21, 1847 . . . in Piedmont [and died in 1906]. . . . Although Giacosa wrote in many forms —essays, criticism, stories, books of travel, such as *I Castelli Valdostani e Canovesi,* showing fine appreciation and sound knowledge of archæology—still his real passion was for the stage, and to the drama he devoted his best efforts. . . . *The Triumph of Love* (*Il Trionfo d'Amore, leggenda drammatica in due atti*) (1875) is in the same tone [as 'A Game of Chess']. . . . These two plays may be classed together as romantic idyls of the Middle Ages, delicate in fancy, dainty, owing little to reality."—L. MacClintock, *Contemporary drama of Italy, pp.* 35, 37, 40.—Giacosa's historical plays include "The Red Count," "The Brothers-in-Arms," and "The Lady of Challant." The comedy "The Husband in Love with His Wife," 1877, in plot and methods reminds one of Goldoni. Among plays written about the same time the best known are "Mountain Torrents," 1876, "The Late Repentance," 1888, "Surrender at Discretion," 1885. "The first night of the initial run of *Sad Loves* may be said to be the most significant date in the history of contemporary drama in Italy, for it definitely signalized the triumph of the naturalistic school. Of course, there had been naturalistic, even verist plays offered before. . . . But their success was dubious and their permanence by no means assured. *Sad Loves* cleared the air, and its complete success established in the Italian theatre the principle of the scrupulous presentation of life on the stage. . . . *Rights of the Soul* (*Diritti dell' anima*) (1894), Giacosa's next play, is an Ibsenite study in feminine psychology. . . . The success of *As the Leaves* (*Come le foglie*) (1900) was the crowning achievement of Giacosa's long career and designated him for the time the first prose dramatist of Italy. . . . *As the Leaves* and *The Stronger* [1905] . . . had the charm of freshness and the prestige of importance. . . . **Giovanni Verga,** born at Catania in 1840, started his career as an ultra-romantic romancer in the taste of his times. But between 1874 and 1881 he executed a complete artistic turn-over, for in the latter year he published *The Malavoglia Family* (*I Malavoglia*) (1881). With this book, his masterpiece and indeed one of the greatest novels of the age, did Verga thus abruptly establish the technic and tone of the veristic novel. . . . Verga wrote only one other book in the series [of which this was to have been a part], *Maestro Don Gesualdo.* In 1884 appeared a volume of short stories of peasant life, among them *Rustic Chivalry* (*Cavalleria Rusticana*), which he later dramatized. . . . The few excursions he made into another, more romantic manner, such as in the plays, *In the Porter's Lodge* (*In Portineria*) and *The Fox-hunt* (*La Caccia alla Volpe*) have little worth and less significance. . . . Verga's first play was his dramatization of his short story, Rustic Chivalry, which with the accompaniment of Mascagni's music has made the tour of the world. . . . In this crude and mighty play Verga is at his strongest." —*Ibid., pp.* 35-37, 40, 50, 54, 56, 58, 68-69, 71-72. —Ten years after "The Porter's Lodge" appeared "The She-Wolf"; later plays were "The Wolf Hunt," 1902, and "The Fox Hunt," 1902. His play *"Dal tuo al mio"* is a dramatization of his novel of the same name, written in 1905.

1880-1920.—Later tendencies in the drama.—Early realists.—D'Annunzio, poet, novelist and dramatist.—Later realists.—Present status.—"Gerolamo Rovetta (1853-1910) . . . [was] the author of twenty-five or thirty plays, some ten of which are worthy to be considered in a historical or critical study. Indeed, one of them, *Romanticism,* may be said to rival Giacosa's *As the Leaves* in theatrical popularity. . . . Though he has to his credit several successful plays, Rovetta cannot be called a playwright of the first rank. . . . There are on the Italian dramatic roster the names of two women whose work falls in the nineties and belongs in the earlier realism,—Signore **Amalia Rosselli** and **Teresa Ubertis,** the latter better known by her pen name of Teresah. Mme. Rosselli sprang suddenly into fame when in 1898 her play *The Soul* (*Anima*) won first prize in the great national competition. . . . She has written one other play, *Illusion* (*Illusione*) (1901), not so successful as the first, but possessing genuine merit. . . . Teresah, better known for her novels, wrote in 1902 *The Judge* (*Il Giudice*), which deserves a place in any repertory. . . . Other plays of Teresah's are *On the Goerner* (*Sul Goerner*) (1902) and *Red Bread* (*Il Pane rosso*) (1903), *The Other Bank* (*L'Altra riva*) (1907); *Happiness* (*La Felicità*) and *Not to die* (*Per non morire*) (1910). **Marco Praga** (1862-), the other realist of the period who must be put beside Rovetta . . . was born at Milan in 1862.

. . . Praga's devotion to his chosen calling sustained him through the well-nigh complete failure of his first play, *The Two Houses* (*Le due case*) (1887), written in collaboration with Virgilio Colombo, and fortified him in the production of *The Friend* (*L'Amico*) (1888), a play in one act which enjoyed a considerable run. . . . In 1889 with *The Virgins* (*Le Vergini*) Praga more than fulfilled the expectations of his admirers and the promise of the first two plays. This was followed in 1891 by *The Ideal Wife* (*La Moglie Ideale*), another successful play. Immediately after this there occurred a change in Praga which forces us to divide his work into two distinct periods and almost into two distinct kinds. Between *The Ideal Wife* and his next play, in the short while between 1891 and 1893, Praga experienced an artistic degeneration and disillusionment. He began to seek popularity, writing for success regardless of art."—L. MacClintock, *Contemporary drama of Italy, pp.* 76, 83-87.—"Today the fashion of imitating the celebrated French playwright, Victorien Sardou, having declined, that of the Scandinavians has come in, especially Ibsen, profound and vigorous, but nebulous, and of the two famous Germans, Hermann Sudermann and Gerhart Hauptmann. Aside from Rovetta and Giacosa, . . . analytical psychologic dramas and lively comedies have been written by Roberto Bracco, Marco Praga, Camillo and Giannino Antona-Traversi, Sabatino Lopez, and others. In dialect, Giacinto Gallina (1852-1897), of Venice, took up the Goldonian tradition, renewing and varying it with success."—F. Flamini, *History of Italian literature, p.* 357.—"Poet, romancer, dramatist, orator, archæologist, politician and aviator, **Gabriele D'Annunzio** [born near Pescara in 1863] is at one and the same time the most and the least Italian of artists. In his æsthetic outlook, in his preoccupation with the past, in his intellectual and emotional reaction to stimuli, in the very nature of the stimuli to which he reacts, he is true Italian; in his lack of humor, his steady melancholy deepening into pessimism, his contempt for *'la gran bestia trionfante,'* the people, he exhibits a temperament quite unlike that of his typical fellow-Italians. . . . In many other ways D'Annunzio fails to represent Italy,—modern living Italy,—and this in spite of the fact that he has taken part in many national activities. . . . But under the spell of D'Annunzio's magic eloquence these blemishes seem unimportant. One abrogates his critical judgment and finds himself carried away by the splendor and pageantry of *Francesca da Rimini, The Daughter of Jorio,* or *The Martyrdom of Saint Sebastian* [written in collaboration with Claude Debussy], borne along on a swelling flood of magnificent passionate language."—L. MacClintock, *Contemporary drama of Italy, pp.* 94-96.—"The ode *All' Augusto Sovrano d' Italia,* the *Primo Vere,* which he composed at sixteen years of age while at school in Prato, and the *Terra Vergine* and *Canto Nuovo,* published two years later in Rome, arrested the attention of Chiarini, who wrote an article to introduce the young and gifted poet to the public. From that date the poet's exuberant genius, ripening gradually, produced in rapid succession: *L'Intermezzo, L'Isottèo, La Chimera, Le Elegie Romane, Il Poema Paradisiaco, Le Odi Navali. La Canzone di Garibaldi,* in which he portrays the hero of Aspromonte and the solitary of Caprera under the double aspect of a warrior and husbandman, firmly established the poet's fame, which was further enhanced by the *Laudi del Cielo, del Mare, della Terra, e degli Eroi.* D'Annunzio in his early experiments began by imitating Carducci, then with insatiable curiosity in quest of models he turned to the Greeks, to the Latins, to the Old Italians, and to contemporary literatures—French, English, German, Russian, Italian alike—revelling amidst artistic beauties, familiar or exotic. All these distracting influences did not, however, hinder his poetical development, and they left unimpaired the dominant qualities of his singularly original genius, for he exercises to-day an undisputed sway over the present generation, who salute him as the soldier-poet of the fatherland. Abroad D'Annunzio is perhaps better known as a novelist and prose writer than as a poet. Many of his novels: *Il Piacere, L'Innocente, Giovanni Episcopo, Il Fuoco, Il Trionfo della Morte,* translated into several foreign languages, created a profound impression, and gained for him the appreciation of European critics."—E. Grillo, *Italian prose-writers, p.* 590.—"The strain of abnormal desire and its justification runs deep through all his books and plays. . . . Something [should be] . . . said . . . of D'Annunzio's admiration for Nietzsche and of the German's profound influence upon him. . . . In *L'Innocente,* in *Le Vergini della Rocce,* in *Il Fuoco,* and in the plays—he began about this time to write plays—the Super-hero appears. In *The Dead City* the heroes are supermen in the field of art, as also in *La Gioconda;* in *Glory,* it is the superman in politics; in *The Ship* and *More Than Love,* the hero is justified in fulfilling his destiny regardless of consequences. These heroes strive for two things; to satisfy their fleshly lusts and to produce the perfect being (as in *The Virgins of the Rocks*), or to create the perfect work of art. D'Annunzio opened his dramatic career with the publication of several *saynètes* which must have been intended as closet drama rather than for the boards. The first three are one-act 'parabole' upon subjects drawn from the New Testament. . . . More characteristic, however, are the *Dreams of the Seasons* (*I sogni delle Stagioni*); *The Dream of a Spring Morning* (*Il sogno d'un mattino di primavera*) (1897) and *The Dream of an Autumn Sunset* (*Il sogno d' un tramonto d'autunno*) (1898). Here we have pure D'Annunzio. Here are the magnificent imagery, the living imagination, the adept analysis of erotic emotion, the static quality, showing itself in a lack of true dramatic action,—all the elements which characterize his dramas. The intrigue of neither of the two *Dreams* is as important as its psychological analysis, and its atmosphere of poetic unreality. . . . *The Dead City* (*La città morta*) (1899) is D'Annunzio's first long play and in some respects his best."—L. MacClintock, *Contemporary drama of Italy, pp.* 99-102, 104.—Among the later realists **Enrico Annibale Butti** is an important figure. He was born in 1868 and died in 1915. His first novel was "The Immoral Man." This was followed by "The Automatum," "The Soul," and "The Enchantment." His first play of importance was "Attopia," written in 1894. "The Whirlpool" was written the same year and "The End of an Ideal" in 1898. "The Atheists" is a trilogy showing Butti's most characteristic type of drama, "the discussion of religious and philosophical problems in dramatic form." "The Race for Pleasure" and "Lucifero" were produced in 1900 and "The Tempest" in 1901. The play "Flames in the Dark," 1904, is Butti's masterpiece. His more recent productions of real merit are (according to MacClintock) "In the Land of Fortune," 1910, "Ever Thus," 1911, "Poetic Intermezzo," 1913, and "Seductions," 1913, written in collaboration with Anastasi Gugliemo. **Roberto**

Bracco is perhaps the most widely and the most favorably known dramatist in the Italy of today. This is entirely consistent with the statement that as a literary artist his reputation cannot approach that of D'Annunzio; and is not inconsistent with the statement that in verse plays he is being pushed hard by Sem Benelli, whose fame is steadily augmenting. It is in prose drama —the actable drama of the theatre—that Bracco has made his success not achieved by any other dramatist since Giacosa. . . . Roberto Bracco was born in Naples in 1862 and is still (1920) living and writing. . . . The nature of Bracco's plays invites a study of them in groups rather than in chronological order. They fall naturally into four classes, . . . Comedies, plays of social and economic problems, psychological plays, dealing chiefly with the complexes of the feminine soul and with the suffering of women under social wrongs, and the pure tragedies, dramas of incurable suffering. . . . *The Unfaithful Woman* was the play that established Bracco's reputation, and it has maintained its popularity ever since. . . . *The Right to Live* (*Il Diritto di vivere*) (1900) is Bracco's only play on an economic question. . . . To find Bracco at his best we must go on to the psychological play involving a personal problem. . . . The protagonists of what are probably his most important plays are women who are either the victims of convention or rebels against it. Catherina Nemi in *Tragedies of the Soul* (*Tragedia dell' anima*) (1899) and Claudia di Montefranco of *Maternity* (*Maternità*) (1903) rebel against their destiny; Giulia Artunni of *Phantasms* (*I Fantasmi*) (1906) and Teresah Baldi of *The Hidden Spring* (*La Piccola fonte*) (1905) are passive victims. . . . These four plays constitute Bracco's most distinguished contribution to the world's great repertory of problem dramas and the real core of his dramatic work. He has written some pure tragedies, . . . *Don Pietro Caruso* (1895), . . . *Masks, Nights of Snow* (*Notte di neve*) (1908). . . . Of the longer plays of pure tragedy the best is *Lost in Darkness* (*Sperduti nel buio*) (1902), which contains some of Bracco's best work. . . . One more serious play has been brought out since *The Little Saint* (1908), *Not Even a Kiss* (*Nemmeno un bacio*) (1913)."—L. MacClintock, *Contemporary drama of Italy, pp.* 163-164, 166-167, 170-171, 173-174, 177.

"The young men of Italy have . . . [according to Cecchi] 'learned from Carducci, d'Annunzio, and Pascoli, and absorbed the more genuine and actual part of their teaching. They have put fresh blood into their culture by the study of the ancient Italian poets, chiefly the purest and most succulent, and by the study of the great modern foreign poets. They filially attached themselves to certain honest and sacrificed masters who sporadically react against the eternal rhetoric, such as Verga, to whom the grief of the rude souls of the people taught so great a pride of art; such as Panzini, who wrote in his books the ironical poem of the poor respectable *bourgeoisie*. Upon such foundations these youths have worked. And tho they have worked each for his own account, I think it is possible, for convenience of exposition, to put them in a few groups. Thus there is one group of lyrical humorists. **Guido Gozzano** returned to the provinces with a soul charged with mundane sadness, and with incredulous wonder rediscovered the beauty of the simple life of our grandfathers. **Corrado Govoni,** with a sensual capacity regarding the things of nature not less than that of d'Annunzio, but at the same time with a dull pain and abashed humiliation, has produced a characteristic poetry full of diminutive tenderness, which encloses things in a torturing immobility like that of the leaves of black and silver marguerites in funeral wreaths. **Aldo Palazzeschi** has set to music in grotesque cantilena the obsessions of a lost soul, like a clown who makes use of designedly vulgar actions for giving allegorical expression to a jealous sorrow buried in the depths of his heart and known to himself alone. There is a group of brilliant impressionists who in the school of the French moderns have found again the joy of the elementary colors of the primitives. **Ardengo Soffici,** the purest among the young Italians, with his idyls and his airy landscapes, is naturally the first in this group, but beside him can be placed **Antonio Baldini,** with a personality less intense, but more subtle. There is a Romantic group, in which the artistic intention is less clear and less felicitous, but the disposition toward spiritual adventure is very strong and sometimes even dramatic, as in the case of **Giovanni Papini,** who has passed wth steady fury and constant dissatisfaction through all the forms of art and all philosophies, and in that of **Giovanni Boine,** who started from the theological controversies of Modernism and ended in poetry. And, finally, there is a little group of Classicists which has given us the fine lyrics and prose of **Vincenzo Cardarelli.** As it was gradually developing, this work of creation was confirmed and encouraged in the demands which it made and the tendencies which it represented by a searching critical labor for which **Benedetto Croce** provided the first ideas, and by a sound work of revision in Italian moral and political life. A similar ideal of concreteness, of modernity, and of sincerity was pursued on many sides by people who, nevertheless, felt themselves sometimes to be in opposition, and believed they were fighting for very different ideals.' "—*Literature in modern Italy* (*Literary Digest, May* 3, 1919, *p.* 36).

Also in: R. S. Arnold, *Das moderne Drama.*—P. Bettoli, *Storia del teatro drammatico italiano dalla fine del secolo XV. alla fine del secolo XX.*—F. W. Chandler, *Aspects of modern drama.*—A. Cippico, *Romantic age in Italian literature.*—B. H. Clarke, *Continental drama of to-day.*—B. Croce, *La letteratura della nuova Italia.*—D'Ancona, *Origini del teatro in Italia.*—A. Dukes, *Modern dramatists.*—A. Gaspary, *History of Italian literature.*—G. A. Greene, *Italian lyrists of to-day.*—J. Huneker, *Iconoclasts.*—H. S. Kennard, *Italian romance writers.*—V. Lee, *Studies of the eighteenth century in Italy.*—C. Lemmi, *Italian stage to-day* (*Drama, May,* 1916).—A. McCleod, *Plays and players in modern Italy.*—M. Ricciardi, *Italian literature affected by the war* (*Nation, Dec.* 9, 1915).—H. D. Sidgewick, *Essays on great writers.*—J. A. Symonds, *Sketches and studies of Italy and Greece.*—Idem, *Renaissance in Italy.*—A. Symons, *Studies in prose and verse.*—Idem, *Studies in the seven arts.*—G. Tiraboschi, *Storia della letteratura italiana.*

ITALIAN MUSIC. See Music: Folk music and nationalism: Italy; Modern: 1527-1613; 1535-1674; 1575-1676; 1607-1734; 1650-1739; 1675-1764; 1730-1816: Italian, etc.; 1813-1868; 1842-1921: Modern Italian school.

ITALIAN WAR. See Rome: Republic: B.C. 90-88.

ITALIOTES. See Siceliotes.

ITALY

Geographic description.—Area.—Population.—Italy is a "kingdom occupying the central of the three great peninsulas of southern Europe together with Sicily, Sardinia, and some smaller islands. The peninsula, which at the Strait of Otranto approaches within less than 50 miles of Albania, is bounded W. and S. by that portion of the Mediterranean known as the Tyrrhenian Sea, E. by the Adriatic, and N. by the Alps, separating it from France, Switzerland, and Austria-Hungary."—*Chambers' concise gazetteer of the world, p.* 365.—As a result of the Treaty of St. Germain there has been a considerable rearrangement of the Italo-Austrian frontier. The acquired territories, Alto Adige, Carinzia, Carniola, Gorizia and Gradisca, Trieste, Istria, Trentino and Ampezzano have an area of 7,350 square miles and a population of 1,408,296 which gives Italy an estimated total of 117,982 square miles and a population of 40,070,161.

Colonial possessions.—The Italian colonial possessions are: Eritrea (q.v.), on the coast of the Red sea; Italian Somaliland, on the east coast of Africa; and Libia Italiana (Tripolitania and Cyrenaica), on the north coast of Africa. The area in square miles of the various colonies is: Eritrea, 45,800; Italian Somaliland, 139,430; and Libia Italiana, 406,000.

Distribution of Italians in the Balkans and Austria. See BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities; AUSTRIA: Races.

Resources.—"Sixty per cent of the population of Italy are engaged in agriculture. Though the trend towards industrial pursuits is increasing, agriculture in its varied forms still remains the foundation of the nation's wealth."—W. K. Wallace, *Greater Italy, pp.* 144.—"Italy is the richest country in the world in potential power. There is an immense quantity of water gushing from her mountain sides which today wastes itself in small torrents and unhealthy swamps, but which will in the near future run through works arranged so as to distribute all over the country an everlasting source of energy, heat, light and motion. [See also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Italy: B.C. 800-A.D. 1915.] . . . Italy's paramount need is for coal: to obtain it is a vital problem and intimately connected with all others. It is, in fact, necessary for Italy today for the restoration of her industries, for shipyards and railroads. . . . The chemical industry in Italy is of some importance. . . . Helium, which is derived in great quantities from certain springs of natural gas in Tuscany, is being utilized for aeronautical purposes. . . . The iron mines of Italy have only a small production (valued at 40,000 tons), but refractory metals of great importance in the construction of siderurgical ovens can be found in the vast beds of the peninsula. For copper and tin, Italy must resort to importation, but she will have first place in the production and exporting of mercury. She is self-sufficient so far as antimonium is concerned. Sulphate mines, in addition to the well-known sulphur mines, have been recently discovered in Sicily. . . . Italy has a great wealth derived from the soil. The fertility of the land is in some regions unequalled."—S. A. Cotillo, *Italy during the World War, pp.* 144-145, 147.

Ancient.—Early Italians.—"It was not till the close of the Republic, or rather the beginning of the Empire, that the name of Italy was employed, as we now employ it, to designate the whole Peninsula, from the Alps to the Straits of Messina. The term Italia, borrowed from the name of a primæval tribe who occupied the southern portion of the land, was gradually adopted as a generic title in the same obscure manner in which most of the countries of Europe, or (we may say) the Continents of the world, have received their appellations. In the remotest times the name only included Lower Calabria: from these narrow limits it gradually spread upwards, till about the time of the Punic Wars, its northern boundary ascended the little river Rubicon (between Umbria and Cisalpine Gaul), then followed the ridge of the Appennines westward to the source of the Macra, and was carried down the bed of that small stream of the Gulf of Genoa. When we speak of Italy, therefore, in the Roman sense of the word, we must dismiss from our thoughts all that fertile country which was at Rome entitled the provincial district of Gallia Cisalpina, and Liguria."—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome, introduction, sect.* 2.—"Philological research teaches us to distinguish three primitive Italian stocks, the Iapygian, the Etruscan, and that which we shall call the Italian. The last is divided into two main branches,—the Latin branch, and that to which the dialects of the Umbri, Marsi, Volsci and Samnites belong. As to the Iapygian stock, we have but little information. At the southeastern extremity of Italy, in the Messapian or Calabrian peninsula, inscriptions in a peculiar extinct language have been found in considerable numbers; undoubtedly remains of the dialect of the Iapygians, who are very distinctly pronounced by tradition also to have been different from the Latin and Samnite stocks. . . . With the recognition of . . . a general family relationship or peculiar affinity between the Iapygians and Hellenes (a recognition, however, which by no means goes so far as to warrant our taking the Iapygian language to be a rude dialect of Greek), investigation must rest content. . . . The middle of the peninsula was inhabited, as far back as reliable tradition reaches, by two peoples or rather two branches of the same people, whose position in the Indo-Germanic family admits of being determined with greater precision than that of the Iapygian nation. We may with propriety call this people the Italian, since upon it rests the historical significance of the peninsula. It is divided into the two branch-stocks of the Latins and the Umbrians; the latter including their southern off-shoots, the Marsians and Samnites, and the colonies sent forth by the Samnites in historical times. . . . These examples [philological examples, given in the work, but omitted from this quotation], selected from a great abundance of analogous phenomena, suffice to establish the individuality of the Italian stock as distinguished from the other members of the Indo-Germanic family, and at the same time show it to be linguistically the nearest relative, as it is geographically the next neighbour, of the Greek. The Greek and the Italian are brothers; the Celt, the German and the Slavonian are their cousins. . . . Among the languages of the Italian stock, again, the Latin stands in marked contrast with the Umbro-Samnite dialects. It is true that of these only two, the Umbrian and the Samnite or Oscan,

are in some degree known to us. . . . A conjoint view, however, of the facts of language and of history leaves no doubt that all these dialects belonged to the Umbro-Samnite branch of the great Italian stock. . . . It may . . . be regarded as certain that the Italians, like the Indians, migrated into their peninsula from the north. The advance of the Umbro-Sabellian stock along the central mountain-ridge of Italy, in a direction from north to south, can still be clearly traced; indeed its last phases belong to purely historical times. Less is known regarding the route which the Latin migration followed. Probably it proceeded in a similar direction along the west coast, long, in all likelihood, before the first Sabellian stocks began to move."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, bk.* 1, *ch.* 2-3.—See also PHILOLOGY: 9; ETRUSCANS; LATIUM; SABINES; SAMNITES; UMBRIANS; MAGNA GRÆCIA; ROME: Republic: B.C. 343-290; 340-338.—"In the February number of the 'Civiltà Cattolica,' Padre de Cara pleads for a national effort on the part of Italian archaeologists to solve the question of the origin of their country's civilisation by the systematic exploration and excavation of Pelasgic Italy. . . . In a series of articles, extending over several years, the learned father has contended for the identity of the Hittites and Proto-Pelasgians on archaeological, etymological, and historical grounds; and he here repeats that, if 'Italic' means Aryan, then it is among the peoples speaking Oscan, Umbrian, Latin, and other dialects of the Indo-European family that the parentage of Italian civilisation must be sought; but that 'Italy' meant in the first place the country of the Hittites (Hethei), and hence of the Pelasgians, and that name and civilisation are alike Pelasgic. Those who hold it to have been Aryan have not only the testimony of Greek and Roman writers against them, but also the facts that there were Pelasgians in Italy whose stone constructions are standing to this day, and that the Etruscan language and culture had no Aryan affinities. The writer further points out that the walls of Pelasgic cities, whether in Italy, Greece, or Asia Minor, all resemble each other, and that the origin of Greek civilisation was also Pelasgian. In Greece, as in Italy, the Aryans followed centuries after the Hittite-Pelasgians, and Aryan Greece carried the arts of Pelasgic Greece to perfection. He believes that, of two migratory bands of Hittites, one invaded Greece and the other Italy, about the same time. He also draws attention to the coincidence that it is not very long since Greece, like Italy at the present time, could date its civilisation no further back than 700 or 800 B.C. Schliemann recovered centuries for Greece, but 'Italy still remains imprisoned in the iron circle of the seventh century.' To break it, she must follow Schliemann's plan; and as he had steady faith in the excavation of the Pelasgic cities and cemeteries of Greece, so will like faith and conduct on the part of Italian archaeologists let in light upon this once dark problem."—*Academy, Mar.* 31, 1894, *p.* 273.

B.C. 494-275.—Struggles between patricians and plebeians of Rome.—Subjugation of Italy proper (central and lower Italy).—Wars with the Samnites.—Great Latin War.—War with Tarentum. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 494-492, to B.C. 275.

B.C. 264-146.—Wars between Rome and Carthage.—Punic Wars.—Macedonian Wars.—War with Antiochus the Great. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 264-241, to B.C. 149-146; PUNIC WARS.

B.C. 133-31.—Firm establishment of universal power of Rome.—Battles of the Cimbri and Teutones.—Period of civil wars. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 133, to B.C. 31; CIMBRI AND TEUTONES: B.C. 113-101; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: B.C. 113.

B.C. 31-A.D. 395.—Reigns of Roman emperors down to Theodosius. See ROME: Empire: B.C. 31, to A.D. 394-395.

A.D. 259.—Invasion by Alemanni. See ALEMANNI: 259.

270.—Second invasion by Alemanni. See ALEMANNI: 270.

400-410.—Alaric's first invasion of Italy.—His three sieges and sack of Rome.—His death. See GOTHS: 400-403; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 408-410; ROME: Empire: 408-410.

404.—Ravenna, capital of Western empire. See RAVENNA: 404.

406.—Invasion by Radagaisus repelled by Romans under Stilicho. See RADAGAISUS; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 395-408.

452.—Attila's invasion.—Its effect on founding of Venice. See HUNS: 452; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 423-455; VENICE: 452.

455.—Sacking of Rome by Genseric the Vandal. See ROME: Empire: 455; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 423-455.

473-474.—Invasion by Ostrogoths. See GOTHS: 473-474.

476-553.—Fall of Western Roman empire.—Ostrogothic kingdom of Theodoric, and its fall.—Recovery of Italy by Justinian. See ROME: Empire: 455-476, to Medieval city: 535-553; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 527-553.

539-553.—Invasions of the Franks. See FRANKS: 539-553.

554-800.—Rule of exarchs of Ravenna. See ROME: Medieval city: 554-800; PAPACY: 728-774.

568-800.—Lombard conquests and kingdom.—Rise of papal power at Rome.—Alliance of the papacy with the sovereigns of the Franks.—Revival of the Roman empire under Charlemagne.—"Since the invasion of Alboin, Italy had groaned under a complication of evils. The Lombards who had entered along with that chief in 568 [see LOMBARDS: 568-573, and after] had settled in considerable numbers in the valley of the Po, and founded the duchies of Spoleto and Benevento [in central Italy], leaving the rest of the country to be governed by the exarch of Ravenna as viceroy of the Eastern crown. This subjection was, however, little better than nominal. Although too few to occupy the whole peninsula, the invaders were yet strong enough to harass every part of it by inroads which met with no resistance from a population unused to arms, and without the spirit to use them in self-defence. . . . Tormented by their repeated attacks, Rome sought help in vain from Byzantium, whose forces, scarce able to repel from their walls the Avars and Saracens, could give no support to the distant exarch of Ravenna. The Popes were the Emperor's subjects, they awaited his confirmation, like other bishops; they had more than once been the victims of his anger. But as the city became more accustomed in independence, and the Pope rose to a predominance, real if not yet legal [see ROME: Medieval city: 590-640; and PAPACY: 728-774], his tone grew bolder than that of the Eastern patriarchs. In the controversies that had raged in the Church, he had had the wisdom or good fortune to espouse (though not always from the first) the orthodox side: it was now by another quarrel of religion that his deliverance from an unwelcome yoke was

accomplished. The Emperor Leo, born among the Isaurian mountains, where a purer faith may yet have lingered, and stung by the Mohammedan taunt of idolatry, determined to abolish the worship of images, which seemed fast obscuring the more spiritual part of Christianity. An attempt sufficient to cause tumults among the submissive Greeks, excited in Italy a fiercer commotion. The populace rose with one heart in defence of what had become to them more than a symbol: the exarch was slain: the Pope, though unwilling to sever himself from the lawful head and protector of the Church, must yet excommunicate the prince whom he could not reclaim from so hateful a heresy. [See ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY.] Liudprand, king of the Lombards, improved his opportunity: falling on the exarchate as the champion of images, on Rome as the minister of the Greek Emperor, he overran the one, and all but succeeded in capturing the other. The Pope escaped for the moment, but saw his peril: placed between a heretic and a robber, he turned his gaze beyond the Alps, to a Catholic chief who had just achieved a signal deliverance for Christendom on the field of Poitiers. Gregory II. had already opened communications with Charles Martel, mayor of the palace, and virtual ruler of the Frankish realm. As the crisis becomes more pressing, Gregory III. finds in the same quarter his only hope, and appeals to him in urgent letters, to haste to the succour of Holy Church. . . . Charles died before he could obey the call; but his son Pipin (surnamed the Short) made good use of the new friendship with Rome. He was the third of his family who had ruled the Franks with a monarch's full power [see FRANKS: 511-752]: it seemed time to abolish the pageant of Merovingian royalty; yet a departure from the ancient line might shock the feelings of the people. A course was taken whose dangers no one then foresaw: the Holy See, now for the first time invoked as an international power, pronounced the deposition of Childric, and gave to the royal office of his successor Pipin a sanctity hitherto unknown. . . . The compact between the chair of Peter and the Teutonic throne was hardly sealed, when the latter was summoned to discharge its share of the duties. Twice did Aistulf the Lombard assail Rome, twice did Pipin descend to the rescue: the second time at the bidding of a letter written in the name of St. Peter himself. Aistulf could make no resistance; and the Frank bestowed on the Papal chair all that belonged to the exarchate in North Italy, receiving as the meed of his services the title of Patrician [754]. . . . When on Pipin's death the restless Lombards again took up arms and menaced the possessions of the Church, Pipin's son Charles or Charlemagne swept down like a whirlwind from the Alps at the call of Pope Hadrian, seized king Desiderius in his capital, assumed himself the Lombard crown, and made northern Italy thenceforward an integral part of the Frankish empire. [See GERMANY: 687-800.] . . . For the next twenty-four years Italy remained quiet. The government of Rome was carried on in the name of the Patrician Charles, although it does not appear that he sent thither any official representative; while at the same time both the city and the exarchate continued to admit the nominal supremacy of the Eastern Emperor, employing the years of his reign to date documents."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire, ch.* 4.—"Thus, by German hands, the internal ascendancy of the German race in Italy, which had lasted, first under the Goths, and then under the Lombards, for 281 years, was finally broken. A German was still king over Italy, as for ages Germans were still to be. But Roman and native influence reconquered its supremacy in Italy, under the management and leadership of the bishops of Rome. The Lombards, already becoming Italianized, melted into provincial Italians. The Teutonic language disappeared, leaving a number of words to Italian dialects, and a number of names to Italian families. The last king of the Lombards bore an Italian name, Desiderius. The latest of Italian national heroes bears the Bavarian and Lombard name of Garibaldi. But the overthrow of the Lombards, and the gift of provinces and cities to St. Peter had even more eventful results. The alliance between the king of the Franks and the bishop of Rome had become one of the closest kind. . . . The German king and the Italian pope found themselves together at the head of the modern world of the West. But the fascination of the name of Rome still, as it had done for centuries, held sway over the Teutonic mind. . . . It was not unnatural that the idea should recommend itself, both to the king and the pope, of reviving in the West, in close connexion with the Roman primacy, that great name which still filled the imagination of the world, and which in Roman judgments, Greek Byzantium had wrongfully stolen away—the name of Cæsar Augustus, the claim to govern the world. There was a longing in the West for the restoration of the name and authority, 'lest,' as the contemporary writers express it, 'the heathen should mock at the Christian if the name of Emperor had ceased among them.' And at this moment, the government at Constantinople was in the hands of a woman, the Empress Irene. Charles's services to the pope were recompensed, and his victorious career of more than thirty years crowned, by the restoration at Rome, in his person, of the Roman empire and the imperial dignity. The same authority which had made him 'patrician,' and consecrated him king, now created him Emperor of the Romans. On Christmas day, 800, when Charles came to pay his devotions before the altar of St. Peter's, Pope Leo III.—without Charles's knowledge or wish, so Charles declared to his biographer, Einhard, and, it may be, prematurely, as regards Charles's own feeling—placed a golden crown on his head, while all the people shouted, 'to Charles, the most pious Augustus, crowned of God, the great and peace-giving Emperor of the Romans, life and victory.' . . . Thus a new power arose in Europe, new in reality and in its relations to society, though old in name. It was formally but the carrying on the line of the successors of Augustus and Constantine. But substantially it was something very different. Its authors could little foresee its destinies; but it was to last, in some sort the political centre of the world which was to be, for 1,000 years. And the Roman Church, which had done such great things, which had consecrated the new and mighty kings of the Franks, and had created for the mightiest of them the imperial claim to universal dominion, rose with them to a new attitude in the world. . . . The coronation of Charles at Rome, in the face of an imperial line at Constantinople, finally determined, though it did not at once accomplish, the separation of East and West, of Greek and Latin Christianity. This separation had long been impending, perhaps, becoming inevitable. . . . One Roman empire was still the only received theory. But one Roman empire, with its seat in the West, or one Roman empire, governed in partnership by two emperors of East and West, had

become impossible in fact. The theory of its unity continued for ages; but whether the true successor of Augustus and Theodosius sat at Constantinople, or somewhere in the West, remained in dispute, till the dispute was ended by the extinction of the Eastern empire by the Turks on May 29, 1453."—R. W. Church, *Beginning of the Middle Ages, ch.* 7. —See also FRANKS: 768-814; LOMBARDS: 754-774.

685-1014.—Founding of duchy of Tuscany. See TUSCANY: 685-1115.

781.—Erected into separate kingdom by Charlemagne.—In the year 781 Charlemagne erected Italy and Aquitaine into two separate kingdoms, placing his infant sons Pipin and Ludwig on the thrones.—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul, ch.* 16.

(Southern): 800-1016.—Conflict of Greeks, Saracens and Franks.—"The southern provinces [of Italy], which now compose the kingdom of Naples, were subject, for the most part [in the 8th and 9th centuries], to the Lombard dukes and princes of Beneventum—so powerful in war that they checked for a moment the genius of Charlemagne—so liberal in peace that they maintained in their capital an academy of thirty-two philosophers and grammarians. The division of this flourishing state produced the rival principalities of Benevento, Salerno, and Capua; and the thoughtless ambition or revenge of the competitors invited the Saracens to the ruin of their common inheritance. During a calamitous period of two hundred years, Italy was exposed to a repetition of wounds which the invaders were not capable of healing by the union and tranquillity of a perfect conquest. Their frequent and almost annual squadrons issued from the port of Palermo and were entertained with too much indulgence by the Christians of Naples: the more formidable fleets were prepared on the African coasts. . . . A colony of Saracens had been planted at Bari, which commands the entrance of the Adriatic Gulf; and their impartial depredations provoked the resentment and conciliated the union of the two emperors. An offensive alliance was concluded between Basil the Macedonian [of the Byzantine empire], the first of his race, and Lewis, the great grandson of Charlemagne; and each party supplied the deficiencies of his associate. . . . The fortress of Bari was invested by the infantry of the Franks and by the cavalry and galleys of the Greeks; and, after a defence of four years, the Arabian emir submitted [871] to the clemency of Lewis, who commanded in person the operations of the siege. This important conquest had been achieved by the concord of the East and West; but their recent amity was soon embittered by the mutual complaints of jealousy and pride. . . . Whoever might deserve the honour, the Greek emperors, Basil and his son Leo, secured the advantage of the reduction of Bari. The Italians of Apulia and Calabria were persuaded or compelled to acknowledge their supremacy, and an ideal line from Mount Garganus to the Bay of Salerno leaves the far greater part of the [modern] kingdom of Naples under the dominion of the Eastern empire. Beyond that line the dukes or republics of Amalfi and Naples, who had never forfeited their voluntary allegiance, rejoiced in the neighbourhood of their lawful sovereign; and Amalfi was enriched by supplying Europe with the produce and manufactures of Asia. But the Lombard princes of Benevento, Salerno, and Capua, were reluctantly torn from the communion of the Latin world, and too often violated their oaths of servitude and tribute. The city of Bari rose to dignity and wealth as the metropolis of the new theme or province of Lombardy; the title of Patrician, and afterwards the singular name of Catapan, was assigned to the supreme governor. . . . As long as the sceptre was disputed by the princes of Italy, their efforts were feeble and adverse; and the Greeks resisted or eluded the forces of Germany which descended from the Alps under the imperial standard of the Othos. The first and greatest of those Saxon princes was compelled to relinquish the siege of Bari: the second, after the loss of his stoutest bishops and barons, escaped with honour from the bloody field of Crotona (983). On that day the scale of war was turned against the Franks by the valour of the Saracens. . . . The Caliph of Egypt had transported 40,000 Moslems to the aid of his Christian ally. The successors of Basil amused themselves with the belief that the conquest of Lombardy had been achieved, and was still preserved, by the justice of their laws, the virtues of their ministers, and the gratitude of a people whom they had rescued from anarchy and oppression. A series of rebellions might dart a ray of truth into the palace of Constantinople; and the illusions of flattery were dispelled by the easy and rapid success of the Norman adventurers."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 56.—For the influence of Saracenic civilization on Italy, see EUROPE: Middle Ages: Saracenic civilization.

803-810.—Attempts of Pepin against Venetians.—Charlemagne's boundary treaties with Byzantine emperor.—Founding of modern Venice. See VENICE: 697-810.

810-961.—Spread of Venetian commerce and naval prowess. See VENICE: 810-961.

843-951.—Assigned to Lothair in breaking up of Charlemagne's empire.—Founding of the Holy Roman empire.—In the partition of Charlemagne's empire among his three grandsons, by the Treaty of Verdun, 843, Italy, together with the new kingdom called Lotharingia, or Lorraine, was assigned to the elder, Lothar [or Lothair], who bore the title of Emperor. [See VERDUN, TREATY OF.] Lothar, who died in 855, redivided his dominions among three sons, and Lorraine, separated from Italy, was soon dismembered and shared between Germany and France. The Italian kingdom fell to Louis or Ludwig II, who was crowned emperor, and on his death without issue, 875, it was seized, together with the imperial title, by the French Carlovingian king, Charles the Bald. Two years afterwards he died, and Italy, together with the imperial crown, was acquired by the last legitimate survivor of the German Carlovingian line, Charles the Fat, who died in 888. (See also FRANKS: 814-962.) "At that memorable era (A.D. 888) the four kingdoms which this prince [Charles the Fat] had united fell asunder: West France, where Odo or Eudes [duke of Paris, ancestor of the royal line of Capet] then began to reign, was never again united to Germany; East France (Germany) chose Arnulf; Burgundy split up into two principalities, in one of which (Transjurane) Rudolf proclaimed himself king, while the other (Cisjurane with Provence) submitted to Boso; while Italy was divided between the parties of Berengar of Friuli and Guido of Spoleto. The former was chosen king by the estates of Lombardy; the latter, and on his speedy death his son Lambert, was crowned Emperor by the Pope. Arnulf's [the German king's] descent chased them away and vindicated the claims of the Franks, but on his flight Italy and the anti-German faction at Rome became again free. Berengar was made king of Italy, and afterwards Emperor. Lewis

of Burgundy, son of Boso, renounced his fealty to Arnulf, and procured the imperial dignity, whose vain title he retained through years of misery and exile, till A.D. 928. None of these Emperors were strong enough to rule well even in Italy; beyond it they were not so much as recognized. . . . In A.D. 924 died Berengar, the last of these phantom Emperors. After him Hugh of Burgundy and Lothar his son reigned as kings of Italy, if puppets in the hands of a riotous aristocracy can be so called. Rome was meanwhile ruled by the consul or senator Alberic [called variously senator, consul, patrician, and prince of the Romans], who had renewed her never quite extinct republican institutions, and in the degradation of the papacy was almost absolute in the city." Affairs in Italy were at this stage when Otto or Otho, the vigorous and chivalrous German king of the new line, came in 951 to re-establish and reconstitute the Roman empire of Charlemagne (see GERMANY: 936-973) and to make it a lasting entity in European politics —the "Holy Roman Empire" of modern history.—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire, ch.* 6.—See also HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE: 962; ROME: Medieval city: 903-964.

ALSO IN: F. Guizot, *History of civilization, lect.* 24.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 49.

10th-12th centuries.—Progress in medical education.—Schools of Salerno and Bologna. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: 10th century; Medieval: 10th-12th centuries.

900-924.—Depredations of Hungarians at Pavia.—"The vicinity of Italy had tempted their early inroads; but from their camp on the Brenta they beheld with some terror the apparent strength and populousness of the new-discovered country. They requested leave to retire; their request was proudly rejected by the Italian king; and the lives of 20,000 Christians paid the forfeit of his obstinacy and rashness. Among the cities of the West the royal Pavia was conspicuous in fame and splendour; and the pre-eminence of Rome itself was only derived from the relics of the apostles. The Hungarians appeared; Pavia was in flames; forty-three churches were consumed; and, after the massacre of the people, they spared about 200 wretches who had gathered some bushels of gold and silver (a vague exaggeration) from the smoking ruins of their country. In these annual excursions from the Alps to the neighbourhood of Rome and Capua, the churches that yet escaped resounded with a fearful litany: 'Oh! save and deliver us from the arrows of the Hungarians!' But the saints were deaf or inexorable; and the torrent rolled forward, till it was stopped by the extreme land of Calabria."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 55.

961-1039.—Subjection to Germany.—Otto the Great.—"Otho I., his son Otho II., and his grandson Otho III., were successively acknowledged emperors and kings of Italy, from 961 to 1002. When this branch of the house of Saxony became extinct, Henry II. of Bavaria, and Conrad the Salic of Franconia, filled the throne from 1004 to 1039. During this period of nearly eighty years, the German emperors twelve times entered Italy at the head of their armies, which they always drew up in the plains of Roncaglia near Placentia; there they held the states of Lombardy, received homage from their Italian feudatories, caused the rents due to be paid, and promulgated laws for the government of Italy. A foreign sovereign, however, almost always absent, known only by his incursions at the head of a barbarous army, could not efficaciously govern a country which he hardly knew, and where his yoke was detested. . . . The emperors were too happy to acknowledge the local authorities, whatever they were, whenever they could obtain from them their pecuniary dues: sometimes they were dukes or marquises, whose dignities had survived the disasters of various invasions and of civil wars; sometimes the archbishops and bishops of great cities, whom Charlemagne and his successors had frequently invested with duchies and counties escheated to the crown, reckoning that lords elected for life would remain more dependent than hereditary lords; sometimes, finally, they were the magistrates themselves, who, although elected by the people, received from the monarch the title of imperial vicars, and took part with the nobles and prelates in the Plaids (placita), or diets of Roncaglia. After a stay of some months, the emperor returned with his army into Germany; the nobles retired to their castles, the prelates and magistrates to their cities: neither of these last acknowledged a superior authority to their own, nor reckoned on any other force than what they could themselves employ to assert what they called their rights. Opposite interests could not fail to produce collision, and the war was universal."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *History of the Italian republics, ch.* 1.—During the reign of Henry II (1002-1024), against whom a rival king of Italy was set up by the Italians, "there was hardly any recognised government, and the Lombards became more and more accustomed, through necessity, to protect themselves, and to provide for their own internal police. Meanwhile the German nation had become odious to the Italians. The rude soldiery, insolent and addicted to intoxication, were engaged in frequent disputes with the citizens, wherein the latter, as is usual in similar cases, were exposed first to the summary vengeance of the troops, and afterwards to penal chastisement for sedition. In one of these tumults, at the entry of Henry II. in 1004, the city of Pavia was burned to the ground, which inspired its inhabitants with a constant animosity against that emperor. Upon his death, in 1024, the Italians were disposed to break once more their connexion with Germany, which had elected as sovereign Conrad duke of Franconia. They offered their crown to Robert king of France and to William duke of Guienne." But neither of these princes would accept the troublesome diadem; and, in the end, the archbishop of Milan and other Lombard lords "repaired to Constance and tendered the crown to Conrad, which he was already disposed to claim as a sort of dependency upon Germany. It does not appear that either Conrad or his successors were ever regularly elected to reign over Italy; but whether this ceremony took place or not, we may certainly date from that time the subjection of Italy to the Germanic body. It became an unquestionable maxim, that the votes of a few German princes conferred a right to the sovereignty of a country which had never been conquered, and which had never formally recognised this superiority."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages, v.* 1, *ch.* 3, *pt.* 1.—"The Italian Kingdom of the Karlings, the kingdom which was reunited to Germany under Otto the Great, was . . . a continuation of the old Lombard kingdom. It consisted of that kingdom, enlarged by the Italian lands which fell off from the Eastern Empire in the eighth century; that is by the Exarchate and the adjoining Pentapolis, and the immediate territory of Rome itself."—E. A. Freeman, *Historical ge-*

ography of Europe, ch. 8, sect. 3.—"The reign . . . [of Otto the Great was] noteworthy in the history of Italy. The country at this time was hopelessly divided between rival and contending peoples. The emperor at Constantinople controlled the southern extremity of the peninsula. The Mohammedans held Sicily and some cities on the mainland. The pope ruled at Rome and in the States of the Church. A so-called king of Italy still reigned in Lombardy, but he could not manage the powerful counts, dukes, and marquises, who were virtually independent within their own domains. Even the imperial title died out, and now there was no longer a Roman emperor in the West. The deplorable condition of Italy invited interference from abroad. Following in the footsteps of Charlemagne, Otto the Great led two expeditions across the Alps, assumed the 'Iron Crown' of Lombardy, and then proceeded to Rome, where he secured the pope (John XII) against the latter's enemies in that city. Otto's reward was the same as Charlemagne's. On Candlemas Day, 962 A.D., the grateful pope crowned him Roman emperor. The coronation of Otto the Great seemed to his contemporaries a necessary and beneficial act. They still believed that the Roman Empire was suspended, not extinct; and that now, one hundred and fifty years after Charlemagne, the occasion was opportune to revive the name and power associated with the golden age of the first Frankish emperor. Otto's ardent spirit, one may well believe, was fired with this vision of imperial sway and the renewal of a title around which clustered so many memories of success and glory. But the outcome of Otto's restoration of the Roman Empire was good neither for Italy nor for Germany. It became the rule, henceforth, that the man whom the German nobles chose as their king had a claim, also, to the Italian crown and the imperial title. The efforts of the German kings to make good this claim led to their constant interference in the affairs of Italy. They treated that country as a conquered province which had no right to a national life and an independent government under its own rulers. At the same time they neglected Germany and failed to keep their powerful territorial lords in subjection. Neither Italy nor Germany, in consequence, could become a unified, centralized state, such as was formed in France and England during the later Middle Ages. The empire of Charlemagne, restored by Otto the Great, came to be called in later centuries the 'Holy Roman Empire.' The title points to the idea of a world monarchy—the Roman Empire—and a world religion—Roman Christianity—united in one institution. This magnificent idea was never fully realized. The popes and emperors, instead of being bound to each other by the closest ties, were more generally enemies than friends. A large part of medieval history was to turn on this conflict between the Empire and the Papacy."—H. Webster, *Early European history, pp.* 317-319.—See also GERMANY: 936-973; HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE: 962.

(Southern): 1000-1090.—Conquests and settlement of Normans.—Taking of Sicily from Saracens under leadership of Roger, the Norman.—"A pilgrimage first took the Normans to Southern Italy, where they were to found a kingdom. Here there were, if I may so speak, three wrecks, three ruins of nations—Lombards in the mountains, Greeks in the ports, Sicilian and African Saracens rambling over the coasts. About the year 1000, some Norman pilgrims assist the inhabitants of Salerno to drive out a party of Arabs, who were holding them to ransom. Being well paid for the service, these Normans attract others of their countrymen hither. A Greek of Bari, named Melo or Meles, takes them into pay to free his city from the Greeks of Byzantium. Next they are settled by the Greek republic of Naples at the fort of Aversa, which lay between that city and her enemies, the Lombards of Capua (A.D. 1026). Finally, the sons of a poor gentleman of the Cotentin, Tancred of Hauteville, seek their fortune here. Tancred had twelve children; seven by the same mother. It was during William's [the Conqueror's] minority, when numbers of the barons endeavoured to withdraw themselves from the Bastard's yoke, that these sons of Tancred's directed their steps towards Italy, where it was said that a simple Norman knight had become count of Aversa. They set off penniless, and defrayed the expenses of their journey by the sword (A.D. 1037?). The Byzantine governor, or Katapan, engaged their services, and led them against the Arabs. But their countrymen beginning to flock to them, they no sooner saw themselves strong enough than they turned against their paymasters, seized Apulia [1042], and divided it into twelve countships. This republic of Condottieri held its assemblies at Melphi. The Greeks endeavoured to defend themselves, but fruitlessly. They collected an army of 60,000 Italians; to be routed by the Normans. . . . The Byzantines then summoned their enemies, the Germans, to their aid; and the two empires, of the East and West, confederated against the sons of the gentleman of Coutances. The all-powerful emperor, Henry the Black (Henry III.), charged Leo IX., who had been nominated pope by him, and who was a German and kin to the imperial family, to exterminate these brigands. The pope led some Germans and a swarm of Italians against them [1053]; but the latter took to flight at the very beginning of the battle, and left the warlike pontiff in the hands of the enemy. Too wary to ill-treat him, the Normans piously cast themselves at their prisoner's feet, and compelled him to grant them, as a fief of the Church, all that they had taken or might take possession of in Apulia, Calabria, and on the other side of the strait; so that, in spite of himself, the pope became the suzerain of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies (A.D. 1052-1053)."—J. Michelet, *History of France, bk. 4, ch. 2.*—The two elder of the sons of Tancred were now dead, and the third son, Humphrey, died not long after. A fourth brother, Robert, surnamed Guiscard, who had lately arrived from Normandy with reinforcements, then established himself (1057) with some difficulty in the leadership and succession. "He accomplished the reduction of almost all the country which composes the present kingdom of Naples, and, extinguishing the long dominion of the Beneventine Lombards and of the eastern empire in Italy [see BENEVENTUM; AMALFI], finally received from Pope Nicholas II. the confirmation of the titles which he had assumed, of duke of Calabria and Apulia [1080]. . . . While Robert Guiscard was perfecting his dominion on the continent, his younger brother Roger engaged in the astonishing design of conquering the large and beautiful island of Sicily from the Saracens with a few Norman volunteers. An air of romantic extravagance breathes over all the enterprises of the Normans in Italy; and, even if we discard the incredible tales which the legends and chronicles of the times have preserved of the valour and cor-

poreal strength of these northern warriors, enough will remain in the authentic results of their expeditions to stagger the reason and warm the imagination with attractive visions of chivalrous achievement. . . . We are assured that 300 Christian knights were the greatest number which Roger could for many years bring into the field; and that 136 routed a prodigious host of Saracens at the battle of Ceramio. . . . But the Saracens were embroiled in internal discord, and their island was broken up into numerous petty states; we may, therefore, attribute to their dissensions a great part of the success which the chroniclers of the Normans have assigned to their good swords alone. Roger had, however, embarked in an arduous and laborious undertaking, which it required the unbending perseverance and patient valour of thirty years [1060-1090] to accomplish. . . . At length, all Sicily bowed to his sway; Norman barons were infeuded over its surface; and Roger, with the title of great count, held the island as a fief of his brother's duchy."—G. Proctor, *History of Italy, ch. 2, pt. 2.*—See also MALTA, ISLAND OF: 870-1530.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. 56.*—J. W. Barlow, *Short history of the Normans in South Europe, ch. 1-7.*

1056-1122.—Beginning of conflict of the popes with the emperors.—Hildebrand and Henry IV.—War of Investitures. See PAPACY: 1056-1122; GERMANY: 1056-1122; ROME: Medieval city: 1081-1084.

1056-1152.—Rise of republican cities.—"The war of investitures, which lasted more than sixty years, accomplished the dissolution of every tie between the different members of the kingdom of Italy. Civil wars have at least this advantage,—that they force the rulers of the people to consult the wishes of their subjects, oblige them to gain affections which constitute their strength, and to compensate, by the granting of new privileges, the services which they require. The prelates, nobles, and cities of Italy obeyed, some the emperor, others the pope; not from a blind fear, but from choice, from affection, from conscience, according as the political or religious sentiment was predominant in each. The war was general, but everywhere waged with the national forces. Every city armed its militia, which, headed by the magistrates, attacked the neighbouring nobles or towns of a contrary party. While each city imagined it was fighting either for the pope or the emperor, it was habitually impelled exclusively by its own sentiments: every town considered itself as a whole, as an independent state, which had its own allies and enemies; each citizen felt an ardent patriotism, not for the kingdom of Italy, or for the empire, but for his own city. At the period when either kings or emperors had granted to towns the right of raising fortifications, that of assembling the citizens at the sound of a great bell, to concert together the means of their common defence, had been also conceded. This meeting of all the men of the state capable of bearing arms was called a parliament. It assembled in the great square, and elected annually two consuls, charged with the administration of justice at home, and the command of the army abroad. . . . The parliament, which named the consuls, appointed also a secret council, called a Consilio di Credenza, to assist the government, composed of a few members taken from each division; besides a grand council of the people, who prepared the decisions to be submitted to the parliament. . . . As industry had rapidly increased, and had preceded luxury,—as domestic life was sober, and the produce of labour considerable,—wealth had greatly augmented. The citizens allowed themselves no other use of their riches than that of defending or embellishing their country. It was from the year 900 to the year 1200 that the most prodigious works were undertaken and accomplished by the towns of Italy. . . . These three regenerating centuries gave an impulse to architecture, which soon awakened the other fine arts. The republican spirit which now fermented in every city, and gave to each of them constitutions so wise, magistrates so zealous, and citizens so patriotic, and so capable of great achievements, had found in Italy itself the models which had contributed to its formation. The war of investitures had given wing to this universal spirit of liberty and patriotism in all the municipalities of Lombardy, in Piedmont, Venetia, Romagna, and Tuscany. But there existed already in Italy other free cities. . . . Venice, . . . Ravenna, . . . Genoa, . . . Pisa, . . . Rome, Gaëta, Naples, Amalfi, Bari, were either never conquered by the Lombards, or in subjection too short a time to have lost their ancient walls, and the habit of guarding them. These cities served as the refuge of Roman civilization. . . . Those cities which had accumulated the most wealth, whose walls inclosed the greatest population, attempted, from the first half of the twelfth century, to secure by force of arms the obedience of such of the neighbouring towns as did not appear sufficiently strong to resist them, . . . to force them into a perpetual alliance, so as to share their good or evil fortune, and always place their armed force under the standard of the dominant city. . . . Two great towns in the plains of Lombardy surpassed every other in power and wealth: Milan, which habitually directed the party of the church; and Pavia, which directed that of the empire. Both towns, however, seem to have changed parties during the reigns of Lothario III. and Conrad II., who, from the year 1125 to 1152 placed in opposition the two houses of Guelphs and Ghibelines in Germany. . . . Among the towns of Piedmont, Turin took the lead, and disputed the authority of the counts of Savoy, who called themselves imperial vicars in that country. . . . The family of the Veronese marquises, . . . who from the time of the Lombard kings had to defend the frontier against the Germans, were extinct; and the great cities of Verona, Padua, Vicenza, Treviso, and Mantua, nearly equal in power, maintained their independence. Bologna held the first rank among the towns south of the Po. . . . Tuscany, which had also had its powerful marquises, saw their family become extinct with the countess Matilda, the contemporary and friend to Gregory VII. Florence had since risen in power, destroyed Fiesole, and . . . was considered the head of the Tuscan league; and the more so that Pisa at this period thought only of her maritime expeditions. . . . Such was the state of Italy, when the Germanic diet, assembled at Frankfort in 1152, conferred the crown on Frederick Barbarossa, duke of Swabia, and of the house of Hohenstaufen."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *History of the Italian republics, ch. 1-2.*—See also COMMERCE: Medieval: 11th-16th centuries; FLORENCE: 12th century.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe, ch. 8, sect. 3.*—W. K. Williams, *Communes of Lombardy (Johns Hopkins University Studies, 9th series, 5-6).*—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages, v. 1, ch. 3, pt. 1.*—*Europe during the Middle Ages (Lardner's Cabinet cyclopedia, v. 1, ch. 1).*

1063-1293.—Development of architecture in

Pisa.—Wars of Pisa with Genoa and with Florence and Lucca. See PISA: 1063-1293.

1077-1102.—**Countess Matilda's donation.** See PAPACY: 1077-1102.

(Southern): 1081-1194.—Robert Guiscard's invasions of Eastern empire.—Union of Sicily with Apulia, and creation of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, or Naples.—Prosperity of southern Italy under Roger II.—"The success of his brother [Roger, in Sicily—see above: 1000-1090] furnished another spur to the ambition of Robert Guiscard. Taking advantage of a dynastic revolution at Constantinople, he and his son Bohemund commenced a series of invasions of the Eastern Empire [see BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1081-1085] which only ended with his death. These, though unsuccessful in their ultimate result, were influential causes of the first crusade, and deeply affected the relations of East and West for years to come. Meanwhile in Sicily Roger had been succeeded by his son [Roger II], and, in 1127, this heir of the destinies of his race added the dukedom of Apulia to that of Sicily, obtained from Pope Anacletus the title of king, and finally established the Norman kingdom of Naples [also called the kingdom of the Two Sicilies]. His character is thus described by a contemporary chronicler: 'He was a lover of justice and most severe avenger of crime. He abhorred lying; did everything by rule, and never promised what he did not mean to perform. He never persecuted his private enemies; and in war endeavoured on all occasions to gain his point without shedding of blood. Justice and peace were universally observed throughout his dominions.' During his reign the intercourse between England and Sicily was close. The government was organized on principles very similar to that of England. . . . Under his wise rule and that of his immediate successors, the south of Italy and Sicily enjoyed a transient gleam of prosperity and happiness. Their equal and tolerant government, far surpassing anything at that day in Europe, enabled the Saracen, the Greek, and the Italian to live together in harmony elsewhere unknown. Trade and industry flourished, the manufacture of silk enriched the inhabitants, and the kingdom of Naples was at peace until she was crushed under the iron heel of a Teutonic conqueror."—A. H. Johnson, *Normans in Europe, ch.* 6.—See also ROME: Medieval city: 1081-1084; BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1146.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *Normans at Palermo (Historical essays, 3d series)*.—J. W. Barlow, *Short history of the Normans in South Europe, ch.* 8-11.

1096-1102.—**First Crusades.** See CRUSADES: 1096-1099; 1101-1102; also Map of Mediterranean lands in 1097; VENICE: 1099-1101.

12th-15th centuries.—Medical schools of Italy.—Attitude of church towards surgery.—Superstitions connected with practice of medicine. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 12th-15th centuries.

1138.—**Accession of Hohenstaufens to imperial throne.—Origin of Guelfs and Ghibellines in Germany.** See GERMANY: 1138-1197.

1154-1162.—**First and second expeditions of Frederick Barbarossa.**—Frederick I, the second of the emperors of the Hohenstaufen line, called by the Italians Frederick Barbarossa (Redbeard), was elected king at Frankfort in March, 1152. In October, 1154, he crossed the Alps and entered Italy with a strong German army, having two purposes in view: 1. To receive the imperial crown from the hands of the pope, and to place on his own head, at Pavia, the iron crown of Lombardy or Italy. 2. To reduce to order and submission the rising city-republics of Lombardy and Tuscany, which had been growing rapidly in independence and power during the last four troubled imperial reigns. At Roncaglia, he held the diet of the kingdom, and listened to many complaints, especially against Milan, which had undoubtedly oppressed the weaker towns of its neighbourhood and abused its strength. Then he moved through the country, making a personal inspection of affairs, and giving a taste of his temper by burning the villages which failed to supply provisions to his troops with satisfactory promptitude. At Tortona he ordered the inhabitants to renounce their alliance with the Milanese. They refused, and endured in the upper portion of the city a siege of two months. Forced by want of water to surrender, at last, they were permited to go free, but their town was sacked and burned. Asti, Chieri, Rosate, and other places of more or less importance, were destroyed. Frederick did not venture yet to attack Milan, but proceeded to Rome, demanding the imperial crown. The pope (Adrian IV) and the Romans were alike distrustful of him, and he was not permitted to bring his army into the city. After no little wrangling over ceremonious details, and after being compelled to lead the horse and to hold the stirrup of the haughty pontiff, Barbarossa was finally crowned at St. Peter's, in the Vatican suburb. The Romans attempted to interrupt the coronation, and a terrible tumult occurred in which a thousand of the citizens were slain. But the Germans made no attempt to take possession of the city. On the contrary, they withdrew with haste, and the emperor led his army back to Germany, burning Spoleto on the way, because it failed in submissiveness, and marking a wide track of ruin and desolation through Italy as he went. This was in the summer of 1155. Three years passed, during which the Italian cities grew more determined in their independence, the emperor and his German subjects more bitter in hostility to them, and the pope and the emperor more antagonistic in their ambitions. In 1158 Frederick led a second expedition into Italy, especially determined to make an end of the contumacy of Milan. He began operations by creating a desert of blackened country around the offending city, being resolved to reduce it by famine. Mediators, however, appeared, who brought about a treaty of pacification, which interrupted hostilities for a few weeks. Then the Milanese found occasion to accuse the emperor of a treacherous violation of the terms of the treaty and again took up arms. The war was now to the death. But, before settling to the siege of Milan, Frederick gave himself the pleasure, first, of reducing the lesser city of Crema, which continued to be faithful among the allies of the Milanese. He held some children of the town in his hands, as hostages, and he bound them to the towers which he moved against the walls, compelling the wretched citizens to kill their own offspring in the act of their self-defense. By such atrocities as this, Crema was taken, at the end of seven months, and destroyed. Then Milan was assailed and beleaguered, harassed and blockaded, until, at the beginning of March, 1162, the starved inhabitants gave up their town. Frederick ordered the doomed city "to be completely evacuated, so that there should not be left in it a single living being. On the 25th of March, he summoned the militias of the rival and Ghibeline cities, and gave them orders to rase to the earth the houses as well

as the walls of the town, so as not to leave one stone upon another. Those of the inhabitants of Milan whom their poverty, labour and industry attached to the soil, were divided into four open villages, built at a distance of at least two miles from the walls of their former city. Others sought hospitality in the neighbouring towns of Italy. . . . Their sufferings, the extent of their sacrifices, the recollection of their valour, and the example of their noble sentiments, made proselytes to the cause of liberty in every city into which they were received." Meantime Frederick Barbarossa returned to Germany, with his fame as a puissant monarch much augmented.—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *History of the Italian republics, ch.* 2.

Also in: U. Balzani, *Popes and the Hohenstaufen, ch.* 3-5.—G. B. Testa, *History of the war of Frederick I against the communes of Lombardy, bk.* 1-6.—E. A. Freeman, *Frederick the First, king of Italy* (*Historical essays, 1st series*).

1163-1164.—Third visitation of Frederick Barbarossa.—Rival popes.—Association of cities.—Frederick Barbarossa entered Italy for the third time in 1163, without an army, but imposingly escorted by his German nobles. He imagined that the country had been terrorized sufficiently by the savage measures of his previous visitation to need no more military repression. But he found the Lombard cities undismayed in the assertion of their rights, and drawing together in unions which had never been possible among them before. The hostility of his relations with the papacy and with the greater part of the church gave encouragement to political revolt. His quarrel with Pope Hadrian had been ended by the death of the latter, in 1159, but only to give rise to new and more disturbing contentions. It had grown so bitter before Hadrian died that the pope had allied himself by treaty with Milan, Crema, and other cities resisting Frederick, and had promised to excommunicate the emperor within forty days. Sudden death frustrated the combination. At the election of Hadrian's successor there was a struggle of factions, each determined to put its representative in the papal chair, and each claiming success. Two rival popes were proclaimed and consecrated, one under the name of Alexander III, the other as Victor IV. Frederick recognized the latter, who made himself the emperor's creature. The greater part of Christendom soon gave its recognition to the former, although he had been driven to take refuge in France. Pope Alexander excommunicated Frederick and Frederick's pope, and Pope Victor retorted with like anathemas. Whether the curses of Alexander were more effectual, or for other reasons, the authority of Victor dwindled, and he himself presently died (April 1164), while Frederick was making his third inspection of affairs in Italy. The emperor found it impossible to execute his unbending will without an army. Verona, Vicenza, Padua, and Treviso held a congress and openly associated themselves for common defense. Frederick attempted to make use of the militia forces of Pavia, Cremona, and other Ghibelline towns against them; but he found even these citizen-soldiers so mutinous with disaffection that he dared not pursue the undertaking. He returned to Germany for an army more in sympathy with his obstinate designs against Italian liberty.—U. Balzani, *Popes and the Hohenstaufen, ch.* 4-5.

Also in: H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity, bk.* 8, *ch.* 7-8.—G. B. Testa, *History of the war of Frederick I against the communes of Lombardy, bk.* 7.

1166-1167.—Fourth expedition of Frederick Barbarossa.—League of Lombardy and rebuilding of Milan.—Frederick at Rome.—"When Frederick, in the month of October, 1166, descended the mountains of the Grisons to enter Italy [for the fourth time] by the territory of Brescia, he marched his army directly to Lodi, without permitting any act of hostility on the way. At Lodi, he assembled, towards the end of November, a diet of the kingdom of Italy, at which he promised the Lombards to redress the grievances occasioned by the abuses of power by his podestas, and to respect their just liberties; he was desirous of separating their cause from that of the pope and the king of Sicily; and to give greater weight to his negotiation, he marched his army into central Italy. . . . The towns of the Veronese marches, seeing the emperor and his army pass without daring to attack them, became bolder: they assembled a new diet, in the beginning of April, at the convent of Pontida, between Milan and Bergamo. The consuls of Cremona, of Bergamo, of Brescia, of Mantua and Ferrara met there and joined those of the marches. The union of the Guelphs and Ghibellines, for the common liberty, was hailed with universal joy. The deputies of the Cremonese, who had lent their aid to the destruction of Milan, seconded those of the Milanese villages in imploring aid of the confederated towns to rebuild the city of Milan. This confederation was called the League of Lombardy. The consuls took the oath, and their constituents afterwards repeated it, that every Lombard should unite for the recovery of the common liberty; that the league for this purpose should last twenty years; and, finally, that they should aid each other in repairing in common any damage experienced in this sacred cause, by any one member of the confederation: extending even to the past this contract for reciprocal security, the league resolved to rebuild Milan. The militias of Bergamo, Brescia, Cremona, Mantua, Verona, and Treviso, arrived the 27th of April, 1167, on the ground covered by the ruins of this great city. They apportioned among themselves the labour of restoring the inclosing walls; all the Milanese of the four villages, as well as those who had taken refuge in the more distant towns, came in crowds to take part in this pious work; and in a few weeks the new-grown city was in a state to repel the insults of its enemies. Lodi was soon afterwards compelled, by force of arms, to take the oath to the league; while the towns of Venice, Placentia, Parma, Modena, and Bologna voluntarily and gladly joined the association."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *History of the Italian republics, ch.* 2.—Meantime Frederick Barbarossa had made himself master of the city of Rome. The Roman citizens had boldly ventured out to meet his German army and its allies on the Tusculan hills and had suffered a frightful defeat. Then some part of the walls of the Leonine City were carried by assault and the castellated church of St. Peter's was entered with ax and sword. Two German archbishops were among the leaders of the force which took the altars of the temple by storm and which polluted its floors with blood. Frederick's new anti-pope, Paschal III, successor to Victor IV, was now enthroned, and the empress was formally crowned in the apostolic basilica. Pope Alexander, who had been in possession of the city, withdrew, and the victorious emperor appeared to have the great objects of his burning ambition within his grasp. "Destiny willed otherwise. It was now August; the sun was burning the arid Campagna and oppressing the weary Ger-

man troops. A slight rain came to refresh them, but the following day sudden destruction fell upon the camp. Deadly fever attacked the army with terrible violence and reduced it daily. The men fell in heaps, and when struck down in the morning were dead by night. The disease took stronger hold owing to the superstitious fears of the army and the idea of divine vengeance, for the soldiers remembered in terror the profanation of St. Peter's, and they felt the keen edge of the destroying angel's sword. Decimated, dismayed, demoralised, the imperial army was hopelessly defeated, and Frederick was compelled to strike his tents and fly before the invisible destroyer. . . . The flower of his troops lay unburied in the furrows, and with difficulty could he manage to carry back to their native land the bodies of his noblest and trustiest knights. Never perhaps before had Frederick given proofs of such unshaken strength of mind. . . . He returned to Germany alone and almost a fugitive, his bravest knights dead, his army destroyed, and leaving behind him a whole nation of proud and watchful enemies. He returned alone, but his spirit was undaunted and dreamt of future victory and of final revenge."—U. Balzani, *Popes and the Hohenstaufen, ch.* 5.—See also FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval league of Lombardy.

ALSO IN: J. Miley, *History of the papal states, bk.* 6, *ch.* 2.—H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity, bk.* 8, *ch.* 10.—G. B. Testa, *History of the war of Frederick I. against the communes of Lombardy, bk.* 8-9.

1174-1183.—Last expedition of Frederick Barbarossa.—Defeat at Legnano, and Peace of Constance.—Restoration of real independence to cities of Lombard League.—It was not until 1174—seven years after his flight from the Roman pestilence—that Barbarossa was able to return to Italy and resume his struggle with Pope Alexander and the Lombard cities. He had been detained by troubles in Germany—the growing quarrel with his most powerful vassal, Henry the Lion, of Saxony, more particularly. Meantime, the league of the Lombard cities had spread and gained strength, and Pope Alexander III was in active coöperation with it. To better fortify the frontiers of Lombardy, the league had built a strong new city, at the junction of the Tanaro and Bormida, had given it an immediate population of 15,000 people and had named it Alessandria, after the pope. "The Emperor, whose arrival in Italy was urgently implored, was retained in Germany by his mistrust of Henry the Lion, who, in order to furnish himself with a pretext for refusing his assistance in the intended campaign without coming to an open breach, undertook a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, 1171; whence, after performing his devotions at the holy sepulchre, without unsheathing his sword in its defence, he returned to his native country. . . . At length, in 1174, Frederick Barbarossa persuaded the sullen duke to perform his duty in the field, and for the fourth time [with an army] crossed the Alps. A terrible revenge was taken upon Susa, which was burnt to the ground. Alexandria [Alessandria] withstood the siege. The military science of the age, every 'ruse de guerre,' was exhausted by both the besiegers and the besieged, and the whole of the winter was fruitlessly expended without any signal success on either side. The Lombard league meanwhile assembled an immense army in order to oppose Frederick in the open field, whilst treason threatened him on another side. . . . Henry also at length acted with open disloyalty, and declared to the emperor, who lay sick at Chiavenna, on the lake of Como, his intention of abandoning him; and, unshaken by Frederick's exhortation in the name of duty and honour to renounce his perfidious plans, offered to provide him with money on condition of receiving considerable additions to his power in Germany, and the free imperial town of Goslar in gift. . . . Frederick, reduced to the alternative of either following his insolent vassal, or of exposing himself and his weakened forces to total destruction by remaining in his present position, courageously resolved to abide the hazard, and to await the arrival of fresh reinforcements from Germany; the Lombards, however, saw their advantage, and attacked him at Legnano, on the 29th of May, 1176. The Swabians (the southern Germans still remaining true to their allegiance) fought with all the courage of despair, but Berthold von Zähringen was taken prisoner, the emperor's horse fell in the thickest of the fight, his banner was won by the 'Legion of Death,' a chosen Lombard troop, and he was given up as dead. He escaped almost by a miracle, whilst his little army was entirely overwhelmed."—W. Menzel, *History of Germany, ch.* 151.—After the disastrous battle of Legnano, Frederic "was at length persuaded, through the mediation of the republic of Venice, to consent to a truce of six years, the provisional terms of which were all favourable to the league. . . . At the expiration of the truce Frederic's anxiety to secure the crown for his son overcame his pride, and the famous Peace of Constance [1183] established the Lombard republics in real independence. By the treaty of Constance the cities were maintained in the enjoyment of all the regalian rights, whether within their walls or in their district, which they could claim by usage. Those of levying war, of erecting fortifications, and of administering civil and criminal justice, were specially mentioned. The nomination of their consuls, or other magistrates, was left absolutely to the citizens; but they were to receive the investiture of their office from an imperial legate. The customary tributes of provision during the emperor's residence in Italy were preserved; and he was authorized to appoint in every city a judge of appeal in civil causes. The Lombard league was confirmed, and the cities were permitted to renew it at their own discretion; but they were to take every ten years an oath of fidelity to the emperor. This just compact preserved, along with every security for the liberties and welfare of the cities, as much of the imperial prerogatives as could be exercised by a foreign sovereign consistently with the people's happiness. . . . The Peace of Constance presented a noble opportunity to the Lombards of establishing a permanent federal union of small republics. . . . But dark, long-cherished hatreds, and that implacable vindictiveness which, at least in former ages, distinguished the private manners of Italy, deformed her national character. . . . For revenge she threw away the pearl of great price, and sacrificed even the recollection of that liberty which had stalked like a majestic spirit among the ruins of Milan."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages, v.* 1, *ch.* 3, *pt.* 1.—See also VENICE: 1177.

ALSO IN: U. Balzani, *Popes and the Hohenstaufen, ch.* 6.—G. B. Testa, *History of the war of Frederick I. against the communes of Lombardy, bk.* 10.

1183-1250.—Frederick II and end of Hohenstaufen struggles.—Rival candidates for imperial crown.—After the settlement of the Peace of Constance, Frederick Barbarossa made no further attempt to destroy the now well established liberties of the north Italian cities. On the con-

trary, he devoted himself, with considerable success, to the regaining of their confidence and good-will, as against the papacy, with which his relations were not improved. In southern Italy, he acquired an important footing by the marriage of his son Henry (already crowned king of Rome, as Henry VI), to Constance, the sole heiress of the Norman kingdom of the Two Sicilies. Soon after which he went crusading to the Holy Land, and perished in Asia Minor (1190). His son and successor, Henry VI, who survived him but seven years, was occupied so much in securing the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, already fallen to his wife (1194) by the death of the last of the Norman kings, that he had little time to trouble the peace of Lombardy or Germany. He was one of the meanest of kings, faithless and cold-blooded,—brutal to the Normans of the Sicilies and contemptible in his treatment of the English King Richard, when his vassal of Austria made a chance captive of the lion-hearted prince. He died in 1197, leaving as his heir a son but four years old—the Frederick II of later years. There was war at once. Two rival kings were elected in Germany, by the two factions, Guelf and Ghibelline. The next year, one of them, Philip I, the Ghibelline, a younger son of Frederick Barbarossa, was assassinated; the other, Otho IV, a son of Henry the Lion, was recognized by his opponents, and went to Rome to claim the imperial crown. He received it, but soon quarrelled, as all his predecessors had done, with the pope (the great pope Innocent III being now on the throne), and Guelf as he was, began to put himself in alliance with the Ghibellines of Italy. Meantime, the boy Frederick had become king of the Two Sicilies by the death of his mother, and Pope Innocent was his guardian. He was now brought forward by the latter as a claimant of the Germanic crown, against Otho, and was sent into Germany to maintain his claim. The civil war which followed was practically ended by the battle of Bouvines (July 27, 1214—see BOUVINES, BATTLE OF) in which Otho's cause was lost. Four years after, the latter died, and Frederick reigned in Germany, Italy and the Two Sicilies, without a rival, holding the three separate crowns for five years before he received the imperial crown, in 1220. Meantime Innocent III died, and Frederick became involved, even more bitterly than his father or his grandfather had been, in quarrels with the succeeding popes. He was a man far beyond his age in intellectual independence (see GERMANY: 1197-1250) and freedom from superstitious servility to the priesthood. His tastes were cultivated, his accomplishments were many. He welcomed the refinements which Europe at that time could borrow from the Saracens, and his court was one of gaiety and splendor. His papal enemies execrated him as a heretic, a blasphemer and an "apocalyptic beast." His greatest original offenses had grown out of two promises which he made in his youth: 1. To lead a crusade for the recovery of Jerusalem,—which he was slow in fulfilling; 2. To resign his Italian possessions to his son, retaining only the sovereignty of Germany for himself,—which promise he did not fulfil at all. The war of the church against him was implacable, and he was under its ban when he died. The pope even pursued him with maledictions when he went, at last, upon his crusade, in 1228, and when he did, by negotiations, free Jerusalem for a time from the Moslems (see CRUSADES: 1216-1229). He was involved, moreover, in conflicts with the Lombard cities (see FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval league of Lombardy) which the papacy encouraged and stimulated, and, in 1236, he won a great victory over the league, at Cortenuova, capturing the famous "Carroccio" of the Milanese and sending it as a gift to the Roman senate. But, attempting to use his victory too inflexibly, he lost the fruits of it, and all his later years were years of trouble and disastrous war—disastrous to Italy and to himself. He died on the 13th of December 1250. "Out of the long array of the Germanic successors of Charles, he [Frederick II] is, with Otto III., the only one who comes before us with a genius and a frame of character that are not those of a Northern or a Teuton. There dwelt in him, it is true, all the energy and knightly valour of his father Henry and his grandfather Barbarossa. But along with these, and changing their direction, were other gifts, inherited perhaps from his Italian mother and fostered by his education among the orange-groves of Palermo—a love of luxury and beauty, an intellect refined, subtle, philosophical. Through the mist of calumny and fable it is but dimly that the truth of the man can be discerned, and the outlines that appear serve to quicken rather than appease the curiosity with which we regard one of the most extraordinary personages in history. A sensualist, yet also a warrior and a politician; a profound lawgiver and an impassioned poet; in his youth fired by crusading fervour, in later life persecuting heretics while himself accused of blasphemy and unbelief; of winning manners and ardently beloved by his followers, but with the stain of more than one cruel deed upon his name, he was the marvel of his own generation, and succeeding ages looked back with awe, not unmingled with pity, upon the inscrutable figure of the last Emperor who had braved all the terrors of the Church and died beneath her ban, the last who had ruled from the sands of the ocean to the shores of the Sicilian sea. But while they pitied they condemned. The undying hatred of the Papacy threw round his memory a lurid light; him and him alone of all the imperial line, Dante, the worshipper of the Empire, must perforce deliver to the flames of hell."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire, ch.* 13.—"The Emperor Frederick was a poet who could not only celebrate the charms of his sovereign lady, 'the flower of all flowers, the rose of May,' but could also exhibit his appreciation for the beauties of nature. . . . Frederick also delighted in sculpture, painting, and architecture. . . . Under his fostering influence every branch of learning was starting into life after the slumber of ages. Frederick's age can only be compared to that glorious era of the Renaissance, when the sun of learning, no longer shorn of his beams, poured a flood of light over the dark places of Europe. Frederick was not only distinguished for his love of polite literature, but also for his ardour in the pursuit of scientific knowledge. He was himself an author on medical subjects. He was a great patron of natural history. He used his friendly relations with eastern kings to form a collection of animals not often seen in Europe—the elephant, camel, giraffe, and camelopard. He also wrote a treatise on Hawking, which is still cited with respect. He classifies birds, and treats generally of their habits. . . . But poetry and science were very far from occupying all the thoughts of this distinguished monarch. His great concern was the internal regulation of the kingdom committed to his charge. His code in Sicily and Naples was framed with the special view of securing equal rights to all classes of his subjects, and of delivering them from the yoke of the feudal oppressor. He stripped

the nobles and prelates of their jurisdiction in criminal cases. He also decreed that any count or baron, carrying on war on his own account, should lose his head and his goods. These were amazing strides in the right direction, but the former was quite unprecedented in feudal kingdoms. Many justiciaries were appointed throughout the kingdom. No one might hold this office without the authorisation of the crown. He strove to make his officials as righteous as he was himself. He himself came before his courts. So great was his love of justice, that he would rather lose his cause than win it if he were in the wrong. No advocates were allowed to practise without an examination by the judicial bench. They were obliged to take an oath that they would allege nothing against their conscience. The court furnished widows, orphans, and the poor with champions free of expense. The law, by which it was guided, endeavoured to secure an even-handed administration of justice."—A. B. Pennington, *Emperor Frederick II* (*Royal Historical Society Trans., new series, v.* 1).—Although arbitrary and despotic in temper, the political intelligence of Frederick led him to practical ideas of government which were extraordinarily liberal for his age. In his Sicilian kingdom "the towns were shorn to a great extent of their local privileges, but were taught to unite their strength for the common good. Twice, at least, in the course of his reign, in 1232 and in 1240, Frederick summoned their deputies to a conference or Parliament, 'for the weal of the Kingdom and the general advantage of the State.' Forty-seven cities, all belonging to the Imperial domain, sent two deputies each to the Assembly convoked, which must not be confounded with the Solemn Courts held by the Sovereign and his Barons for the purpose of revising charters, enacting Constitutions, and regulating the government. We should be mistaken in supposing that the Sicilian Parliament enjoyed much of the power implied by the name. There is no trace of any clamour against grievances, of any complaints against officials, or of any refusal to grant supplies. The only function of the deputies summoned seems to have been the assessing of the public burdens. The Emperor demanded a certain sum of money, and the deputies, meekly complying, regulated the ways and means of raising it. 'Send your messengers,' thus runs the writ, 'to see the Serenity of our face on your behalf, and to bring you back our will.' Later in the century, the Assembly acquired greater authority. It is just possible that Simon de Montfort, who is known to have visited the Imperial Court, may have borrowed his famous improvement on the old English constitution from an Apulian source; the gathering of the Commons at Foggia certainly preceded their first meeting at Westminster by thirty years. Other countries besides our own were indebted to Frederick for a better mode of legislation. Shortly after his death, many of his innovations were borrowed by his cousin Alonzo the Wise, and were inserted in Las Siete Partidas, the new Code of Castile. The ideas of the Suabian Emperor were evidently the model followed by St. Louis and his successors; in France, as well as in Southern Italy, the lawyer was feeling his way towards the enjoyment of the power wielded of old by the knight and the churchman; Philip the Fair was able to carry out the projects which Frederick had merely been able to sketch. The world made rapid strides between 1230 and 1300. The Northern half of Italy, distracted by endless strug-

COURT OF FREDERICK II IN PALERMO
(After the painting by Arthur Ramberg)

gles, was not insensible to the improvements introduced into the South by her mighty son. But in the North two fatal obstacles existed, the Papal power and the municipal spirit of the various States, which marred all Frederick's efforts in behalf of Italian unity." Frederick's court was the most brilliant and refined in Europe. T. L. Kington, his historian, introduces us to one of the emperor's banquets, in the following description: "A great variety of strangers meet at the banqueting hour. Ambassadors from the Greek Monarch arrive with a present of falcons. Some clerical visitors from Germany are astounded to find themselves seated close to the turbaned men of the East, and shudder on hearing that these are envoys from the Sultan of Cairo and the Old Man of the Mountain. The honest Germans whisper among themselves some remarks on the late end of the Duke of Bavaria, who was stabbed at Kelheim by a man, suspected to be an assassin, employed by the mysterious Old Man on Frederick's behalf. The Emperor himself eats and drinks very little. He is the very model of a host. . . . The Emperor, it must be allowed, is rather loose in his talk. Speaking of his late Crusade, he remarks: 'If the God of the Jews had seen my Kingdom, the Terra di Lavoro, Calabria, Sicily, and Apulia, he would not have so often praised that land which he promised to the Jews and bestowed upon them.' The Bishops treasure up this unlucky speech, which will one day be noised abroad all over Italy. When the meal is over, the company are amused by the feats of some of the Almehs, brought from the East. Two young Arab girls of rare beauty place themselves each upon two balls in the middle of the flat pavement. On these they move backwards and forwards, singing and beating time with cymbals and castanets, while throwing themselves into intricate postures. Games and musical instruments, procured for the Empress, form part of the entertainment. We hear moreover of a Saracen dancer from Aquitaine. Such sports are relished by the guests quite as much as the Greek wine and the viands prepared by Berard the Court cook, who is famous for his scapece; this dish, consisting of fish boiled in salt water and sprinkled with saffron, popular to this day in the province of Lecce, has been derived from Apicius. . . . The Emperor now shows his guests the wild beasts, which he has brought from Africa and the East. There is the huge elephant, soon to be sent to Cremona, the bearer of the Imperial banner, guarded by a troop of Saracens. There is the female camelopard, called Seraph by the Arabs and Italians. Next come the camels and dromedaries which carry the Emperor's treasures when he is on the march. Lions, leopards, panthers, and rare birds form part of the collection, and are tended by Saracen keepers. Frederick perhaps wishes to show his friends some sport in the Apulian plains; he has hawks of all breeds, each of which has its name; but what most astonishes strangers is his method of bringing down the deer. The cheetahs, or hunting leopards of the East, are mounted on horseback behind their keepers; these animals, as the Emperor says, 'know how to ride.' He is a strict preserver of game; he gives orders that the wolves and foxes, which prey upon the small animals in his warren at Melazzo, be destroyed by means of a poison called wolf's powder. He has many parks and fishponds, to which he contrives to attend, even in the midst of Lombard wars. He directs the plantation of woods, and when a storm blows down his trees, the timber is to be sold at Naples. . . . The treasures, with which Frederick dazzles the eyes of his visitors, rival those of Solomon. The Sultan of Egypt has given his Christian brother a tent of wonderful workmanship, displaying the movements of the sun and moon, and telling the hours of the day and night. This prodigy, valued at 20,000 marks, is kept at Venosa. There is also a throne of gold, decked with pearls and precious stones, doomed to become the prey of Charles of Anjou and Pope Clement. There are purple robes embroidered with gold, silks from Tripoli, and the choicest works of the Eastern loom. Frederick charms the ears of his guests with melodies played on silver trumpets by black slaves, whom he has had trained. He himself knows how to sing. Travellers, jesters, poets, philosophers, knights, lawyers, all find a hearty welcome at the Apulian Court; if they are natives of the Kingdom they address its Lord in the customary second person singular, 'Tu, Messer.' He can well appreciate the pretensions of each guest, since he is able to converse with all his many subjects, each in his own tongue. The Arab from Palestine, the Greek from Calabria, the Italian from Tuscany, the Frenchman from Lorraine, the German from Thuringia, find that Cæsar understands them all. With Latin, of course, he is familiar. Very different is Frederick from his Northern grandsire, who could speak nothing but German and very bad Latin. Troubadour, Crusader, Lawgiver; German by blood, Italian by birth, Arab by training; the pupil, the tyrant, the victim of Rome; accused by the world of being by turns a Catholic persecutor, a Mohammedan convert, an Infidel freethinker; such is Frederick the Second. His character has been sketched for us by two men of opposite politics, Salimbene the Guelf and Jamsilla the Ghibelline, both of whom knew him well. Each does justice to the wonderful genius of the Emperor, and to the rapid development of the arts and commerce under his fostering care. But all is not fair, whatever appearances may be. Every generation of the Hohenstaufen Kaisers seemed to add a vice to the shame of their house. Cruelty is the one dark stain in the character of Barbarossa; cruelty and treachery mar the soaring genius of Henry the Sixth; cruelty, treachery, and lewdness are the three blots that can never be wiped away from the memory of Frederick the Second. He has painted his likeness with his own hand. His Registers with their varied entries throw more light upon his nature than any panegyrics or diatribes can do. One example will be enough. If he wishes to get an impregnable castle into his hands, he thus writes to his general:—'Pretend some business, and warily call the Castellan to you; seize on him if you can, and keep him till he cause the castle to be surrendered to you.' . . . Frederick's cruelty is indisputable. His leaden copes, which weighed down the victims of his wrath until death came to the rescue, were long the talk of Italy and are mentioned by Dante."—T. L. Kington, *History of Frederick the Second, emperor of the Romans, v. 1, ch. 9.*—"After the death of Frederick II., an interval of twenty-three years passed without the appointment of a king of the Romans [the Great Interregnum —see GERMANY: 1250-1272], and an interval of sixty years without the recognition of an emperor in Italy." Frederick's son Conrad, whom he had caused to be crowned, was driven out of Germany and died in 1254. Another son, Manfred, acquired the crown of Sicily and reigned for a time; but the unrelenting pope persuaded Charles of Anjou to make a conquest of the kingdom, and Manfred

was slain in battle (1266). Conrad's young son, Conradin, then attempted to recover the Sicilian throne, but was defeated, taken prisoner, and perished on the scaffold (1268). He was the last of the Hohenstaufen.—O. Browning, *Guelfs and Ghibellines, ch.* 2-3.

Also in: J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire, ch.* 11-13.—E. A. Freeman, *Emperor Frederick the Second* (*Historical essays, v.* 1, *essay* 10).—Mrs. W. Busk, *Mediæval popes, emperors, kings, and crusaders, v.* 3-4, *bk.* 4.

1198-1303.—Establishing of papal sovereignty in States of the Church.—Zenith of papal power.—Pontificates from Innocent III to Boniface VIII. See Papacy: 1198-1216; 1198-1303.

13th century.—Political conditions which prepared way for despots.—Weakness of feudal system.—Political reorganization under Frederick II.—"The struggle between the Popes and the Hohenstaufen left Italy in a political condition which differed essentially from that of the other countries of the West. While in France, Spain, and England the feudal system was so organised that, at the close of its existence, it was naturally transformed into a unified monarchy, and while in Germany it helped to maintain, at least outwardly, the unity of the empire, Italy had shaken it off almost entirely. The Emperors of the fourteenth century, even in the most favourable case, were no longer received and respected as feudal lords, but as possible leaders and supporters of powers already in existence; while the Papacy, with its creatures and allies, was strong enough to hinder national unity in the future, not strong enough itself to bring about that unity. Between the two lay a multitude of political units —republics and despots—in part of long standing, in part of recent origin, whose existence was founded simply on their power to maintain it. In them for the first time we detect the modern political spirit of Europe, surrendered freely to its own instincts, often displaying the worst features of an unbridled egoism, outraging every right, and killing every germ of a healthier culture. But, wherever this vicious tendency is overcome or in any way compensated, a new fact appears in history—the state as the outcome of reflection and calculation, the state as a work of art. This new life displays itself in a hundred forms, both in the republican and in the despotic states, and determines their inward constitution, no less than their foreign policy. . . . The internal condition of the despotically governed states had a memorable counterpart in the Norman Empire of Lower Italy and Sicily, after its transformation by the Emperor Frederick II. Bred amid treason and peril in the neighbourhood of the Saracens, Frederick, the first ruler of the modern type who sat upon a throne, had early accustomed himself, both in criticism and action, to a thoroughly objective treatment of affairs. His acquaintance with the internal condition and administration of the Saracenic states was close and intimate; and the mortal struggle in which he was engaged with the Papacy compelled him, no less than his adversaries, to bring into the field all the resources at his command. Frederick's measures (especially after the year 1231) are aimed at the complete destruction of the feudal state, at the transformation of the people into a multitude destitute of will and of the means of resistance, but profitable in the utmost degree to the exchequer. He centralised, in a manner hitherto unknown in the West, the whole judicial and political administration by establishing the right of appeal from the feudal courts, which he did not, however, abolish, to the imperial judges. No office was henceforth to be filled by popular election, under penalty of the devastation of the offending district and of the enslavement of its inhabitants. Excise duties were introduced; the taxes, based on a comprehensive assessment, and distributed in accordance with Mohammedan usages, were collected by those cruel and vexatious methods without which, it is true, it is impossible to obtain any money from Orientals. Here, in short, we find, not a people, but simply a disciplined multitude of subjects. . . . The internal police, and the kernel of the army for foreign service, was composed of Saracens who had been brought over from Sicily to Nocera and Luceria—men who were deaf to the cry of misery and careless of the ban of the Church. At a later period the subjects, by whom the use of weapons had long been forgotten, were passive witnesses of the fall of Manfred and of the seizure of the government by Charles of Anjou; the latter continued to use the system which he found already at work. At the side of the centralising Emperor appeared an usurper of the most peculiar kind: his vicar and son-in-law, Ezzelino da Romano. . . . The conquests and usurpations which had hitherto taken place in the Middle Ages rested on real or pretended inheritance and other such claims, or else were effected against unbelievers and excommunicated persons. Here for the first time the attempt was openly made to found a throne by wholesale murder and endless barbarities, by the adoption, in short, of any means with a view to nothing but the end pursued. None of his successors, not even Cæsar Borgia, rivalled the colossal guilt of Ezzelino; but the example once set was not forgotten. . . . Immediately after the fall of Frederick and Ezzelino, a crowd of tyrants appeared upon the scene. The struggle between Guelph and Ghibelline was their opportunity. They came forward in general as Ghibelline leaders, but at times and under conditions so various, that it is impossible not to recognise in the fact a law of supreme and universal necessity."—J. Burckhardt, *Renaissance in Italy, v.* 1, *pt.* 1, *ch.* 1.—See also Capitalism: 12th-16th centuries; Serfdom: 13th-16th centuries.

1204.—Map showing division of territory. See Crusades: Map of Mediterranean lands.

1215.—Guelfs and Ghibellines.—Beginning of feud between them.—"In the year 1215 it chanced that a quarrel occurred at a festival between some young nobles of Florence. It was an event of as frivolous, and apparently unimportant, a character as thousands of other such broils; but this obscure quarrel has been treated by the whole body of Florentine historians as the origin and starting point of that series of civil wars which shaped the entire future fortunes of the community, and shook to its centre the whole fabric of society throughout central Italy. The story of it has become memorable therefore in Florentine annals, and has been rendered famous not only by the writers of history, but by many generations of poets, painters, novelists, and sculptors." Briefly sketched, the story is this: A handsome youth of the Buondelmonti family, mixing in a quarrel at the festival alluded to, struck one Oddo Arringhi dei Fifanti with his poniard. Common friends of the two brought about a reconciliation, by means of an arrangement of marriage between Buondelmonte and a niece of the injured man. But the lady was plain, and Buondelmonte, falling madly in love with another, more charming, whom evil chance and a scheming mother threw tempt-

ingly in his way, did not scruple to break his engagement, and to do it with insult. He wedded his new love, who was of the Donati family, on Easter Day, and on that same day he was slain by the Amidei, whose house he had so grossly affronted. "The assassins retired to their fortress houses, and left the bridal party to form itself as it might into a funeral procession. 'Great was the uproar in the city. He was placed on a bier; and his wife took her station on the bier also, and held his head in her lap, violently weeping; and in that manner they carried him through the whole of the city; and on that day began the ruin of Florence.' The last phrase of the above citation marks the significance which the Tuscan historians have attributed to this incident, and the important place that has always been assigned to it in Florentine history. We are told by all the earliest historians, especially by Malispini, in whose childhood these events must have happened, and whom Villani copies almost word for word, that from this quarrel began the great, fatal, and world-famous division of Florence into the parties of Guelph and Ghibelline. Dante goes so far as to consider the conduct of Buondelmonte in this affair so entirely the cause of the evils that arose from the Guelph and Ghibelline wars, that, had that cause not existed, no such misfortunes would have arisen. . . . Yet the historians admit that the party names of Guelph and Ghibelline were known in Florence long before; but they say that not till then did the city divide itself into two hostile camps under those rallying cries. It is curiously clear, from the accounts of Malispini and Villani, that, as usual in such matters, the Florentines had but a very hazy notion as to the meaning and origin of the two names [see GUELFS AND GHIBELLINES] for the sake of which they were prepared to cut each other's throats. Any name or watchword is good enough for a party rallying cry, when once passions have been connected with it; but the Florentines understood that Ghibelline meant attachment to the Empire in opposition to the Church, and Guelph attachment to the Church in opposition to the Empire. . . . But the quarrel of Guelph with Ghibelline in Florence was the expression of a still wider spread and more perennial conflict. . . . The Ghibellines were the old Imperial nobles, who, whether more anciently or more recently incorporated into the body of Florentine citizens, formed the aristocracy of the social body, and were naturally Imperialist in their sympathies. These Ghibellines were the high Tories of the Florentine community. The body of the people were Guelphs, naming themselves after the party professing attachment to the Church only because the Papacy was in opposition to the Empire. The Guelphs were the Whigs of Florence. The Radicals appeared on the scene in due time and normal sequence." From Florence, as its center, the strife of the two factions spread throughout Italy. "Ghibellinism was nearly universal in the north of Italy, divided among a number of more or less well known great families, of whom the principal were the Visconti at Milan, and the Della Scala at Verona. Naples and the States of the Church were Guelph; the former, as need hardly be suggested, from political circumstances, from opposition to the Empire, and from connection, rather than from principle. Tuscany and the whole of Central Italy were divided between the two, although the real strength and stronghold of genuine Guelphism was there. Without Florence, there would have been no Guelph party. Had those stout sandalled and leather-jerkined Florentine burghers of the 13th century not undertaken and persevered in that crusade against the feudal nobles and the Ghibelline principle, which . . . was the leading occupation and idea of the Commonwealth during all that century, Ghibellinism and Imperialism would have long since possessed and ruled Italy from the Alps to the toe of the boot." —T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 3, and bk. 3, ch. 1.*—See also GERMANY: 1138-1197.—"One party called themselves the Emperor's liegemen, and their watchword was authority and law; the other side were the liegemen of Holy Church, and their cry was liberty; and the distinction as a broad one is true. But a democracy would become Ghibelline, without scruple, if its neighbour town was Guelf; and among the Guelf liegemen of the Church and liberty, the pride of blood and love of power were not a whit inferior to that of their opponents. Yet . . . it is not impossible to trace in the two factions differences of temper, of moral and political inclinations, which, though visible only on a large scale and in the mass, were quite sufficient to give meaning and reality to their mutual opposition. . . . The Ghibellines as a body reflected the worldliness, the license, the irreligion, the reckless selfishness, the daring insolence, and at the same time the gaiety and pomp, the princely magnificence and generosity and largeness of mind of the House of Swabia [the Hohenstaufen]; they were the men of the court and camp. . . . The Guelfs, on the other hand, were the party of the middle classes; they rose out of and held to the people; they were strong by their compactness, their organisation in cities, their commercial relations and interests, their command of money. Further, they were professedly the party of strictness and religion. . . . The genuine Guelf spirit was austere, frugal, independent, earnest, religious, fond of its home and Church, and of those celebrations which bound together Church and home; . . . in its higher form intolerant of evil, but intolerant always of whatever displeased it. Yet there was a grave and noble manliness about it which long kept it alive in Florence."—R. W. Church, *Dante and other essays, pp.* 15-18.—See also FLORENCE: 1215-1250.

1236-1259.—Tyranny of Eccelino da Romano in Veronese or Trevisan Marches, and crusade against him. See VERONA: 1236-1259.

1248-1278.—Wars of a generation of Guelfs and Ghibellines in Tuscany. See FLORENCE: 1248-1278.

(Southern): 1250-1268.—Invasion and conquest of Kingdom of the Two Sicilies by Charles of Anjou, on invitation of pope.—"The death of the Emperor Frederic II., in 1250, had been followed in less than four years by that of his son and successor Conrad IV., from whose son Conradin, at that time an infant, the Crown of the Two Sicilies was usurped by his uncle Manfred, a natural child of the deceased Frederic. The hatred of the See of Rome, notwithstanding the frequent changes which had occurred in the Papal Chair, still pursued the Line of Hohenstauffen, even in this illegitimate branch, and it was transmitted as an hereditary possession from Innocent IV. through Alexander IV. and Urban IV., to the IVth Clement. Interference in Germany itself was forbidden by the independence of the Electoral Princes; and when it was found impossible to obtain the nomination of an Emperor decidedly in the Guelph interest, Alexander contented himself by endeavouring to separate the Throne of the Two Sicilies from that of Germany, and to establish

upon the former a Feudatory, and therefore a Champion, of the Church. Various alliances for this purpose were projected by Alexander, and by his successors who adopted a similar policy; and the Crown, which was in truth to be conquered from Manfred, was offered as an investiture which Rome had a full right to bestow." After long negotiations with Henry III of England, who coveted the Sicilian prize for his second son, Edmund, and who paid large sums to the papal treasury by way of earnest money, but who showed little ability to oust the possessor, Pope Urban, at length, closed a bargain with that ambitious speculator in royal claims and titles, Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis, king of France. The honesty of Louis was somewhat troubled by the unscrupulous transaction; but his conscience submitted itself to the instructions of the Holy Father, and he permitted his brother to embark in the evil enterprise. "Charles, accordingly, having first accepted the Senatorship of Rome, with which high magistracy he was invested by her citizens, negociated with the Holy See, most ably and much to his advantage, for the loftier dignity of Kingship. In little more than a month after he had received his Crown from the hands of Clement IV., who had become Pope, he totally defeated and killed his opponent Manfred, in the battle of Grandella [near Benevento, February, 1266]. Conradin, who had now arrived at years of discretion, was still his rival; but the capture of the young Prince at Tagliacozzo [1268], and his speedy committal to the executioner, confirmed Charles of Anjou in his Kingdom, at the everlasting expense of his good name. Few incidents in History are more calculated to awaken just indignation than the untimely end of the brave, wronged, and gallant Conradin. Charles of Anjou thus founded the first dynasty of his House which reigned over the Sicilies. The pretensions which Aragon afterwards advanced to the Crown of that Kingdom rested on a marriage between Pedro, the eldest son of King James, and Constance, a daughter of Manfred."—E. Smedley, *History of France, pt.* 1, *ch.* 6.

Also in: J. Michelet, *History of France, bk.* 4, *ch.* 8.—H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity, v.* 5, *bk.* 11, *ch.* 3.—Mrs. W. Busk, *Mediæval popes, emperors, kings, and crusaders, v.* 4, *bk.* 5.

1250-1293.—Development of popular constitution of Florentine commonwealth. See Florence: 1250-1293.

1250-1520.—Age of despots.—Rise of principalities.—"From the death of Frederick the Second [1250] . . . all practical power of an imperial kingdom in Italy may be said to have passed away. Presently begins the gradual change of the commonwealths into tyrannies, and the grouping together of many of them into larger states. We also see the beginning of more definite claims of temporal dominion on behalf of the Popes. In the course of the 300 years between Frederick the Second and Charles the Fifth, these processes gradually changed the face of the Italian kingdom. It became in the end a collection of principalities, broken only by the survival of a few oligarchic commonwealths and by the anomalous dominion of Venice on the mainland. Between Frederick the Second and Charles the Fifth, we may look on the Empire as practically in abeyance in Italy. The coming of an Emperor always caused a great stir for the time, but it was only for the time. After the grant of Rudolf of Habsburg to the Popes, a distinction was drawn between Imperial and papal territory in Italy. While certain princes and commonwealths still acknowledged at least the nominal superiority of the Emperor, others were now held to stand in the same relation of vassalage to the Pope."—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe, ch.* 8, *sect.* 3.—"While the Valley of the Po was being slowly but surely carved into a series of strong and pugnacious principalities, the isolated but ever-vigilant Republic of Venice on the one hand, and the communes of Tuscany and the western coast on the other, were following out lines of more or less divergent tendency. In Venice the ever-increasing wealth and power of her own native-born nobles—a far more truly patriotic caste than the feudal nobility imported into the cities of the mainland—produced an oligarchic type of government which was for centuries the admiration of Europe, while Florence, with her more complex population and interests, only attained a stable government through the clash of many revolutions. In the year 1297 Venice, under the guidance of Doge Pietro Gradenigo, assented to the famous measure known as the Closing of the Great Council, by which the privilege of belonging to that body (the sole fount of office in the State) was practically restricted to the existing members and their descendants for ever. The powers of the Doge were at the same time jealously hedged in, for despotism was of all things the most abhorrent to the people of the lagoons; and when after a disastrous war on the mainland the need for a stronger executive was felt, the Council, in 1310, supplied it by naming a Committee of Ten, which, armed with the most formidable powers, became in after years a name of mystery and terror to Europe. Very different from the well-ordered egotism of the Venetian Republic was the fate of the brilliant but distracted communes of Tuscany and the Mediterranean coast. Faction at home and intercommunal jealousy were there the order of the day longer even than in Lombardy. Pisa and Sienna maintained their Ghibelline traditions unimpaired throughout Frederick's reign, profited by the brief glory of Manfred, suffered from the advent of Charles and from their championship of Conradin, and received unwonted favours at the hands of the 'Ghibelline' Pope, Gregory X. Genoa, on the other hand, remained more aloof from mainland politics owing to her position behind her mountain barrier, but even there the great divisions crept in, and the common people, headed by the noble houses of Doria and Spinola, held mainly for the Ghibellines, while the Grimaldi and Fieschi, with a strong party among the bourgeoisie, held for the Guelfs. Whatever her internal politics, however, the hostility of Genoa towards Pisa was inveterate and unsleeping; and after the restoration of the Greek Empire of Constantinople in 1261, which profited Genoa at the expense of Venice and Pisa, a death struggle between the two naval powers of the West became altogether inevitable."—J. P. Trevelyan, *Short history of the Italian people, pp.* 174-176.—See also Genoa: 1261-1299.—"During the 14th and 15th centuries we find, roughly speaking, six sorts of despots in Italian cities. Of these the First class, which is a very small one, had a dynastic or hereditary right accruing from long seignorial possession, of their several districts. The most eminent are the houses of Montferrat and Savoy, the Marquises of Ferrara the Princes of Urbino. . . . The Second class comprise those nobles who obtained the title of Vicars of the Empire, and built an illegal power upon the basis of imperial right in Lombardy. Of these, the Della Scala and Visconti families are illustrious instances. . . . The Third class is important. Nobles charged with military or judicial power, as

Capitani or Podestas, by the free burghs, used their authority to enslave the cities they were chosen to administer. It was thus that almost all the numerous tyrants of Lombardy, Carraresi at Padua, Gonzaghi at Mantua, Rossi and Correggi at Parma, Torrensi and Visconti at Milan, Scotti at Piacenza, and so forth, erected their despotic dynasties. . . . In the Fourth class we find the principle of force still more openly at work. To it may be assigned those Condottieri who made a prey of cities at their pleasure. The illustrious Uguccione della Faggiuola, who neglected to follow up his victory over the Guelfs at Monte Catini, in order that he might cement his power in Lucca and Pisa, is an early instance of this kind of tyrant. His successor, Castruccio Castracane, the hero of Machiavelli's romance, is another. But it was not until the first half of the 15th century that professional Condottieri became powerful enough to found such kingdoms as that, for example, of Francesco Sforza at Milan. The Fifth class includes the nephews or sons of Popes. The Riario principality of Forli, the Della Rovere of Urbino, the Borgia of Romagna, the Farnese of Parma, form a distinct species of despotisms; but all these are of a comparatively late origin. Until the papacy of Sixtus IV. and Innocent VIII. the Popes had not bethought them of providing in this way for their relatives. . . . There remains the Sixth and last class of despots to be mentioned. This again is large and of the first importance. Citizens of eminence, like the Medici at Florence, the Bentivogli at Bologna, the Baglioni of Perugia, the Gambacorti of Pisa, like Pandolfo Petrucci in Siena (1502), Romeo Pepoli, the usurer of Bologna (1323), the plebeian Alticlinio and Agolanti of Padua (1313), acquired more than their due weight in the conduct of affairs, and gradually tended to tyranny. In most of these cases great wealth was the original source of despotic ascendancy. It was not uncommon to buy cities together with their Signory. . . . But personal qualities and nobility of blood might also produce despots of the Sixth class."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: Age of the despots, ch. 2.*

1261-1264.—Supplanting of the Venetians by Genoese at Constantinople and in the Black sea. —War between republics. See GENOA: 1261-1299.

1273-1291.—Indifference of Rudolf of Hapsburg to his Italian dominions.—His neglect to claim imperial crown. See GERMANY: 1273-1308.

1277-1447.—Tyranny of the Visconti at Milan. —Their domination in Lombardy and their fall. See MILAN: 1277-1447.

SICILIAN VESPERS
(After painting by Silvio Biechi)

1282-1293.—War between Genoa and Pisa.—Battle of Meloria.—War of Florence and Lucca against Pisa. See PISA: 1063-1293.

(Southern): 1282-1300.—Sicilian Vespers.—Severance of the Two Sicilies.—End of House of Anjou in insular kingdom.—"Peter, King of Aragon, had married Constance, the daughter of Manfred, and laid claim to the kingdom of Sicily in her right. He sent for help to Michael Palaiologos, the restorer of the Eastern Empire. The Emperor agreed to his proposals, for his Empire was threatened by Charles of Anjou. These negotiations were, it is said, carried on through Giovanni di Procida, a Sicilian exile, who, as the story goes, had suffered cruel wrongs from the French. Charles knew something of the plans of the allies, and both parties were preparing for war, but affairs were brought to a crisis by a chance occurrence. On March 30, 1282, a brutal insult was offered by a French soldier to a bride in the presence of her friends and neighbours outside the walls

of Palermo, and the smothered hatred of the people broke out into open violence. The cry 'Death to the French' was raised, and all who belonged to that nation in Palermo were slain without mercy. This massacre, which is called 'The Sicilian Vespers,' spread through the whole island; the yoke of the oppressor was broken and the land was delivered. Charles laid siege to Messina, but he was forced to retire by Peter of Aragon, who landed and was received as King. Pope Martin in vain excommunicated the rebels and their allies, and, in 1284, Charles received a great blow, for his son was defeated and taken prisoner by Roger of Loria, the Admiral of the Catalan fleet. Charles of Anjou died in 1286, and two years later his son, also called Charles, ransomed himself from prison."—W. Hunt, *History of Italy, ch.* 4.—Charles of Anjou "died of grief, leaving his son, the prince of Salerno, a prisoner, and Martin followed him, before he could proclaim a general crusade against the invader of the apostolic fief. Pedro, having enjoyed his two crowns to the day of his death, left them to his sons, Alphonso and James respectively, and both were excommunicated by Honorius IV. for their accession. The prince of Salerno, obtaining his release by the mediation of Edward of England, was absolved by Nicholas IV. from the conditions to which he had sworn, and crowned at Rome king of Apulia (i. e., Naples) and Sicily, 1289. His hopes of regaining the island were constantly disappointed. James, having succeeded to the crown of Arragon by the death of Alphonso, was persuaded to resign Sicily to Charles on condition of receiving his daughter in marriage, with an ample dowry. Boniface VIII. also graciously gave him leave to conquer the islands of Corsica and Sardinia, from the republics of Pisa and Genoa. The Sicilians, however, declining to be so bartered, bestowed their crown on James's brother Frederic [1295]; and though James contributed his fleet to reduce him, he retained the island throne [1300], while Charles and the pope were obliged to rest content with the continental kingdom. Their only satisfaction was to persist in calling Naples by the name of Sicily, and to stigmatise their rival as king of 'Trinacria.' "—G. Trevor, *Rome: From the fall of the Western empire, p.* 240.

Also in: S. A. Dunham, *History of Spain and Portugal, bk.* 3, *sect.* 2, *ch.* 4.

1294-1299.—War between Venice and Genoa. See Genoa: 1261-1299.

1297-1319.—Perfected aristocratic constitution of Venice. See Venice: 1032-1319.

1300-1313.—New factions of Florence and Tuscany.—Bianchi and Neri. See Florence: 1295-1300; 1301-1313.

14th century.—Renaissance in its beginning.—Contributing influences.—"It was not the revival of antiquity alone, but its union with the genius of the Italian people, which achieved the conquest of the Western world. . . . The civilisation of Greece and Rome, which, ever since the fourteenth century, obtained so powerful a hold on Italian life, as the source and basis of culture, as the object and ideal of existence, partly also as an avowed reaction against preceding tendencies—this civilisation had long been exerting a partial influence on mediæval Europe, even beyond the boundaries of Italy. The culture of which Charles the Great was a representative was, in face of the barbarism of the seventh and eighth centuries, essentially a Renaissance, and could appear under no other form. . . . But the resuscitation of antiquity took a different form in Italy from that which it assumed in the North. The wave of barbarism had scarcely gone by before the people, in whom the former life was but half effaced, showed a consciousness of its past and a wish to reproduce it. Elsewhere in Europe men deliberately and with reflection borrowed this or the other element of classical civilisation; in Italy the sympathies both of the learned and of the people were naturally engaged on the side of antiquity as a whole, which stood to them as a symbol of past greatness. The Latin language, too, was easy to an Italian, and the numerous monuments and documents in which the country abounded facilitated a return to the past. With this tendency other elements—the popular character which time had now greatly modified, the political institutions imported by the Lombards from Germany, chivalry and other northern forms of civilisation, and the influence of religion and the Church—combined to produce the modern Italian spirit, which was destined to serve as a model and ideal for the whole western world. How antiquity began to work in plastic art, as soon as the flood of barbarism had subsided, is clearly shown in the Tuscan buildings of the twelfth and in the sculptures of the thirteenth centuries. . . . But the great and general enthusiasm of the Italians for classical antiquity did not display itself before the fourteenth century. For this a development of civic life was required, which took place only in Italy, and there not till then. It was needful that noble and burgher should first learn to dwell together on equal terms, and that a social world should arise which felt the want of culture, and had the leisure and the means to obtain it. But culture, as soon as it freed itself from the fantastic bonds of the Middle Ages, could not at once and without help find its way to the understanding of the physical and intellectual world. It needed a guide, and found one in the ancient civilisation, with its wealth of truth and knowledge in every spiritual interest. Both the form and the substance of this civilisation were adopted with admiring gratitude; it became the chief part of the culture of the age."—J. Burckhardt, *Renaissance in Italy, pt.* 3, *ch.* 1.—See also Europe: Renaissance and Reformation: Renaissance from various points of view; Architecture: Renaissance: Italy; Libraries: Renaissance: Italy.

1305-1309.—Removal of papal court to Lyons and then to Avignon.—"Babylonian Captivity." See Papacy: 1294-1348.

1310-1313.—Visitation of the Emperor Henry VII.—Hostility of Florence and siege of city.—Repulse from Rome.—Emperor's death.—"No Emperor had come into Italy since the death of Frederic II. [1250]. Neither Rudolf nor his two successors [see Germany: 1273-1308] had been crowned Emperor, but on the death of Albert of Austria, the King of the Romans, in 1308, the electors chose Henry, Count of Luxemburg [Henry VII]. In 1310 he entered Italy with a small German army. Unlike most of these Imperial expeditions, this was approved of by the Pope. The French King Philip IV. was really master of Pope Clement V., who did not live in Italy, but sometimes within the French kingdom, or in the English territory of Bordeaux, or in Avignon, a city of the Empire. But Clement did not like bearing the French yoke, and was fearful lest some one of greater talents than Charles of Valois should make an attempt on Italy, and make it impossible for the Pope to get free from the power of the French. He therefore favoured the expedition of

King Henry, and hoped that it would revive the Ghibelin party and counteract the influence of the Guelfs, who were on the side of France. Dante tells us the feelings which were roused by the coming of the King. He seemed to come as God's vicegerent, to change the fortunes of men and bring the exiled home; by the majesty of his presence to bring the peace for which the banished poet longed, and to administer to all men justice, judgment and equity. Henry was worthy of these high hopes; for he was wise, just, and gracious, courageous in fight and honourable in council: but the task was too hard for him. At first all seemed to go well with him. The Ghibelins were ready to receive him as their natural lord; the Guelfs were inclined towards him by the Pope. In Milan the chief power was in the hands of Guido della Torre, the descendant of Pagano della Torre, who had done good service to the city after the battle of Corte Nuova. He was a strong Guelf, and was at the head of a large number of troops; for he was very rich. His great enemy was the Ghibelin Matteo Visconti, who continually struggled with Guido for the mastery. The king was willingly received by the Milanese, and Guido was not behindhand in bidding him welcome. While he was at Milan, on Christmas Day, 1310, he was crowned with the iron crown of the Italian kingdom, which was made of steel in the shape of laurel leaves, and studded with gems. He made both parties enter into an outward reconciliation, and the chiefs of both vied with one another in making him large presents. The King's need of money soon tired out the Milanese, and an insurrection was made in which both Matteo and Guido joined; but Matteo betrayed his rival, and Guido and all the Guelfs were driven out of Milan, which henceforth remained in the power of the Ghibelin Visconti. [See MILAN: 1277-1447.] The King's demands for money made him unpopular, and each city, as he left it, rose against him. Pisa, and the other Tuscan enemies of Florence, received him with joy. But the great Guelfic city shut her gates against him, and made alliance with Robert, the Angevin King of Naples, the grandson of Charles of Anjou, and afterwards gave him [Robert] the signoria. Rome received a garrison from Naples, and the Imperial coronation had to be performed in the Church of St. John Lateran,"—Henry being repulsed in an attempt to force his entrance to the quarter of the Vatican. —W. Hunt, *History of Italy, ch.* 4.—"The city [of Rome] was divided in feeling, and the emperor's position so precarious that he retired to Tivoli at the end of August, and moved towards Tuscany, ravaging the Perugian territory on his way, being determined to bring Florence and all her allies to submission." By rapid movements he reached Florence and invested the city before his intentions were understood. "A sudden assault would probably have carried the city, for the inhabitants were taken by surprise, were in a state of consternation, and could scarcely believe that the emperor was there in person: their natural energy soon returned, the Gonfaloniers assembled their companies, the whole population armed themselves, even to the bishop and clergy; a camp was formed within the walls, the outer ditch palisaded, the gates closed, and thus for two days they remained hourly expecting an assault. At last their cavalry [which had been cut off by the emperor's movement] were seen returning by various ways and in small detachments; succours also poured in from Lucca, Prato, Pistoia, Volterra, Colle, and San Gimignano; and even Bologna, Rimini, Ravenna, Faenza, Cesina, Agobbio, Città di Castello with several other places rendered their assistance: indeed so great and extensive was Florentine influence and so rapid the communication, that within eight days after the investment 4,000 men at arms and innumerable infantry were assembled at Florence! As this was about double the imperial cavalry and four times its infantry, the city gates were thrown open and business proceeded as usual, except through that entrance immediately opposite to the enemy. For two and forty days did the emperor remain within a mile of Florence, ravaging all the country, but making no impression on the town; after which he raised the siege and moved to San Casciano, eight miles south." Later, the Imperialist army was withdrawn to Poggibonzi, and in March, 1313, it was moved to Pisa, to prepare for a new campaign. "The Florentines had thus from the first, without much military skill or enterprise, proved themselves the boldest and bitterest enemies of Henry; their opposition had never ceased; by letters, promises, and money, they corrupted all Lombardy. . . . Yet party quarrels did not cease. . . . The emperor now turned all his energies to the conquest of Naples, as the first step towards that of Italy itself. For this he formed a league with Sicily and Genoa; assembled troops from Germany and Lombardy; filled his treasury in various ways, and soon found himself at the head of 2,500 German cavalry and 1,500 Italian men-at-arms, besides a Genoese fleet of 70 galleys under Lamba Doria and 50 more supplied by the King of Sicily, who with 1,000 men-at-arms had already invaded Calabria by capturing Reggio and other places." On the 5th of August, the emperor left Pisa upon his expedition against Naples; on the 24th of the same month he died at Buonconvento—not without suspicions of poison, although his illness began before his departure from Pisa. "The intelligence of this event spread joy and consternation amongst his friends and enemies; the army soon separated, and his own immediate followers with the Pisan auxiliaries carried his body back to Pisa where it was magnificently interred."—H. E. Napier, *Florentine history, v.* 1, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 15.

1310-1313.—Dante.—His political ideas.—"De Monarchia."—"The career of Henry the Seventh in Italy is the most remarkable illustration of the Emperor's position: and imperialistic doctrines are set forth most strikingly in the treatise which the greatest spirit of the age wrote to herald or commemorate the advent of that hero, the *De Monarchia* of Dante [1265-1321]. . . . With Henry the Seventh ends the history of the Empire in Italy, and Dante's book is an epitaph instead of a prophecy. . . . Weary of the endless strife of princes and cities, of the factions which within every city strove against each other, seeing municipal freedom, the only mitigation of turbulence, vanish with the rise of domestic tyrants, Dante raises a passionate cry for some power to still the tempest, not to quench liberty or supersede local self-government, but to correct and moderate them, to restore unity and peace to hapless Italy. His reasoning is throughout closely syllogistic: he is alternately the jurist, the theologian, the scholastic metaphysician: the poet of the *Divina Commedia* is betrayed only by the compressed energy of diction, by his clear vision of the unseen, rarely by a glowing metaphor."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire, pp.* 278, 280.—"Historically, he [Dante] came at the climax of the thirteenth century,—that wonderful century, only to be matched in importance by the fifteenth and the nineteenth. It

was the great Catholic century. It witnessed the Papacy at its zenith under Innocent III, the formulation of Catholic theology by Thomas Aquinas, the rise of the great orders,—the Dominican to safeguard the faithful by persecuting heretics, the Franciscan to lead all men to Christ by following his example. It boasted its mystics and its logicians; it built cathedrals; it set forth on eight crusades; it beheld the establishing of popular government in Italian cities, the bourgeoning of popular literatures, the astonishing expansion of the great universities. Above all, it saw the death-struggle between the Holy Roman Emperors and the Popes—the world their stake—which resulted in the destruction of both Church and State as the joint arbiters of Christendom."—W. R. Thayer, *Italica, p.* 247.—"Dante lived in the most vital and the most interesting period of the [Holy Roman] Empire's existence, and was beyond question the most important single figure, judged by the test of enduring influence, that the Empire added to the annals of civilization. He was a profound patriot and a devout adherent of the church. He loved Italy for itself and as part of the Empire, and he venerated the church. To Florence, the city of his birth, he was devoted, and he revered the memory of his ancestors, and the former age of simple living and high thinking. . . . It was an age in which the Emperor and the Pope, pretending to represent the interest of this world, and the other, were at incessant war over material things. It was an age in which such men as Dante believed that this world should be governed by the powers of church and state working together for the good of all; an age which believed that men should render unto God the things which are God's, and unto Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's, and that the pope was God's vicegerent on Earth, and the Emperor, Cæsar's."—A. W. Brooks, *Dante, p.* 7.—"The *De Monarchiâ* is written in Latin, and is divided into three books. In the first of these Dante inquires whether an Universal Monarchy, which he defines as 'a single principality supreme over all men in time, or in and over all things that are measured by time,' is good for the world; in the second, whether the Roman people have a legitimate right to it; in the third, whether it is derived immediately from God or from His Vicar the Pope. . . . He settles the first of his three questions affirmatively by defining the end of man to be his intellectual activity, contemplative and active, which can only exist unimpeded during profound peace. This view of human life is not a little remarkable in a theorist of the Middle Ages. Dante shows that a supreme monarchy would insure such peace, by establishing one moderator and justice-maker throughout the civilised world. Many other arguments he adduces from the Divine Nature to prove that such a monarchy as he intends would be the image of celestial order in the world. He also remarks that our Lord consecrated monarchy by assuming humanity when monarchy was perfect and the world at peace beneath Augustus. The second book proves at length that Rome is the God-appointed seat of monarchy. The arguments are curious. Dante appeals to the Roman miracles recorded by Livy; he describes the Roman people as the most noble of all peoples; he asserts that Nature framed them for Empire, quoting Virgil's famous lines, 'Excudent alii,' etc., and that the Romans conquered the world for the world's good; he founds their right on their might; and finally points again to the fact that our Lord Himself owned the sway of Augustus at his birth and of Tiberius at his death. Dante's veneration for Rome, based upon religious belief and strengthened by conviction, never wavered. Rome was the sacred, inviolable, God-created city in his eyes. . . . In the 3d book Dante demonstrates that the Empire, which he has proved to be beneficial and to be of right Roman, is not dependent on 'God's vicar or minister, by whom I mean the successor of Peter, who is in truth the keeper of the keys of the celestial realm.' He meets all the Papal arguments from Scripture and from history, destroying them with skill, and adducing many passages of the Gospel in which the Empire as a separate power is recognised by Christ and His Apostle. The last chapter of the book, in which he winds up his argument, is of great value. It sets forth with precision the dualism of which we have already spoken. Man, he says, being by nature double, partaking of corruptibility and incorruptibility, has two ends to which he tends. In harmony with these two ends, he is subject to two orders, Temporal and Spiritual, the Empire and the Papacy; he has two guides, Reason and Faith, Philosophy and Revelation, the works of Sages and Poets, and the Gospel; he is fitted for two forms of beatitude, earthly and celestial, to which the cardinal and theological virtues severally lead him. God alone is above the two chief rulers of mankind. Pope and Emperor take their authority alike from Him; nor is either subject to the other. Their spheres are essentially different. In like manner the Sun and Moon rule the sky, and are distinct. Dante, however, adds: 'This truth must not be held so straitly but that the Roman Emperor should not in some point be inferior to the Roman Pontiff; seeing that the mortal felicity of man is, in some sort, subject to the immortal. Wherefore let Cæsar reverence Peter, even as a first-born son his father; so that illumined by light of paternal grace he may with the more virtue shine upon the world, whereto he is appointed by that Sun who ruleth all things spiritual and temporal.' "—J. A. Symonds, *Introduction to the study of Dante, pp.* 77-79.—"So ends the treatise. Dante's arguments are not stranger than his omissions. No suspicion is breathed against the genuineness of Constantine's Donation; no proof is adduced, for no doubt is felt, that the Empire of Henry the Seventh is the legitimate continuation of that which had been swayed by Augustus and Justinian. Yet Henry was a German, sprung from Rome's barbarian foes, the elect of those who had neither part nor share in Italy and her capital."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire, p.* 284.—See also FLORENCE: 1295-1300; 1301-1313; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1283-1375.

ALSO IN: T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 7.

1312-1338.—Rising power and reverses of the Scaligeri of Verona.—Mastino's war with Florence and Venice. See VERONA: 1260-1338.

1313-1330.—Guelf leadership of King Robert of Naples.—Wars of Pisa and Florence.—Rise and threatening power of Castruccio Castracani.—Siege of Genoa.—Visit of Emperor Louis of Bavaria.—Subjection of Pisa to Castruccio.—Death of Castruccio and deliverance of Italian cities.—"While the unexpected death of Henry VII. deprived the Ghibelin party of its leader, and long wars between rival candidates for the succession to the German throne placed the imperial authority over Italy in abeyance [see GERMANY: 1314-1347], Robert, king of Naples, the chief of the Guelf party, the possessor of Provence, and the favourite of the church, began to aspire to the general sovereignty of Italy. He had succeeded to the crowns of Naples and Provence on the death of his father,

Charles II., in opposition to the recognized laws of inheritance (1309). His elder brother, Charles Martel, by his marriage with the heiress of Hungary, had been called to the throne of that kingdom, and had died before his father. His son, Carobert, the reigning king of Hungary, on the death of his grandfather, Charles II., asserted his just rights to all the dominions of that monarch; but Robert, hastening to Avignon, whither Clement V. had now removed his court, obtained from the pope, as feudal superior of the royal fief of Naples, a sentence which set aside the claims of his nephew in his own favour. The king of Hungary did not seriously attempt to oppose this decision, and Robert, a prince of wisdom and address, though devoid of military talents, soon extended his ambitious views beyond the kingdom over which he reigned undisturbed." The death of Henry VII. "left him every opportunity both to attempt the subjugation of the Ghibelin states, and to convert his alliance with the Guelfs into the relation of sovereign and subject. . . . It was in Tuscany that the storm first broke over the Ghibelins after the loss of their imperial chief, and that the first ray of success unexpectedly beamed on their cause. Florence and the other Guelf cities of the province were no sooner delivered from the fear of Henry VII. than they prepared to wreak their vengeance against Pisa for the succours which she had furnished to the emperor. But that republic, in consternation at her danger, had taken into pay 1,000 German cavalry, the only part of the imperial army which could be prevailed upon to remain in Italy, and had chosen for her general Uguccione della Faggiuola, a celebrated Ghibelin captain. The ability of this commander, and the confidence with which he inspired the Pisans, turned the tide of fortune. . . . The vigour of his arms reduced the Guelf people of Lucca to sue for peace; they were compelled to restore their Ghibelin exiles; and then Uguccione, fomenting the dissensions which were thus created within the walls, easily subjected one of the most wealthy and flourishing cities of Tuscany to his sword (1314). The loss of so valuable an ally as Lucca alarmed the Florentines, and the whole Guelf party. . . . King Robert sent two of his brothers into Tuscany with a body of gens-d'armerie; the Florentines and all the Tuscan Guelfs uniting their forces to this succour formed a large army; and the confederates advanced to relieve the castle of Montecatini which Uguccione was besieging." The Ghibelin commander had a much smaller force to resist them with; but he gained, notwithstanding, "a memorable victory, near Montecatini, in which both a brother and a nephew of the king of Naples were numbered with the slain (1513). This triumph rendered Uguccione more formidable than ever; but his tyranny became insupportable both to the Pisans and Lucchese, and a conspiracy was formed in concert in both cities. . . . Excluded from both places and deserted by his troops, he retired to the court of the Scala at Verona (1316). So Pisa recovered her liberty, but Lucca was less fortunate or wise, for her citizens only transferred the power which Uguccione had usurped to the chief of the Ghibelins, Castruccio Castracani degl' Interminelli, one of the most celebrated names in Italian history. This extraordinary man . . . had early in life shared the common fate of exile with the White Guelfs or Ghibelins of Lucca. Passing ten years of banishment in England, France, and the Ghibelin cities of Lombardy, he had served a long apprenticeship to arms under the best generals of the age. . . . He had no sooner returned to Lucca with the Ghibelin exiles, who were restored by the terms of the peace with Pisa, than he became the first citizen of the state. His skill and courage mainly contributed to the subsequent victory of Montecatini, and endeared him to the Lucchese; his influence and intrigues excited the jealousy of Uguccione, and caused his imprisonment; and the insurrection which delivered Lucca from that chief, liberated Castruccio from chains and impending death to sovereign command. Chosen annual captain of the people at three successive elections, he at length demanded and obtained the suffrages of the senate and citizens for his elevation to the dignity of signor (1320). . . . Under his government Lucca enjoyed repose for some years. . . . During these transactions in Tuscany, the Lombard plains were still desolated by incessant and unsparing warfare. The efforts of the Neapolitan king were mainly directed to crush Matteo Visconti [see MILAN: 1277-1447] and the Ghibelins in this part of Italy"; but the power of the latter was continually spreading. "In this prosperous state of the Ghibelin interests the domestic feuds of Genoa attracted the tide of war to her gates. The ambitious rivalry of her four great families, of the Grimaldi, the Fieschi, the Spinola, and the Doria, had long agitated the bosom of the republic; and at the period before us the two former, who headed the Guelf party, had, after various convulsions, gained possession of the government. The Spinola and Doria, retiring from the city, fortified themselves in the smaller towns of the Genoese territory, and immediately invited the Ghibelin chiefs of Lombardy to their aid. The lords of Milan and Verona promptly complied with the demand, . . . and laid siege to the capital. The rulers of Genoa could then resort in their terror to no other protection than that of the Neapolitan king. Robert, conscious of the importance of preserving the republic from subjection to his enemies, hastened by sea to its defence, and obtained the absolute cession of the Genoese liberties into his hands for ten years as the price of his services. . . . After the possession of the suburbs and outworks of Genoa had been obstinately contested during ten months, the Ghibelins were compelled to raise the siege. But Robert had scarcely quitted the city to pass into Provence, when the exiles with aid from Lombardy again approached Genoa, and during four years continued a war of posts in its vicinity. But neither the Lombard signors nor Robert engaged in this fruitless contest, and Lombardy again became the great theatre of warfare." But the power which Matteo Visconti was steadily building at Milan, for his family, could not be shaken, even though an invasion from France (1320), and a second from Germany (1322), was brought about through papal influence. At the same time Castruccio Castracani, having consolidated his despotism at Lucca, was making war upon the Florentines. When, in 1325, he succeeded in gaining possession of the Guelf city of Pistoia, "this acquisition, which was highly dangerous to Florence, produced such alarm in that republic that she called out her whole native force for the more vigorous prosecution of the war." Castruccio was heavily outnumbered in the campaign, but he gained, nevertheless, a great victory over the Florentines near the castle of Altopascio (November 23, 1325). "The whole Florentine territory was ravaged and plundered, and the conqueror carried his insults to the gates of the capital. . . . In the ruin which threatened the Guelf party in Tuscany, the Florentines had recourse to King Robert of Naples, with entreaties for aid," which he brought to them in 1326, but only on the condition "that his absolute com-

mand over the republic, which had expired in 1321, should be renewed for ten years in favour of his son Charles, duke of Calabria." But now a new danger to the Guelf interests appeared, in the approach of the emperor, Louis IV. of Bavaria. "After a long contest for the crown of Henry VII., Louis of Bavaria had triumphed over his rival, Frederic of Austria, and taken him prisoner at the sanguinary battle of Muhldorf, in 1322. Having since passed five years in confirming his authority in Germany, Louis was now tempted by ambition and cupidity to undertake an expedition into Italy (1327)." Halting for some time at Milan, where he received the iron crown of Lombardy, and where he deposed and imprisoned Galeazzo Visconti, he proceeded into Tuscany "on his march to Rome, where he intended to receive the imperial crown. He was welcomed with joy by the signor of Lucca, and the superior genius of Castruccio at once acquired the entire ascendant over the weaker mind of Louis. Against the united forces of the emperor and of Castruccio, the duke of Calabria and his Guelf army cautiously maintained themselves on the defensive; but the passage of Louis through Tuscany was attended with disastrous consequences to the most famous Ghibelin city of that province." Pisa, notwithstanding the long fidelity of that republic to the Ghibelin cause, was sacrificed by the emperor to the covetous ambition of Castruccio. The forces of the two were joined in a siege to which the unfortunate city submitted after a month. "She thus fell in reality into the hands of Castruccio, who shortly established his absolute authority over her capital and territory. After extorting a heavy contribution from the Pisans, and rewarding the services of Castruccio by erecting the state of Lucca into an imperial duchy in his favour, the rapacious emperor pursued his march to Rome. There he consumed in the frivolous ceremony of his coronation [January 17, 1328], and in the vain endeavour to establish an antipope, the time which he might have employed, with the forces at his command, and in conjunction with Frederic, king of Sicily, in crushing for ever the power of Robert of Naples and of all the Guelfs of Italy who depended on that monarch." In August of the same year Castruccio, who "had now attained an elevation which seemed to threaten . . . the total subjugation of all Italy," died suddenly of a fever. "Florence breathed again from impending oppression, Pisa recovered her freedom, and Lucca sank from ephemeral splendour into lasting obscurity. By the death of Castruccio the emperor had lost his best counsellor and firmest support, and he soon ceased to be formidable to the Guelfs. . . . Hastily returning into Tuscany, he plundered the infant orphans of Castruccio of their inheritance to sell Lucca to a new signor, and to impose ruinous contributions upon the Pisans, before his return into Lombardy delivered them from tyranny. . . . The first proceeding of Louis in Lombardy had been to ruin the Visconti, and to drain their states of money; almost his last act in the province was to make the restoration of this family to power a new source of profit." In 1330 the emperor returned to Germany, recalled by troubles in that part of his dominions.—G. Procter, *History of Italy, ch. 4, pt. 2.*

Also in: N. Machiavelli, *Florentine histories, bk. 2.*—H. E. Napier, *Florentine history, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 15-18.*

1314-1327.—Election and contest of rival emperors, Louis of Bavaria and Frederick of Austria. See Germany: 1314-1347.

1341-1343.—Defeat of Florentines by Pisans, before Lucca.—Brief tyranny of duke of Athens at Florence. See Florence: 1341-1343.

(Southern): 1343-1389.—Troubled reign of Joanna I in Naples.—Murder of her husband, Andrew of Hungary.—Political effects of great schism in the church.—Struggle between Charles of Durazzo and Louis of Anjou for Neapolitan throne.—Violent course of Pope Urban VI.—"In Naples itself the house of Anjou fell into disunion. Charles II. of Naples gained by marriage the dowry of Hungary, which passed to his eldest son Charles Martel, while his second son, Robert, ruled in Naples. But Robert survived his only son, and left as heiress of the kingdom [1343] his grand-daughter Giovanna [better known as Joan, or Joanna]. The attempt to give stability to the rule of a female by marriage with her cousin, Andrew of Hungary, only aroused the jealousy of the Neapolitan nobles and raised up a strong party in opposition to Hungarian influence. Charles II. of Naples, Giovanna's great-grandfather, had left many sons and daughters, whose descendants of the great houses of Durazzo and Tarento, like those of the sons of Edward III. in England, hoped to exercise the royal power. When, in 1345, Pope Clement VI. was on the point of recognising Andrew as King of Naples, a conspiracy was formed against him, and he was murdered, with the connivance, as it was currently believed, of the Queen. Hereon the feuds in the kingdom blazed forth more violently than before; the party of Durazzo ranged itself against that of Tarento, and demanded punishment of the murderers. Giovanna I., to protect herself, married Lewis of Tarento in 1347. King Lewis of Hungary, aided by the party of Durazzo, entered Naples to avenge his brother's death, and for a while all was confusion. On the death of Lewis of Tarento (1362) Giovanna I. married James, King of Majorca, and on his death (1374), Otto, Duke of Brunswick. Giovanna I. was childless, and the slight lull which in the last years had come over the war of factions in Naples was only owing to the fact that all were preparing for the inevitable conflict which her death would bring." Neapolitan affairs were at this stage when the great schism occurred (see Papacy: 1377-1417), which enthroned two rival popes, one (Urban VI) at Rome, and one (Clement VII) at Avignon. Queen Giovanna had inclined first to Urban, but was repelled, and gave her adhesion to Clement. Thereupon, Urban, on the 21st of April, 1380, "declared her deposed from her throne as a heretic, schismatic, and traitor to the Pope. He looked for help in carrying out his decree to King Lewis of Hungary, who had for a time laid aside his desire for vengeance against Giovanna, but was ready to resume his plans of aggrandisement when a favourable opportunity offered. . . . Lewis was not himself disposed to leave his kingdom; but he had at his court the son of his relative, Lewis of Durazzo, whom he had put to death in his Neapolitan campaign for complicity in Andrew's murder. Yet he felt compassion for his young son Charles, brought him to Hungary, and educated him at his court. As Giovanna was childless, Charles of Durazzo, or Carlo della Pace, as he was called in Italy, had a strong claim to the Neapolitan throne at her death." Charles of Durazzo was accordingly furnished with Hungarian troops for an expedition against Naples, and reached Rome in November, 1380. "Clement VII. on his side bestirred himself in behalf of his ally Giovanna, and for this purpose could count on the help of France. Failing the house of Durazzo, the house of Valois could put forward a claim to the Neapolitan throne, as being descended

from the daughter of Charles II. The helpless Giovanna I. in her need adopted as her heir and successor Louis, Duke of Anjou, brother of the French king, and called him to her aid. Clement VII. hastened to confer on Louis everything that he could; he even formed the States of the Church into a kingdom of Adria, and bestowed them on Louis; only Rome itself, and the adjacent lands in Tuscany, Campania Maritima, and Sabina were reserved for the Pope. The Avignonese pretender was resolved to show how little he cared for Italy or for the old traditions of the Italian greatness of his office. Charles of Durazzo was first in the field, for Louis of Anjou was detained in France by the death of Charles V. in September, 1380. The accession of Charles VI. at the age of twelve threw the government of the kingdom upon the Council of Regency, of which Louis of Anjou was the chief member. He used his position to gratify his chief failing, avarice, and gathered large sums of money for his Neapolitan campaign. Meanwhile Charles of Durazzo was in Rome, where Urban VI. equipped him for his undertaking." In June, 1381, Charles marched against Naples, defeated Otto, the husband of Giovanna, at San Germano, and had the gates of Naples opened to him by a rising within the city on the 16th of July. Giovanna took refuge in the Castel Nuovo, but surrendered it on the 26th of August. After nine months of captivity, the unfortunate queen was "strangled in her prison on May 12, 1382, and her corpse was exposed for six days before burial that the certainty of her death might be known to all. Thenceforth the question between Charles III. and Louis was not complicated by any considerations of Giovanna's rights. It was a struggle of two dynasties for the Neapolitan crown, a struggle which was to continue for the next century. Crowned King of Naples by Clement VII., Louis of Anjou quitted Avignon at the end of May, accompanied by a brilliant array of French barons and knights. He hastened through North Italy, and disappointed the hopes of the fervent partisans of Clement VII. by pursuing his course over Aquila, through the Abruzzi, and refusing to turn aside to Rome, which, they said, he might have occupied, seized Urban VI., and so ended the Schism. When he entered the territory of Naples he soon received large accessions to his forces from discontented barons, while 22 galleys from Provence occupied Ischia and threatened Naples." Charles, having inferior forces, could not meet his adversary in the field, but showed great tactical skill, acting on the defensive, "cutting off supplies, and harassing his enemy by unexpected sallies. The French troops perished miserably from the effects of the climate; . . . Louis saw his splendid army rapidly dwindling away." But quarrels now arose between Charles and Pope Urban; the latter went to Naples to interfere in affairs; the King made him practically a prisoner and extorted from him agreements which were not to his liking. But Urban, on the 1st of January, 1384, "proclaimed a crusade against Louis as a heretic and schismatic, and Charles unfurled the banner of the Cross." In May the pope withdrew from Naples to Nocera, and there began a series of interferences which convinced Charles "that Urban was a more serious adversary than Louis." With the summer came attacks of the plague upon both armies; but that of Louis suffered most, and Louis himself died, in September, bequeathing his claims on Naples to his eldest son. "On the death of Louis the remnant of his army dispersed, and Charles was free from one antagonist. . . . War was now declared between the Pope and the King. . . . Charles found adherents amongst Urban's Cardinals." Urban discovered the plots of the latter and threw six of them into a dungeon, where he tortured them with brutality. Charles attacked Nocera and took the town, but the castle in which the pope had fortified himself resisted a long siege. "Three or four times a day the dauntless pope appeared at a window, and with bell and torch cursed and excommunicated the besieging army." In August, 1385, Urban was rescued by some of his partisans, who broke through the camp of the besiegers and carried him off, still clinging to his captive cardinals, all but one of whom he subsequently put to death. He made his way to Trani and was there met by Genoese galleys which conveyed him and his party to Genoa. He resided in Genoa rather more than a year, very much to the discomfort and expense of the Genoese, and then, after much difficulty, found shelter at Lucca until September, 1387. Meantime Charles III had left Naples, returning to Hungary to head a revolt against the widowed queen and young daughter of Lewis, who died in 1382. There he was assassinated in February, 1386. "The death of Charles III. again plunged the kingdom of Naples into confusion. The Angevin party, which had been powerless against Charles, raised against his son Ladislas, a boy of twelve years old, the claims of Louis II. of Anjou. The exactions of the Queen Regent Margaret awoke dissatisfaction, and led to the appointment in Naples of a new civic magistracy, called the Otto di Buono Stato, who were at variance with Margaret. The Angevins rallied under Tommaso of Sanseverino, and were reinforced by the arrival of Otto of Brunswick. The cause of Louis was still identified with that of Clement VII., who, in May 1385, had solemnly invested him with the kingdom of Naples. Urban VI., however, refused to recognise the claims of the son of Charles, though Margaret tried to propitiate him . . . and though Florence warmly supported her prayers for help." The pope continued obstinate in this refusal until his death. He declared that the kingdom of Naples had lapsed to the Holy See, and he tried to gather money and troops for an expedition to secure it. As a means to that end, he ordered that the year 1390 should be a year of jubilee—a decade before the end of the century. It was his last desperate measure to obtain money. On October 15th, 1389, he died and one of the most disastrous pontificates in the history of the papacy came to an end.—M. Creighton, *History of the papacy during the period of the Reformation, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 1.*

Also in: *Historical life of Joanna of Sicily.*—A. B. Jameson, *Memoirs of celebrated female sovereigns, v. 1, ch. 4.*—C. Baddeley, *Charles III of Naples and Urban VI.*

1343-1393.—"Free Companies."—Employment of northern mercenaries in Italian wars.—Their depredations.—Great Company.—Company of Sir John Hawkwood.—"The practice of hiring troops to fight the battles of the Commonwealth [of Florence—but in other Italian states no less] had for some time past been continually on the increase. . . . The demand for these mercenary troops,—a demand which . . . preferred strangers from beyond the Alps,—had filled Italy with bands of free lances, ready to take service with any tyrant, or any free city that was willing to pay them. They passed from one service to another, and from one side of a quarrel to the other, with the utmost indifference and impartiality. But from this manner of life to setting up for themselves and warring for their own behoof there was but one step. And no prudent man could have doubted that this step

would ere long be taken. Every circumstance of the age and country combined to invite and facilitate it. . . . Already, immediately after the fall of the Duke of Athens [at Florence, 1343], a German adventurer, one Werner, known in Italian history as the Duke Guarnieri, had induced a large number of the hired troops, who were then 'unattached' in Italy, mainly those dismissed at that time from the service of Pisa, to form themselves into an independent company and recognize him as their leader. With equal effrontery and accuracy this ruffian styled himself 'The enemy of God, of Pity, and of Mercy.' . . . This gang of bandits numbered more than 2,000 horsemen. Their first exploit was to threaten the city of Siena. Advancing through the Sienese territory towards the city, plundering, killing, and burning indiscriminately as they went, they inspired so sudden and universal a terror that the city was glad to buy them off with a sum of 12,000 florins. From the Sienese territory they passed to that of Arezzo, and thence to the district around Perugia; and then turning towards the Adriatic, overran Romagna, and the Rimini country, then governed by the Malatesta family. It is difficult adequately to describe, or even to conceive the sufferings, the destruction, the panic, the horror, which marked the track of such a body of miscreants." Finally, by the skilful management of the Lord of Bologna, the company was bought up and sent across the Alps, out of Italy, in detachments. "The relief was obtained in a manner which was sure to operate as an encouragement to the formation of other similar bands. And now, after the proclamation of the peace between Florence and the Visconti, on the 1st of April, 1353, . . . the experiment which had answered so well in the hands of the German 'Enemy to God and to Mercy,' was repeated on a larger scale by a French Knight Hospitaller of the name of Montreal, known in Italian history as Frà Moriale. . . . Being out of place, it occurred to him to collect all the fighting men in Italy who were similarly circumstanced, and form an independent company after the example of Guarnieri, with the avowed purpose of living by plunder and brigandage. He was so successful that he collected in a very short time 1,500 men-at-arms and 2,000 foot soldiers; who were subsequently increased to 5,000 cavaliers and 7,000 infantry; and this band was known as 'the Great Company.'" There was an attempt made, at first, to combine Florence, Siena and Perugia, with the Romagna, in resistance to the marauders; but it failed. "The result was that the Florentines were obliged to buy off the terrible Frà Moriale with a bribe of 28,000 florins, and Pisa with one of 16,000. . . . The chief . . . after Frà Moriale himself, was one Conrad, Count of Lando; and under him the Company marched towards Lombardy in search of fresh booty, while Moriale himself, remaining temporarily behind, went to Rome to confer privately, as it was believed, with the Colonna chiefs, respecting a project of employing his band against Rienzi, the tribune. But whether such was the object of his journey to Rome or not, it was fatal to the brigand chief. For Rienzi no sooner knew that the notorious Frà Moriale was within his jurisdiction than he arrested him, and summarily ordered him to execution as a common malefactor. The death of the chief, however, did not put an end to 'the Great Company'; for Conrad of Lando remained, and succeeded to the command of it." From 1356 to 1359, Italy in different parts was preyed upon by 'the Great Company,' sometimes in the service of the league of the lesser Lombard princes against the Visconti of Milan, and once in the employ of Siena against Perugia; but generally marauding on their own account, independently. Florence, alone, stood out in resistance to their exactions, and finally sent into the field against them 2,000 men-at-arms, all tried troops, 500 Hungarians, and 2,500 cross-bowmen, besides the native troops of the city. Subsequently the Florentine forces were joined by others from Milan, Padua, and elsewhere. The bandits marched all around the Florentine frontier, with much bluster, making great threats, but constantly evading an engagement. At length, on the 20th of July, 1359, the two armies were in such a position that "it was thought in the Florentine camp that a decisive battle would be fought on the morrow. But when that July morning dawned, Lando and his bandit host were already in full march northwards towards Genoa, with a precipitation that had all the appearance of flight. . . . 'The Great Company never again dared to show its face in Tuscany.'"—T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 6.*—"Another company, consisting principally of Englishmen [lately turned loose in France by the Peace of Bretigny, 1360, which terminated the invasion of Edward III], was brought into Italy at a somewhat later period by the Marquis of Montferrat. . . . About the same time another, composed principally of Germans, and commanded by Amichino Baumgarten, was raised by Galeazzo Visconti, and afterwards employed by the Pisans. Another, entitled that of St. George, was formed by Ambrose, the natural son of Bernabos Visconti, and let loose by him on the territories of Perugia and Siena. Thus, at the end of the 14th century, Italy was devastated at one and the same time by these four companies of adventurers, or, as they might more justly be called, professional robbers. . . . Of all these companies, the military reputation of the English was undoubtedly the greatest—a circumstance which may be ascribed, in some degree, to the physical superiority of the men, but still more to the talents of Sir John Hawkwood, by whom they were commanded."—W. P. Urquhart, *Life and times of Francesco Sforza, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 1.*—One of the marauding companies left in France after the Peace of Bretigny, and which afflicted that wretched country so sorely (see FRANCE: 1360-1380), was called the White Company, and Sir John Hawkwood was one of its commanders. "The White Company crossed into Lombardy, under the command of one Albaret, and took service under the Marquis of Montferrat, then at war with the Duke of Milan. Hawkwood [called Giovanni Aguto by the Italians] entered the Pisan service, and next year, when the marquis, being unable to maintain his English troops, disbanded them, the Pisans engaged them, and gave Hawkwood the command." Hawkwood and his company served Pisa, in war with Florence, until 1364, when they experienced a great defeat, which led to peace and their discharge. During the next three years they lived as independent freebooters, the territories of Siena suffering most from their depredations. Then they took service with Bernabo Visconti, lord of Milan, making war for him on Florence and its allies; but very soon their arms were turned against Milan, and they were fighting in the pay of Florence and the pope. "Within the next five years he changed sides twice. He served Galeazzo Visconti against the Papal States; and then, brought back to fight for Holy Church, defeated his late employer in two pitched battles." After this, when the league against an aggressive and ambitious pontiff extended, and Florence, Bologna and other

cities joined Milan, Hawkwood took money from both at the same time, and cheated both, preliminarily to fighting each in turn. While serving the Pope his ruffians wantonly destroyed the captured town of Casena, massacring between 4,000 and 5,000 people, women and children included. In 1378, when Gregory XI died, peace followed, and Hawkwood's company resumed its old freebooting. In 1381 he was engaged in the Neapolitan civil war. In 1387 he seems to have become permanently engaged in the service of Florence against the duke of Milan. "In 1391, Florence concluded a general peace with all her enemies. Her foreign auxiliaries were dismissed, with the exception of Sir John Hawkwood and 1,000 men. Hawkwood henceforth remained in her service till his death, which took place on the 6th of March, 1393. He was buried at the public expense, as a valiant servant of the State."—*Sir John Hawkwood* (*Bentley's Miscellany, v.* 54, *pp.* 284-291).—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 15.

ALSO IN: O. Browning, *Guelphs and Ghibellines, ch.* 12.

1347-1354.—Rienzi's revolution at Rome. See ROME: Medieval city: 1347-1354.

1348-1355.—War of Genoa against Venice, the Greeks and Aragonese. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1348-1355.

1352-1378.—Subjugation and revolt of States of the Church.—War of the pope with Florence. See PAPACY: 1352-1378; FLORENCE: 1375-1378.

1378-1381.—Renewed war between Genoa and Venice.—Defeat at Pola.—Final triumph of Venice in War of Chioggia. See VENICE: 1378-1379; 1379-1381.

1378-1427.—Democratizing of Florence.—Tumult of the Ciompi.—First appearance of the Medici. See FLORENCE: 1378-1427.

(Southern): 1386-1414.—Renewed civil war in Naples.—Defeat of Angevins and triumph of Ladislaus.—His ambitious career.—His capture and recapture of Rome.—"The death of Charles III. involved the kingdom of Naples in the most ruinous anarchy; and delivered it for many years a prey to all the disorders of a long minority and a disputed throne. Charles had left two children, Ladislaus, a boy of ten years old, and a daughter, Joanna; and his widow Margaret acted as regent for her son. On the other hand, the Sanseverini and other baronial families, rallying the Angevin party, proclaimed the young son of the late duke of Anjou king,—also under the guardianship of his mother, Maria,—by the title of Louis II. Thus Naples was disturbed by the rival pretensions of two boys, placed beneath the guidance of ambitious and intriguing mothers, and severally protected by two popes, who excommunicated each other, and laboured to crush the minors whom they respectively opposed, only that they might establish their own authority over the party which they supported. . . . For several years the Angevin party seemed to maintain the ascendancy. Louis II. was withheld in Provence from the scene of danger by his mother; but the barons who had raised his standard, forcing Margaret of Durazzo and the adherents of her son to retire to Gæta, possessed themselves of the capital and great part of the kingdom. When Louis II., therefore, was at length suffered by his mother to appear at Naples, attended by a powerful fleet and a numerous train of the warlike nobles of France (1390), he disembarked at the capital amidst the acclamations of his people, and would probably have overpowered the party of Durazzo with ease, if, as he advanced towards manhood, he had displayed any energy of character. But he proved very unequal, by his indolence and love of pleasure, to contend with the son of Charles III. Educated in the midst of alarms and danger, and surrounded from his infancy by civil wars and conspiracies, Ladislaus had early been exercised in courageous enterprise, and trained to intrigue and dissimulation. At the age of 16, his mother Margaret committed him to the barons of her party to make his first essay in arms; and from this period he was ever at the head of his troops. . . . A fortunate marriage, which his mother had effected for him with Constance di Clermont, the heiress of the most opulent noble of Sicily, increased his resources by an immense dowry; and while he made an able use of these riches [meanly and heartlessly divorcing the wife who brought them to him, when they had been spent], the new Italian pope, Boniface IX., the successor of Urban VI., recognized him for the legitimate son and vassal of the church, because Louis was supported by the Avignon pontiff. This decision gained him many partizans; . . . his talents and valour hourly advanced his success; and at last the Sanseverini and all the barons of the Angevin party, following the tide of fortune, went over to his standards, and opened to him the gates of Naples (1399). Louis . . . retired by sea to his Provençal dominions, and finally abandoned the kingdom of Naples. Ladislaus, having thus triumphed over his sluggish antagonist, had leisure to consolidate his stern authority over the licentious and turbulent feudal aristocracy of his kingdom. . . . He . . . crushed the Sanseverini and other great families, whose power might make them dangerous; and having rooted out the seeds of all resistance to his sway in his own dominions, he prepared to direct his vigorous ambition to schemes of foreign conquest."—G. Procter, *History of Italy, ch.* 5, *pt.* 3.—Until the death of Pope Boniface IX, Ladislaus supported that pontiff through the hard struggle in which he crushed the rebellious Colonna and made himself master of the city of Rome. But when Boniface died, in 1404, the Neapolitan king began to scheme for bringing the ancient capital and the possessions of the church under his own control. "His plan was to set the Pope [the newly elected Innocent VII] and the Roman people against one another, and by helping now one and now the other to get them both into his power. . . . He trusted that the rebellious Romans would drive the Pope from the city, and would then be compelled to submit to himself." He had entered Rome, four days after the papal election, ostensibly as a mediator between the rival factions, and between the pope and the Roman people; and he was easily able to bring about an arrangement which gave him every opportunity for interference and for turning circumstances to his own advantage. Events soon followed as he had expected them, and as he helped, through his agents, to guide them. The turbulence of the people increased, until, in 1405, the pope was driven to flight. "No sooner had the Pope left Rome than Giovanni Colonna, at the head of his troops, burst into the Vatican, where he took up his quarters. . . . The Vatican was sacked; even the Papal archives were pillaged, and Bulls, letters and registers were scattered about the streets. Many of these were afterwards restored, but the loss of historic documents must have been great." Ladislaus now thought his time for seizing Rome was come; but when he sent 5,000 horse to join the Colonna, the Romans took alarm, repelled the Neapolitan troops, and called back the pope, who returned in January, 1406, but who died in the following November. Under the next pope,

Gregory XII, there were negotiations with Avignon for the ending of the great schism; and all the craft of Ladislaus was exerted to defeat that purpose; because a reunion of western Christendom would not be favorable to his designs. At last, a conference of the rival popes was arranged, to take place at Savona, near Genoa, and in August, 1407, Gregory XII left Rome, moving slowly northwards, but finding reasons, equally with his competitor, for never presenting himself at the appointed meeting-place. In his absence the disorders at Rome increased, and when Ladislaus, in April, 1408, appeared before the city with an army of 12,000 horse and as many foot, it was surrendered to him without resistance. "The craft of Ladislas had gained its end, and the temporal power of the Papacy had passed into his hands. . . . So utterly had the prestige of Rome, the memories of her glories, passed away from men's minds, that her sister republic of Florence could send and congratulate Ladislas on the triumphant victory which God and his own manhood had given him in the city of Rome." When, in 1408, the disgusted cardinals of both papal courts joined in calling a general council of the church, to meet at Pisa the following year, Ladislaus threatened to prevent it. By this time "Gregory had sunk to the lowest pitch of degradation: he sold to Ladislas for the small sum of 25,000 florins the entire States of the Church, and even Rome itself. After this bargain Ladislas set out for Rome, intending to proceed into Tuscany and break up the Council." Early in April, 1409, he marched northwards and threatened Siena. But Florence had now undertaken the defense of the council, and resisted him so effectually that the meeting at Pisa was undisturbed. The immediate result of the council was the election of a third claimant of the papacy, Alexander V (see PAPACY: 1377-1417). Around the new pope a league was now formed which embraced Florence, Siena, and Louis of Anjou, whose claim upon Naples was revived. The league made an attempt on Rome in the autumn of 1409, and failed; but the following January the Neapolitans were expelled and the city was occupied by the papal forces. In May, 1410, Alexander V died, and was succeeded by Baldassare Cossa, who took the name of John XXIII. The new pope hastened to identify his cause with Louis of Anjou, and succeeded, by his energy, in putting into the field an army which comprised the four chief "condottieri" in Italy, with their veteran followers. Ladislas was attacked and routed completely at Roccasecca, on May 19th, 1411. But the worthlessness of Louis and the mercenary character of his generals made the victory of no effect. Ladislaus bought over the best of the troops and their leaders, and before the end of summer Louis was back in Provence, again abandoning his Neapolitan claims. Ladislaus made peace, first, with Florence, by selling Cortona to that city, and then with the pope, who recognized him as king, not only of Naples, but of Sicily as well. But Ladislaus was only gaining time by these treaties. In June, 1413, he drove the pope from Rome, and his troops again occupied the city. He seemed to be now well prepared for realizing his ambition to found an extended Italian kingdom; but his career was cut short by a mortal disease, which ended his life on August 6th, 1414. —M. Creighton, *History of the papacy during the period of the Reformation, v.* 1, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 3-8.

1390-1402.—Resistance of Florence to spreading tyranny of the duke of Milan. See FLORENCE: 1390-1402.

1391-1451.—Extension of Italian dominions of House of Savoy. See SAVOY AND PIEDMONT: 11th-15th centuries.

1396-1409.—Sovereignty of Genoa yielded to king of France. See GENOA: 1381-1422.

15th-16th centuries.—Italy's priority in revival of learning. See EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Renaissance from various points of view; EDUCATION: Modern: 15th-16th centuries: Italy the center; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1450-1595.

15th-16th centuries.—Public charities.—Hospitals.—Monti di Pietà. See CHARITIES: Italy: Lack of poor laws.

1402-1406.—Crumbling of Visconti dominion.—Aggrandizement of Venice.—Florentine purchase and conquest of Pisa.—Decline of Pisa.—"The little states of Romagna, which had for the most part been conquered by Gian-Galeazzo Visconti, Duke of Milan, were at his death [1402] overrun by the Count of Barbiano, who with his famous company entered the service of Pope Boniface IX. . . . The Count of Savoy, the Marquess of Montferrat, and the lords of Padua, Ferrara, and Mantua, were the only independent Sovereigns in North Italy in 1402. Of these Francesco, lord of Padua, was soon to fall. On the death of Gian-Galeazzo he seized on Verona. Venice would not allow her old enemy to gain this advantage, and made alliance with Francesco di Gonzaga, lord of Mantua, and with his help took Verona, and closely besieged Padua. After a gallant resistance Francesco da Carrara was forced to yield, and he and his two sons were taken prisoners to Venice, and were there strangled by order of the Council of Ten. This war gave the Venetians great power on the mainland. They reconquered Treviso, and gained Feltro, Verona [1405], Vicenza, and Padua [1405], and from this time Venice became an Italian power. In Tuscany, the death of her great enemy delivered Florence from her distress, and Siena, which now regained her liberty, placed herself under her protection. Pisa [which had been betrayed to Gian-Galeazzo in 1399] had been left to Gabriello Visconti, a bastard son of the late Duke. He put himself under the protection of Jean Boucicault, who governed Genoa for Charles VI., King of France, and with his consent he sold Pisa to the Florentines. The Pisans resisted this sacrifice of their freedom, and the war lasted a year, but in 1406 the city was forced to surrender. Many of the people left their homes; for, though Florence acted fairly towards her old enemy and new subject, yet the Pisans could not bear the yoke, and the greatness of the city, its trade and its wealth, vanished away."—W. Hunt, *History of Italy, ch* 6.—"From that day to this it [Pisa] has never recovered,—not its former greatness, wealth, and energy,—but even sufficient vitality to arrest it on the downward course. . . . Of the two great political tendencies which were then disputing the world between them it made itself the champion and the symbol of the losing one. Pisa went down in the world together with the feudalism and Ghibellinism with which it was identified."—T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence, v.* 2, *bk.* 4, *ch.* 6.—*City in the sea, ch.* 16.

ALSO IN: W. C. Hazlitt, *History of the Venetian republic, v.* 3, *ch.* 21.—A. M. F. Robinson, *End of the Middle Ages, pp.* 340-367.

1409.—Council of Pisa. See PAPACY: 1377-1417.

1412-1447.—Renewed civil war in Naples.—Defeat of Angevins by Alfonso of Aragon and Sicily.—Reconquest of Lombardy by Filippo Maria Visconti, and his wars with Florence, Venice and Naples.—On the death of Ladislaus,

king of Naples (1414), "his sister, Joan II., widow of the son of the duke of Austria, succeeded him. She was 40 years of age; and, like her brother, abandoned to the most unrestrained libertinism. She left the government of her kingdom to her lovers, who disputed power by arms: they called into her service, or into that of her second husband, or of the rival princes whom she in turn adopted, the two armies of Sforza and Braccio [the two great mercenary captains of that time]. The consequence was the ruin of the kingdom of Naples; which ceased to menace the rest of Italy. The moment Ladislaus disappeared, a new enemy arose to disturb the Florentines—Filippo Maria Visconti [duke of Milan, second son of Gian Galeazzo Visconti, and successor to his elder brother Gian Maria, on the assassination of the latter, in 1412]. . . . Filippo . . . married the widow of Facino Cane, the powerful condottiere who had retained Gian Maria in his dependence, and who died the same day that Gian Maria was assassinated. By this sudden marriage he secured the army of Facino Cane,—which was, in fact, master of the greater part of the Milanese: with its aid he undertook, without delay, to recover the rest of his states from the hands of those tyrants who had divided amongst them the dominions of his father. . . . During the first year of his reign, which was to decide his existence as prince or subject, he fought with determined courage; but from that time, though he continually made war, he never showed himself to his armies. . . . In the battle of Monza, by which he acquired his brother's inheritance, and the only battle in which he was ever present, he remarked the brilliant courage of Francesco Carmagnola, a Piedmontese soldier of fortune, and immediately gave him a command. Carmagnola soon justified the duke's choice by the most distinguished talents for war, the most brilliant victories, and the most noble character. Francesco Carmagnola was, after a few years, placed at the head of the duke's armies; and, from the year 1412 to that of 1422, successively attacked all the tyrants who had divided the heritage of Gian Galeazzo, and brought those small states again under the dominion of the duke of Milan. Even the republic of Genoa submitted to him, in 1421, on the same conditions as those on which it had before submitted to the king of France,—reserving all its liberties; and granting the duke's lieutenant, who was Carmagnola himself, only those prerogatives which the constitution yielded to the doge. As soon as Filippo Maria had accomplished the conquest of Lombardy, he resumed the projects of his father against Romagna and Tuscany. He . . . renewed his intrigues against the republic of Florence, and combined them with those which he at the same time carried on in the kingdom of Naples. Joan, who had sent back to France her second husband, Jaques, count de la Marche, and who had no children, was persuaded, in 1420, by one of her lovers, to adopt Alphonso the Magnanimous, king of Aragon and Sicily, to whom she intrusted some of the fortresses of Naples. She revoked this adoption in 1423; and substituted in his place Louis III. of Anjou, son of Louis II. The former put himself at the head of the ancient party of Durazzo; the latter, of that of Anjou. The consequence was a civil war, in which the two great captains, Sforza and Braccio, were opposed to each other, and acquired new titles to glory. The duke of Milan made alliance with Joan II. and Louis III. of Anjou: Sforza, named great constable of the kingdom, was their general. The Florentines remained constant to Braccio, whom Alphonso had made governor of the Abruzzi; and who had seized, at the same time, the signoria of Perugia, his native city. . . . But Sforza and Braccio both perished, as Italy awaited with anxiety the result of the struggle about to be commenced. Sforza was drowned at the passage of the Pescara, on the 4th of January, 1424; Braccio was mortally wounded at the battle of Aquila, on the 2d of June of the same year. Francesco, son of the former, succeeded to his father's name and the command of his army, both of which he was destined to render still more illustrious. The son of Braccio, on the contrary, lost the sovereignty of Perugia, which resumed its freedom on the 29th of July of the same year; and the remnant of the army formed by this great captain elected for his chief his most able lieutenant, Nicolo Piccinino. This was the moment which Filippo Maria chose to push on his army to Romagna, and vigorously attack the Florentines. . . . The Florentines, having no tried general at the head of their troops, experienced, from the 6th of September, 1423, to the 17th of October, 1425, no less than six successive defeats, either in Liguria or Romagna [at Forli, 1423, Zagonara, 1424, Lamone, Rapallo, Anghiari and Faggiola, 1425]. Undismayed by defeat, they reassembled their army for the seventh time: the patriotism of their rich merchants made up for the penury of their exhausted treasury. They, at the same time, sent their most distinguished statesmen as ambassadors to Venice, to represent to that republic that, if it did not join them while they still stood, the liberty of Italy was lost forever. . . . An illustrious fugitive, Francesco Carmagnola, who arrived about this time at Venice, accomplished what Florence had nearly failed in, by discovering to the Venetians the project of the duke of Milan to subjugate them." Carmagnola had been disgraced and discharged from employment by Filippo Maria, whose jealousy was alarmed by his great reputation, and he now took service against his late patron. "A league, formed between Florence and Venice, was successively joined by the marquis of Ferrara, the lord of Mantua, the Siennese, the duke Amadeus VIII. of Savoy, and the king Alphonso of Naples, who jointly declared war against Filippo Maria Visconti, on the 27th of January, 1426. . . . The good fortune of Carmagnola in war still attended him in the campaign of 1426. He was as successful against the duke of Milan as he had been for him: he took from him the city and whole province of Brescia. The duke ceded this conquest to the Venetians by treaty on the 30th of December: but he employed the winter in assembling his forces; and in the beginning of spring renewed the war." An indecisive engagement occurred at Casalsecco, July 12, 1427, and on the 11th of October following, in a marsh near Macalo, Carmagnola completely defeated the Milanese army commanded by Carlo Malatesta. A new peace was signed on the 18th of April, 1428; but war recommenced in the latter part of 1430. Fortune now abandoned Carmagnola. He suffered a surprise and defeat at Soncino, May 17, 1431, and the suspicious senate of Venice caused him to be arrested, tortured and put to death. "During the remainder of the reign of Filippo Maria he was habitually at war with the two republics of Venice and Florence. He . . . almost always lost ground by his distrust of his own generals, his versatility, his taste for contradictory intrigues, his eagerness to sign peace every year, and to recommence hostilities a few weeks afterwards." In 1441, on making peace with the two republics, he granted his daughter Bianca in marriage to their general, Francesco

Sforza, with two lordships for her dowry. But he was soon intriguing against his son-in-law, soon at war again with Florence and Venice, and Sforza was again in the service of the latter. But in 1447 he made offers of reconciliation which were accepted, and Sforza was on his way to Milan when news came to him of the death of the duke, which occurred August 13. "The war of Lombardy was complicated by its connexion with another war which at the same time ravaged the kingdom of Naples. The queen, Joan II., had died there, on the 2d of February, 1435; three months after the death of her adopted son, Louis III. of Anjou: by her will she had substituted for that prince his brother René, duke of Lorraine. But Alphonso, king of Aragon and Sicily, whom she had primarily adopted, . . . claimed the succession, on the ground of this first adoption, as well as of the ancient rights of Manfred, to whom he had succeeded in the female line. The kingdom of Naples was divided between the parties of Aragon and Anjou. The Genoese, who had voluntarily ranged themselves under the protection of the duke of Milan, offered their assistance to the duke of Anjou. . . . On the 5th of August, 1435, their fleet met that of Alphonso, before the island of Ponza. They defeated it in a great battle, in which Alphonso had been made prisoner." Delivered to the duke of Milan, Alphonso soon convinced the latter that his alliance with the French interest at Naples was a mistake and a danger to him, and was set at liberty, with promises of aid. The Genoese were indignant at this and drove the Milanese garrison from their city, in December, 1435, recovering their freedom. "Alphonso, seconded by the duke of Milan, recommenced the war against René of Anjou with greater advantage. On the 2d of June, 1442, he took from him the city of Naples; from that time peace was re-established in that kingdom, and Alphonso . . . established himself amidst a people which he had conquered, but whose hearts he gained; and returned no more either to Sicily or Aragon. He died at Naples, on the 27th of June, 1458."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *History of the Italian republics, ch.* 9-10.

Also in: W. P. Urquhart, *Life and times of Francesco Sforza, v.* 1, *bk.* 3-4.—H. E. Napier, *Florentine history, v.* 3, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 29-32, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 1.—A. B. Jameson, *Memoirs of celebrated female sovereigns, v.* 1, *ch.* 5.—M. A. Hookham, *Life and times of Margaret of Anjou, v.* 1, *introduction and ch.* 1.

1433-1464.—Ascendancy of Cosimo de' Medici at Florence. See Florence: 1433-1464.

1447-1454.—End of the Visconti in duchy of Milan. — Disputed succession. — Francesco Sforza in possession.—War of Venice, Naples and other states against Milan and Florence. See Milan: 1447-1454.

1447-1480.—Pontificate of Nicolas V.—Regeneration of papacy.—Revival of letters and art.—Threatening advance of Turks.—Fresh troubles in Naples.—Expulsion of French from Genoa.—"The failure of the Council of Basel [see Papacy: 1431-1448] restored the position of the Papacy, and set it free from control. The character and ability of Pope Nicolas [V, 1447-1455] made him respected, and the part which he took in politics made him rank amongst the great temporal powers in Italy. From this time onwards to the end of our history we shall see the Popes the undisputed Princes of Rome, and the lords of all that part of Italy which they claimed from the gift of Kings and Emperors, and not least from the will of the Countess Matilda. Pope Nicolas used this power better than any of those who came after him, for he used it in the cause of peace, and to forward learning and artistic taste. He applied himself to the general pacification of Italy, and brought about the Peace of Lodi in 1454, which was signed by Venice and Milan and by King Alphonso. Christendom had great need of peace, for, in 1453, Constantinople had been taken by the Infidels and Mahomet the Second was spreading his conquest over the East of Europe. Before the fall of the city a great many Greeks had come to Italy, on different missions, and especially to attend a Council at Florence, where terms of union were made between the Greek and Latin Churches. Their coming revived the taste for Greek learning, which had been so powerfully felt by Petrarca and Boccaccio. Pope Nicolas made Rome the centre of this literature, and others followed his example. Theodore of Gaza, George of Trebizond, and many more, found enlightened patrons in the Pope, the King of Naples, Cosmo de' Medici, and Federigo, Count of Urbino. The Pope was a lover and patron of art as well as of literature. He rebuilt the churches, palaces, and fortifications of Rome and the Roman States, and formed the scheme of raising a church worthy of the memory of St. Peter, and left behind him the Vatican Palace as a worthy residence for the Apostle's successors. The Papal Library had been scattered during the Captivity and the Schism, but Pope Nicolas made a large collection of manuscripts, and thus founded the Library of the Vatican. The introduction of printing into Italy about this time gave great strength to the revival of learning. In 1452 the Pope crowned Frederic the Third Emperor at Rome with great magnificence. But he was not without danger in his city, for the next year a wild plot was made against him. A large number of Romans were displeased at the great power of the Pope. They were headed by Stefano Porcaro, who declared that he would free the city which had once been mistress of the world from the yoke of priests. The rising was to be ushered in by the slaughter of the Papal Court and the plunder of its treasures. The plot was discovered, and was punished with great severity. This was the last and most unworthy of the various attempts of the Romans to set up self-government. The advance of the Ottoman Turks during the latter part of the 15th century [see Turkey: 1451-1481] caused the greatest alarm in Italy. Venice, from her possessions and her trade in the Levant, was most exposed to the attacks of the Infidels, and she became the great champion against them. The learned Æneas Sylvius was chosen Pope, in 1458, and took the title of Pius the Second. He caused a crusade to be preached against the Turks, but he died in 1464, while the forces were gathering. The Venetians were constantly defeated in the Archipelago, and lost Eubœa, Lesbos, and other islands [see Greece: 1454-1479]. In 1477 a large Turkish army entered Italy by Friuli, defeated the Venetians, and crossed the Tagliamento. They laid waste the country as far as the Piave, and their destroying fires could be seen from the Campanile of St. Mark's. In 1480 Mahomet's great general, Ahmed Keduk, took the strong city of Otranto, and massacred its inhabitants. This expedition was secretly favoured by the Venetians to spite the King of Naples. The danger to all Italy was very great, for the Sultan eagerly longed to conquer the older Rome, but the death of Mahomet the Second, and a disputed succession to his throne, fortunately checked the further advance of the invaders. When

Alfonso, King of Aragon, Naples, and Sicily, died in 1458, he left Aragon and Sicily, which he had inherited, to his legitimate son John; but the crown of Naples, which he had won for himself, he left to Ferdinand, his illegitimate son. Ferdinand was a cruel and suspicious man, and the barons invited John of Calabria to come and help them against him. John of Calabria was the son of Réné, who had been adopted by Queen Joanna, and who called himself King. He was the French Governor of Genoa, and so already had a footing in Italy. He applied to Sforza to help him, but the Duke of Milan was firmly attached to the Peace of Lodi, and was too justly fearful of the French power to do so. Lewis the Eleventh, King of France, was too wise to meddle in Italian politics. Florence, which was usually on the French side, was now under the influence of Cosmo de' Medici, and Cosmo was under the influence of Francesco Sforza, so that the Duke of Calabria found no allies. The Archbishop of Genoa, Paolo Fregoso, excited the people to drive out the French [see GENOA: 1458-1464] and the Doge Prospero Adorno, who belonged to their party. He then defeated King Réné, and the Duke of Calabria was forced to give up his attempt on Naples [1464]. The new government of Genoa was so oppressive that the Genoese put themselves under the protection of Francesco; Lewis the Eleventh ceded all his rights to him, and the city thus became part of the Duchy of Milan. The hopes of the French party in Italy were thus for the present entirely crushed."—W. Hunt, *History of Italy, ch.* 6.

ALSO IN: M. Creighton, *History of the papacy, v.* 2, *bk.* 4, *ch.* 3-4.—W. P. Urquhart, *Life and times of Francesco Sforza, v.* 2, *bk.* 7.—L. Pastor, *History of the popes, v.* 2.

1466-1469.—Florence under five agents of Piero de' Medici. See FLORENCE: 1458-1469.

1469-1492.—Government of Lorenzo the Magnificent, at Florence. See FLORENCE: 1469-1492.

1490-1498.—Savonarola at Florence. See FLORENCE: 1490-1498.

1492-1494.—Charles VIII of France invited across Alps to possess Naples.—Political equilibrium of Italy destroyed by death of Lorenzo de' Medici.—Hostile disunion of Italian states. —With the death of Lorenzo de' Medici, which occurred at Florence in the spring of 1492, "the power vanished which had hitherto kept Naples and Milan quiet, and which, with subtle diplomatic skill, had postponed the breach of the peace in Italy. We find the comparison used, that Florence with Lorenzo at her head stood like a rocky dam between two stormy seas. Italy was at that time a free land and independent of foreign policy. Venice, with her well-established nobles at her head; Naples under the Aragonese, a branch of the family ruling in Spain; Milan, with Genoa, under Sforza—all three able powers by land and sea—counterbalanced each other. Lorenzo ruled central Italy; the small lords of the Romagna were in his pay, and the pope was on the best terms of relationship with him. But in Milan the mischief lay hidden. Ludovico Sforza, the guardian of his nephew Gian Galeazzo, had completely usurped the power. He allowed his ward to pine away mentally and bodily; he was bringing the young prince slowly to death. But his consort, a Neapolitan princess, saw through the treachery, and urged her father to change by force their insufferable position. Sforza could not alone have resisted Naples. No dependence was to be placed on the friendship of Venice; Lorenzo mediated as long as he lived, but now, on his death, Naples was no longer to be restrained. The first thing that happened was [Piero de' Medici's] alliance with this power, and at the same time Ludovico's appeal for help to France, where a young and ambitious king had ascended the throne. The death of Innocent VIII., and the election of Alexander Borgia to the papacy, completed the confusion which was impending. Long diplomatic campaigns took place before war actually broke out. The matter in question was not the interests of nations—of this there was no thought—nor even the caprices of princes alone. The nobles of Italy took a passionate concern in these disputes. The contests of corresponding intrigues were fought out at the French court. France had been robbed of Naples by the Aragonese. The exiled Neapolitan barons, French in their interests, whose possessions the Aragonese had given to their own adherents, ardently seized the idea of returning victoriously to their country; the cardinals, hostile to Borgia—foremost among these stood the Cardinal of San Piero in Vincula, a nephew of the old Sixtus, and the Cardinal Ascanio Sforza, Ludovico's brother—urged for war against Alexander VI.; the Florentine nobles, anticipating Piero's violent measures, hoped for deliverance through the French, and advocated the matter at Lyons, where the court was stationed, and a whole colony of Florentine families had in time settled. Sforza held out the bait of glory and his just claims to the old legitimate possession. The Aragonese, on the other hand, proposed an accommodation. Spain, who would not forsake her belongings, stood at their side; the pope and Piero dei Medici adhered to Naples, and the French nobility were not in favour of an expedition to Italy. Venice remained neutral; still she might gain by the war, and she did not dissuade from it; and this opinion, that something was to be gained, gradually took possession of all parties, even of those who had at first wished to preserve peace. Spain was a direct gainer from the first. France ceded to King Ferdinand a disputed province, on the condition that he would afford no support to his Neapolitan cousins. Sforza, as lord of Genoa, wished to have Lucca and Pisa again, with all that belonged to them; the Visconti had possessed them of old, and he raised their claims afresh. We have said that were the hopes of Piero dei Medici [that he should be able to make himself duke of Florence]. Pisa hoped to become free. The pope hoped by his alliance with Naples to make the first step towards the attainment of the great plans which he cherished for himself and his sons; he thought one day of dividing Italy among them. The French hoped to conquer Naples, and then to drive away the Turks in a vast crusade. As if for a crusade, the king raised the loan in his own country, which he required for the campaign. The Venetians hoped to bring the coast cities of the Adriatic sea as much as possible under their authority. In the autumn of 1494, Charles of France placed himself at the head of his knights and mercenary troops, and crossed the Alps; whilst his fleet and artillery, the most fearful weapon of the French, went by sea from Marseilles to Genoa." —H. Grimm, *Life of Michael Angelo, v.* 1, *ch.* 3, *sect.* 2.

ALSO IN: T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence, bk.* 8, *ch.* 5.

1492-1503.—Papacy in hands of the Borgias. See PAPACY: 1471-1513.

1494-1496.—Invasion of Charles VIII.—His triumphant march, easy conquest of Naples, and speedy retreat.—Effects of expedition on art and culture of France and Europe.—"On the

ITALY
At the commencement of the
SEVENTH CENTURY.
(Under the dominion of the Lombards.)
The territories retained by the East-Roman Empire are indicated by the shading.
NEUSTRIA
AUSTRIA
KINGDOM OF LOMBARDS
DUCHY OF BENEVENTUM (Lombard)
DUCHY OF SPOLETUM
DUCHY OF ROME
EXARCHATE OF RAVENNA
PENTAPOLIS
SLAVARS
CORSICA
SARDINIA
SICILY
Augusta (Aosta)
Segusia (Susa)
Taurinum (Turin)
Milan
Ticinum (Pavia)
Mantua
Verona
Placentia
Parma
Genoa
Ferrara
Ravenna
Ariminum (Rimini)
Florence
Pisa
Perusia
Spoletum
Ancona
Rome
Gaeta
Naples
Amalfi
Aquileia
Istria
Pola
Salona
Tarentum
Croton
Panormus (Palermo)
Syracuse
SCALE OF MILES.
0 20 50 100 200 MILES.
11,921 E.
The M-N. Co.
Longitude East from Greenwich
ITALY
IN 1492.
Showing the political divisions as they existed immediately prior to the commencement of the period of foreign interference.
SWITZERLAND
TYROL
CARINTHIA
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
REP. OF VENICE
DUCHY OF MILAN
PRINCIPALITY OF PIEDMONT
REP. OF GENOA
DUCHY OF MODENA
PARMA (Under Milan)
MANTUA
Under Milan
TO VENICE (Until 1508)
REP. OF FLORENCE
STATE OF THE CHURCH
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
TURKISH EMPIRE
VENETIAN POSSESSIONS
DALMATIA
CARNIOLA
ISTRIA
Laibach
Agram
Trieste
Venice
Aosta
Turin
Milan
Pavia
Verona
Mantua
Parma
Ferrara
Genoa
Modena
Ravenna
Rimini
Pola
Lucca
Florence
Pisa
Siena
San Marino
Ancona
Cattaro
Rome
Pontecorvo
Beneventum
Naples
Amalfi
Palermo
SCALE OF MILES.
0 20 50 100 200 MILES.
The M-N. Co.
Longitude East from Greenwich

1st of March [1494] Charles VIII. made his state entry into Lyons, to assume the command of the expedition; an advanced guard under the Scotchman d'Aubigny was already pushing towards the Neapolitan frontier, and the Duke of Orleans was at Genoa. The Neapolitans on their side sent the Prince of Altamura with 30 galleys towards Genoa, while the Duke of Calabria, an inexperienced youth, entered the Pontifical States, under the guidance of tried generals. . . . The Pope seemed to have lost his head, and no longer knew what course to adopt. . . . Charles the VIII., having passed the Monginevra, entered Asti in the first days of September. He soon received intelligence that Don Frederico and the Neapolitan fleet had been repulsed with heavy losses before Porto Venere, and that the Duke of Orleans and his Swiss had entered Rapallo, sacked the place, and put all the inhabitants, even the sick in the hospital, to the sword, thereby striking terror into the Italians, who were unaccustomed to carry on war in so sanguinary a fashion. On reaching Piacenza, the king learnt that Gio. Galeazzo, whom he had recently seen at Pavia, had just died there, poisoned, as all men said, by the Moor [Lodovico, the usurping uncle of Gio. Galeazzo the young Duke of Milan, was so called] . . . after celebrating his obsequies at Milan, [he] had entered St. Ambrogio, at the hour indicated by his astrologer, to consecrate the investiture already granted to him by Maximilian, King of the Romans. All this filled the minds of the French with suspicion, almost with terror; they were beginning to understand the nature of their closest ally's good faith. In fact, while Ludovico with one hand collected men and money for their cause, with the other he wove the threads of a league intended to drive them from Italy, when the moment should arrive. . . . Nevertheless the fortunes of the French prospered rapidly. The Duke of Calabria, having entered Romagna, withdrew across the Neapolitan frontier at the first glimpse of D'Aubigny's forces; and the bulk of the French army, commanded by the King in person, marched through the Lunigiana without encountering obstacles of any kind. After taking Fivizanno, sacking it, and putting to the sword the hundred soldiers who defended it, and part of the inhabitants, they pushed on towards Sarzana, through a barren district, between the mountains and the sea, where the slightest resistance might have proved fatal to them. But the small castles, intended for the defence of these valleys yielded one after the other, without any attempt to resist the invaders; and hardly had the siege of Sarzana commenced than Piero dei Medici arrived, frightened out of his senses, surrendered at discretion, and even promised to pay 200,000 ducats. But on Piero's return to Florence, on the 8th of November, he found that the city had risen in revolt, and sent ambassadors to the French King on its own account to offer him an honourable reception; but that at the same time it was making preparations for defence in case of need [see FLORENCE: 1490-1498]. So great was the public indignation that Piero took flight to Venice, where his own ambassador, Soderini, hardly deigned to look at him, having meanwhile declared for the republican government just proclaimed in Florence, where everything had been rapidly changed. The houses of the Medici and their garden at St. Mark had been pillaged, exiles had been recalled and acquitted; a price put on Piero's head and that of his brother, the Cardinal. . . . The fabric, so long and so carefully built up by the Medici, was now suddenly crumbling into dust. On the 17th November Charles VIII., at the head of his formidable army, rode into Florence with his lance in rest, believing that that fact sufficed to make him master of the city. But the Florentines were armed, they had collected 6,000 soldiers within the walls, and they knew perfectly well that, from the vantage posts of towers and houses, they could easily worst an army scattered through the streets. They therefore repulsed the King's insolent proposals, and when he threatened to sound his trumpets, Piero Capponi, tearing up the offered treaty, replied that the Florentines were more ready to ring their bells. Through this firmness equitable terms were arranged. The Republic was to pay 120,000 florins in three quotas; the fortresses, however, were to be speedily restored to her. On the 28th November the French left the city, but not without stealing all that remained of the collection of antiquities in the Medici Palace. . . . Nevertheless the citizens were thankful to be finally delivered alike from old tyrants and new invaders. Having reached Rome, Charles VIII., in order to have done with the Pope, who now seemed inclined for resistance, pointed his guns against the Castle of St. Angelo, and thus matters were soon settled. . . . Scarcely encountering any obstacles, Charles led his army on to Naples." Ferdinand I, or Ferrante, had died on the 25th of January, 1494, and had been succeeded by his son Alfonso II., a prince more cruel and more hated than himself. The latter now renounced the throne in favor of his son, Ferdinand II, and fled to Sicily. "Ferdinand II., or Ferrandino, as he was called, after vainly seeking aid from all, even from the Turk, made a fruitless stand at Monte San Giovanni, which was taken, destroyed, and all its population put to the sword. . . . Naples rebelled in favour of the French, who marched in on the 22d of February [1495]. The following day Ferrandino fled to Ischia, then to Messina. And shortly the ambassadors of the Italian States appeared to offer congratulations to the conqueror. Now at last the Venetians were aroused, and having sent their envoys to Milan to know if Ludovico were disposed to take up arms to drive out the French, they found him not only ready to do so, but full of indignation. . . . He advised that money should be sent to Spain and to Maximilian, to induce them to attack France; but added that care must be taken not to call them into Italy, 'since having already one fever here, we should then have two.' A league was in fact concluded between the Venetians, Ludovico, the Pope, Spain and Maximilian. . . . The Neapolitans, soon wearied of bad government, had risen in revolt, and Charles VIII. after a stay of only 50 days in Naples had to make his departure with excessive haste, before every avenue of retreat should be cut off, leaving hardly more than 6,000 men in the kingdom, and taking with him a numerous army, which however only numbered 10,000 real combatants. On the 6th of July a pitched battle took place at Fornuovo near the river Taro. The allies had assembled about 30,000 men, three-fourths of whom were Venetians, the rest composed of Ludovico's soldiers and a few Germans sent by Maximilian. . . . The battle was bloody, and it was a disputed question which side obtained the victory; but although the Italians were not repulsed, remaining indeed masters of the field, the French succeeded in cutting their way through, which was the chief object they had in view. . . . Ludovico, taking advantage of the situation, soon made an agreement with the French on his own account, without concerning himself about the Venetians. . . . The fortunes of the

French now declined rapidly in Italy, and all the more speedily owing to their bad government in the Neapolitan kingdom, and their abominable behaviour towards the few friends who had remained faithful to them. . . . Ferdinand II., with the aid of the Spaniards under Gonsalvo di Cordova, advanced triumphantly through Calabria and entered Naples on the 7th of July, 1496. In a short time all the Neapolitan fortresses capitulated, and the French who had held them returned to their own country, more than decimated and in an altogether deplorable condition. On the 6th of October Ferdinand II. breathed his last, worn out by the agitation and fatigues of the war, and was succeeded by his uncle Don Federico, the fifth King [counting Charles VIII of France] who had ascended the Neapolitan throne within the last five years. . . . Naples was now in the absolute power of the Spaniards, who were already maturing their iniquitous designs upon the kingdom; these, however, were only discovered at a later period."—P. Villari, *Machiavelli and his times, v.* 1, *ch.* 4, *sect.* 2.—"In spite of its transitory character the invasion of Charles VIII . . . was a great fact in the history of the Renaissance. It was, to use the pregnant phrase of Michelet, no less than the revelation of Italy to the nations of the North. Like a gale sweeping across a forest of trees in blossom, and bearing their fertilizing pollen, after it has broken and deflowered their branches, to far distant trees that hitherto have bloomed in barrenness, the storm of Charles's army carried far and wide through Europe thought-dust, imperceptible, but potent to enrich the nations. The French, alone, says Michelet, understood Italy. . . . From the Italians the French communicated to the rest of Europe what we call the movement of the Renaissance. There is some truth in this panegyric of Michelet's. The passage of the army of Charles VIII. marks a turning point in modern history, and from this epoch dates the diffusion of a spirit of culture over Europe."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: Age of the despots, ch.* 9.—See also FRANCE: 1492-1515.

ALSO IN: P. Villari, *History of Savonarola and his times, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 1-3.—J. Dennistoun, *Memoirs of the dukes of Urbino, v.* 1, *ch.* 14-15.—P. de Commines, *Memoirs, bk.* 7-8.—L. von Ranke, *History of the Latin and Teutonic nations from 1494 to 1514, bk.* 1, *ch.* 1.

1494-1503.—Growing power of Venice and jealousies excited by it. See VENICE: 1494-1503.

1494-1509.—French deliverance of Pisa.—Long struggle and Florentine reconquest. See PISA: 1494-1509.

1494-1527.—Machiavelli.—His political career.—"In 1494 the date of the expulsion of the Medici, Machiavelli [1469-1527] was admitted to the Chancery of the Commune as a clerk; and in 1498 he was appointed to the post of chancellor and secretary to *Dieci di libertà e pace.* This place he held for the better half of fifteen years; that is to say, during the whole period of Florentine freedom. His diplomatic missions undertaken at the instance of the Republic were very numerous. . . . We find him at the camp of Cesare Borgia in 1502, in France in 1504, with Julius II. in 1506, with the Emperor Maximilian in 1507, and again at the French Court in 1510. To this department of his public life belong the despatches and Relazioni which he sent home to the Signory of Florence, his Monograph upon the Massacre of Sinigaglia, his treatises upon the method of dealing with Pisa, Pistoja, and Valdichiana, and those two remarkable studies of foreign nations which are entitled 'Ritratti delle Cose dell' Alemagna' and 'Ritratti delle Cose di Francia.' It was also in the year 1500 that he laid the first foundations of his improved military system. [See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 34.] . . . When Prato had been sacked in 1512, the Florentines, destitute of troops, divided among themselves, and, headed by the excellent but hesitating Piero Soderini, threw their gates open to the Medici. Giuliano, the brother of Pope Leo, and Lorenzo, his nephew, whose statues sit throned in the immortality of Michael Angelo's marble upon their tombs in San Lorenzo, disposed of the Republic at their pleasure. Machiavelli, as War Secretary of the anti-Medicean government, was of course disgraced and deprived of his appointments. In 1513 he was suspected of complicity in the conjuration of Pietropaolo Boscoli and Agostino Capponi, was imprisoned in the Bargello, and tortured."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy, pp.* 244-245, 247.—"Two of his most important works the *Discourses on the First*

NICCOLO MACHIAVELLI

Ten Books of Livy and *Il Principe* [The Prince], were both probably composed, or begun, in this year (1513). . . . When after the sack of Rome, and the renewed expulsion of the Medici (1527), he hastened to Florence in evident hope of re-election as Secretary to the re-established Republic he was treated with, perhaps, justifiable suspicion and neglect. In June of the same year he died."—H. B. Cotterill, *Italy from Dante to Tasso, p.* 505.—See also ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1450-1595; HISTORY: 22.

1499-1500.—Invasion and conquest of Milan by Louis XII of France.—His claim in right of Valentine Visconti.—Charles VIII died in April, 1498, and was succeeded by Louis of Orleans, who ascended the throne as Louis XII. On his coronation, Louis XII. "assumed, besides his title of King of France, the titles of King of Naples and of Jerusalem, and Duke of Milan. This was as much as to say that he would pursue . . . a warlike and adventurous policy abroad. . . . By his policy at home Louis XII. deserved and obtained the name of 'Father of the People'; by his enterprises and wars abroad he involved France still

more deeply than Charles VIII. had in that mad course of distant, reckless, and incoherent conquests for which his successor, Francis I., was destined to pay by capture at Pavia and by the lamentable treaty of Madrid, in 1526, as the price of his release. . . . Outside of France, Milaness (the Milanese district) was Louis XII.'s first thought, at his accession, and the first object of his desire. He looked upon it as his patrimony. His grandmother, Valentine Visconti, widow of that Duke of Orleans who had been assassinated at Paris in 1407 by order of John the Fearless, Duke of Burgundy, had been the last to inherit the duchy of Milan, which the Sforzas, in 1450, had seized. When Charles VIII. invaded Italy in 1494, 'Now is the time,' said Louis, 'to enforce the rights of Valentine Visconti, my grandmother, to Milaness.' And he, in fact, asserted them openly, and proclaimed his intention of vindicating them so soon as he found the moment propitious. When he became king, his chance of success was great. The Duke of Milan, Ludovic, the Moor, had by his sagacity and fertile mind, by his taste for arts and sciences and the intelligent patronage he bestowed upon them, by his ability in speaking, and by his facile character, obtained in Italy a position far beyond his real power. . . . Ludovic was, nevertheless, a turbulent rascal and a greedy tyrant. . . . He had, moreover, embroiled himself with his neighbours, the Venetians, who were watching for an opportunity of aggrandizing themselves at his expense." Louis XII promptly concluded a treaty with Venice, which provided for the making of war in common upon the duke of Milan, to recover the patrimony of the king—the Venetians to receive Cremona and certain forts and territory adjacent as their share of the expected spoils. "In the month of August, 1499, the French army, with a strength of from 20,000 to 25,000 men, of whom 5,000 were Swiss, invaded Milaness. Duke Ludovic Sforza opposed to it a force pretty near equal in number but far less full of confidence and of far less valour. In less than three weeks the duchy was conquered; in only two cases was any assault necessary; all the other places were given up by traitors or surrendered without a show of resistance. The Venetians had the same success on the eastern frontier of the duchy. . . . Louis was at Lyons when he heard of his army's victory in Milaness and of Ludovic Sforza's flight. He was eager to go and take possession of his conquest, and, on the 6th of October, 1499, he made his triumphal entry into Milan amidst cries of 'Hurrah! for France.' He reduced the heavy imposts established by the Sforzas, revoked the vexatious game-laws, instituted at Milan a court of justice analogous to the French parliaments, loaded with favours the scholars and artists who were the honour of Lombardy, and recrossed the Alps at the end of some weeks, leaving as governor of Milaness John James Trivulzio, the valiant Condottiere, who, four years before, had quitted the service of Ferdinand II., King of Naples, for that of Charles VIII. Unfortunately Trivulzio was himself a Milanese and of the faction of the Guelphs. He had the passions of a partisan and the habits of a man of war; and he soon became as tyrannical and as much detested in Milaness as Ludovic the Moor had but lately been. A plot was formed in favour of the fallen tyrant, who was in Germany expecting it, and was recruiting, during expectancy, amongst the Germans and Swiss, in order to take advantage of it. On the 25th of January, 1500, the insurrection broke out; and two months later Ludovic Sforza had once more became master of Milaness, where the French possessed nothing but the castle of Milan. . . . Louis XII., so soon as he heard of the Milanese insurrection, sent into Italy Louis de la Trémoille, the best of his captains, and the Cardinal d'Amboise, his privy councillor and his friend. . . . The campaign did not last long. The Swiss who had been recruited by Ludovic and those who were in Louis XII.'s service had no mind to fight one another; and the former capitulated, surrendered the strong place of Novara, and promised to evacuate the country on condition of a safe-conduct for themselves and their booty." Ludovic attempted flight in disguise, but fell into the hands of the French and remained in captivity, at the castle of Loches, in Touraine, during the remainder of his life—eight years. "And 'thus was the duchy of Milan, within seven months and a half, twice conquered by the French,' says John d'Auton in his 'Chronique,' 'and for the nonce was ended the war in Lombardy, and the authors thereof were captives and exiles.' "—F. P. Guizot, *Popular history of France, ch.* 27.

Also in: A. M. F. Robinson, *End of the Middle Ages: Valentine Visconti.*—Idem, *French claim to Milan.*—E Walford, *Story of the Chevalier Bayard, ch.* 3-4.

1499-1507.—Cesare Borgia.—His plans for extending his principality.—"Among the eminent examples of Italian founders who rose to princely power by their own ability or by availing themselves of the advantages which fortune put within their reach . . . [are] Francesco Sforza and Cesare Borgia [1476-1507]. . . . Cesare, being a Pope's son, had nothing to look to but the influence of his father. At first he designed to use this influence in the Church; but after murdering his elder brother, he threw aside the Cardinal's scarlet and proclaimed himself a political aspirant. His father could not make him lord of any state, unless it were a portion of the territory of the Church; and though, by creating, as he did, twelve Cardinals in one day, he got the Sacred College to sanction his investiture of the Duchy of Romagna, yet both Venice and Milan were opposed to this scheme. Again there was a difficulty to be encountered in the great baronial houses of Orsini and Colonna, who at that time headed all the mercenary troops of Italy, and who, as Roman nobles, had a natural hatred for the Pope. It was necessary to use their aid in the acquisition of Cesare's principality. It was no less needful to humour their animosity. Under these circumstances Alexander thought it best to invite the French king into Italy, bargaining with Louis that he would dissolve his marriage in return for protection awarded to Cesare. The Colonna faction meanwhile was to be crushed, and the Orsini to be flattered. Cesare, by the help of his French allies and the Orsini captains, took possession of Imola and Faenza, and thence proceeded to overrun Romagna [1499]. In this enterprise he succeeded to the full. Romagna had been, from the earliest period of Italian history, a nest of petty tyrants who governed badly and who kept no peace in their dominions. Therefore the towns were but languid in their opposition to Cesare, and were soon more than contented with a conqueror who introduced a good system for the administration of justice. But now two difficulties arose. The subjugation of Romagna had been effected by the help of the French and the Orsini. Cesare as yet had formed no militia of his own, and his allies were becoming suspicious. The Orsini had shown some slackness at Faenza; and when Cesare proceeded to make himself master of Urbino, and to place a foot in Tuscany by

the capture of Piombino—which conquests he completed during 1500 and 1501—Louis began to be jealous of him. The problem for the Duke was how to disembarrass himself of the two forces by which he had acquired a solid basis for his future principality. His first move was to buy over the Cardinal d'Amboise, whose influence in the French Court was supreme, and thus to keep his credit for awhile afloat with Louis. His second was to neutralise the power of the Orsini, partly by pitting them against the Colonnesi, and partly by superseding them in their command as captains. For the latter purpose he became his own Condottiere, drawing to his standard by the lure of splendid pay all the minor gentry of the Roman Campagna. Thus he collected his own forces, and was able to dispense with the unsafe aid of mercenary troops. At this point of his career the Orsini, finding him established in Romagna, in Urbino, and in part of Tuscany, while their own strength was on the decline, determined if possible to check the career of this formidable tyrant by assassination. The conspiracy known as the 'Diet of La Magione' was the consequence. In this conjuration the Cardinal Orsini, Paolo Orsini, his brother and head of the great house, together with Vitellozzo Vitelli, lord of Città di Castello, the Baglione of Perugia, the Bentivoglio of Bologna, Antonio da Venasso from Siena, and Oliverotto da Fermo took each a part. The result of their machinations against the common foe was that Cesare for a moment lost Urbino, and was nearly unseated in Romagna. But the French helped him, and he stood firm. Still it was impossible to believe that Louis XII. would suffer him to advance unchecked in his career of conquest; and as long as he continued between the French and the Orsini his position was of necessity insecure. The former had to be cast off; the latter to be extirpated: and as yet he had not force enough to play an open game. 'He therefore,' says Machiavelli, 'turned to craft, and displayed such skill in dissimulation that the Orsini through the mediation of Paolo became his friends again.' The cruelty of Cesare Borgia was only equalled by his craft; and it was by a supreme exercise of his power of fascination that he lured the foes who had plotted against him at La Magione into his snare at Sinigaglia. Paolo Orsini, Francesco Orsini, duke of Gravina, Vitellozzo Vitelli, and Oliverotto da Fermo were all men of arms, accustomed to intrigue and to bloodshed, and more than one of them were stained with crimes of the most atrocious treachery. Yet such were the arts of Cesare Borgia that in 1502 he managed to assemble them, apart from their troops, in the castle of Sinigaglia, where he had them strangled. Having now destroyed the chiefs of the opposition and enlisted their forces in his own service, Cesare, to use the phrase of Machiavelli, 'had laid good foundations for his future power.' He commanded a sufficient territory; he wielded the temporal and spiritual power of his father; he was feared by the princes and respected by the people throughout Italy; his cruelty and perfidy and subtlety and boldness caused him to be universally admired. But as yet he had only laid foundations. The empire of Italy was still to win; for he aspired to nothing else, and it is even probable that he entertained a notion of secularising the Papacy. France was the chief obstacle to his ambition. The alarm of Louis had at last been roused. But Louis' own mistake in bringing the Spaniards into Naples afforded Cesare the means of shaking off the French control. He espoused the cause of Spain, and by intriguing now with the one power and now with the other made himself both formidable and desirable to each. His geographical position between Milan and Naples enforced this policy. Another difficulty against which he had to provide was in the future rather than the present. Should his father die, and a new Pope adverse to his interests be elected, he might lose not only the support of the Holy See, but also his fiefs of Romagna and Urbino. To meet this contingency he took four precautions. . . . In the first place he systematically murdered the heirs of the ruling families of all the cities he acquired—as for example three Varani at Camerino, two Manfredi at Faenza, the Orsini and Vitelli at Sinigaglia, and others whom it would be tedious to mention. By this process he left no scion of the ancient houses for a future Pope to restore. In the second place he attached to his person, by pensions, offices, and emoluments, all the Roman gentry, so that he might be able to keep the new Pope a prisoner and unarmed in Rome. Thirdly, he reduced the College of Cardinals, by bribery, terrorism, poisoning, and packed elections, to such a state that he could count on the creation of a Pope, if not his nominee, at least not hostile to his interests. Fourthly, he lost no time, but pushed his plans of conquest on with the utmost speed, so as, if possible, to command a large territory at the time of Alexander's death. Machiavelli, who records these four points with approbation, adds: 'He, therefore, who finds it needful in his new authority to secure himself against foes, to acquire allies, to gain a point by force or fraud, &c., &c., could not discover an ensample more vigorous and blooming than that of Cesare.' Such is the panegyric which Machiavelli . . . records of a man who, taken altogether, is perhaps the most selfish, perfidious, and murderous of adventurers on record."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy, pp.* 271-272, 274-278.
—See also PAPACY: 1471-1513.

16th century.—Historiography.—Work of Machiavelli, Guicciardini, Baronius and Sarpi. See HISTORY: 22; 23.

1500-1600.—Renaissance.—Political and moral decline.—Italian art and its relation to the social history of the country.—"At the end of the fifteenth century, Italy was the centre of European civilization: while the other nations were still plunged in a feudal barbarism which seems almost as far removed from all our sympathies as is the condition of some American or Polynesian savages, the Italians appear to us as possessing habits of thought, a mode of life, political, social, and literary institutions, not unlike those of to-day; as men whom we can thoroughly understand, whose ideas and aims, whose general views, resemble our own in that main, indefinable characteristic of being modern. They had shaken off the morbid monastic ways of feeling, they had thrown aside the crooked scholastic modes of thinking, they had trampled under foot the feudal institutions of the Middle Ages; no symbolical mists made them see things vague, strange, and distorted; their intellectual atmosphere was as clear as our own, and, if they saw less than we do, what they did see appeared to them in its true shape and proportions. Almost for the first time since the ruin of antique civilization, they could show well-organized, well-defined States; artistically disciplined armies; rationally devised laws; scientifically conducted agriculture; and widely extended, intelligently undertaken commerce. For the first time, also, they showed regularly built, healthy, and commodious towns; well-drained fields; and, more important than all, hundreds of miles of country owned not by feudal lords, but by citizens; cultivated not

by serfs, but by free peasants. While in the rest of Europe men were floundering among the stagnant ideas and crumbling institutions of the effete Middle Ages, with but a vague half-consciousness of their own nature, the Italians walked calmly through a life as well arranged as their great towns, bold, inquisitive, and sceptical: modern administrators, modern soldiers, modern politicians, modern financiers, scholars and thinkers. Towards the end of the fifteenth century Italy seemed to have obtained the philosophic, literary, and artistic inheritance of Greece; the administrative, legal, and military inheritance of Rome, increased threefold by her own strong, original, essentially modern activities. Yet, at that very time, and almost in proportion as all these advantages developed, the moral vitality of the Italians was rapidly decreasing, and a horrible moral gangrene beginning to spread: liberty was extinguished; public good faith seemed to be dying out; even private morality flickered ominously; every free State became subject to a despot, always unscrupulous and often infamous; warfare became a mere pretext for the rapine and extortions of mercenaries; diplomacy grew to be a mere swindle; the humanists inoculated literature with the filthiest refuse cast up by antiquity; nay, even civic and family ties were loosened; assassinations and fratricides began to abound, and all law, human and divine, to be set at defiance. . . . The men of the Renaissance had to pay a heavy price for . . . intellectual freedom and self-cognizance, which they not only enjoyed themselves, but transmitted to the rest of the world; the price was the loss of all moral standard, of all fixed public feeling. The had thrown aside all accepted rules and criteria, they had cast away all faith in traditional institutions, they had destroyed and could not yet rebuild. In their instinctive and universal disbelief in all that had been taught them, they lost all respect for opinion, for rule, for what had been called right and wrong. Could it be otherwise? Had they not discovered that what had been called right had often been unnatural, and what had been called wrong often natural? Moral teachings, remonstrances, and judgments belonged to that dogmatism from which they had broken loose; to those schools and churches where the foolish and the unnatural had been taught and worshiped; to those priests and monks who themselves most shamefully violated their teachings. To profess morality was to be a hypocrite; to reprobate others was to be narrow-minded. There was so much error mixed up with truth that truth had to share the discredit of error."—V. Lee, *Euphorion, v.* I, *pp.* 27-29, 47-48.

—"The conditions under which the Italians performed their task in the Renaissance were such as seem at first sight unfavourable to any great achievement. Yet it is probable that, the end in view being the stimulation of mental activity, no better circumstances than they enjoyed could have been provided. Owing to a series of adverse accidents, and owing also to their own instinctive preference for local institutions, they failed to attain the coherence and the centralised organisation which are necessary to a nation as we understand that word. Their dismemberment among rival communities proved a fatal source of political and military weakness, but it developed all their intellectual energies by competition to the utmost. At the middle of the fifteenth century their communes had lost political liberty, and were ruled by despots. Martial spirit declined. Wars were carried on by mercenaries; and the people found itself in a state of practical disarmament, when the neighboring nations quarrelled for the prize of those rich provinces. At the same time society underwent a rapid moral deterioration. When Machiavelli called Italy 'the corruption of the world,' he did not speak rhetorically. An impure and worldly clergy; an irreligious, though superstitious, laity; a self-indulgent and materialistic middle class; an idle aristocracy, excluded from politics and unused to arms; a public given up to pleasure and money-getting; a multitude of scholars, devoted to trifles, and vitiated by studies which clashed with the ideals of Christianity—from such elements in the nation proceeded a widely-spread and ever-increasing degeneracy. Public energy, exhausted by the civil wars and debilitated by the arts of the tyrants, sank deep and deeper into the lassitude of acquiescent lethargy. Religion expired in laughter, irony and licence. Domestic simplicity yielded to vice, whereof the records are precise and unmistakable. The virile virtues disappeared. What survived of courage assumed the forms of ruffianism, ferocity and treasonable daring. Still, simultaneously with this decline in all the moral qualities which constitute a powerful people, the Italians brought their arts and some departments of their literature to a perfection that can only be paralleled by ancient Greece. The anomaly implied in this statement is striking; but it is revealed to us by evidence too overwhelming to be rejected. . . . It was through art that the creative instincts of the people found their true and adequate channel of expression. Paramount over all other manifestations of the epoch, fundamental beneath all, penetrative to the core of all, is the artistic impulse. The slowly self-consolidating life of a great kingdom, concentrating all elements of national existence by the centripetal force of organic unity, was wanting. Commonwealths and despotisms, representing a more imperfect stage of political growth, achieved completion and decayed. But art survived this disintegration of the medieval fabric; and in art the Italians found the cohesion denied them as a nation. While speaking thus of art, it is necessary to give a wide extension to that word. It must be understood to include literature. . . . We are justified in regarding the literary masterpieces of the sixteenth century as the fullest and most representative expression of the Italian temperament at the climax of its growth. The literature of the golden age implies humanism, implies painting. . . . It is not only possible but right to speak of Italy collectively when we review her work in the Renaissance. Yet it should not be forgotten that Italy at this time was a federation, presenting upon a miniature scale the same diversities in her component parts as the nations of Europe do now. . . . At the beginning of such a review, we cannot fail to be struck with the predominance of Florence. The superiority of the Tuscans was threefold. In the first place, they determined the development of art in all its branches. In the second place, they gave a language to Italy, which, without obliterating the local dialects, superseded them in literature when the right moment for intellectual community arrived. That moment, in the third place, was rendered possible by the humanistic movement, which began at Florence. . . . What the Lombards and Venetians produced in fine art and literature was of a later birth. Yet the novelists of Lombardy, the Latin lyrists of Garda, the school of romantic and dramatic poets at Ferrara, the group of sculptors and painters assembled in Milan by the Sforza dynasty, the maccaronic Muse of Mantua, the unrivalled magnificence of painting at Venice, the transient splendour of the Parmese masters, the

wit of Modena, the learning of the princes of Mirandola and Carpi, must be catalogued among the most brilliant and characteristic manifestations of Italian genius. In pure literature Venice contributed but little. . . . Her place, as the home of Aldo's Greek press, and as the refuge for adventurers like Aretino and Folengo, when the rest of Italy was yielding to reactionary despotism, has to be commemorated. . . . The Romans who advanced Italian culture, were singularly few. The work of Rome was done almost exclusively by aliens, drawn for the most part from Tuscany and Lombardy. After Frederick II.'s brilliant reign, the Sicilians shared but little in the intellectual activity of the nation."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: Italian literature, ch.* 17.—See also EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Renaissance from various points of view; ARCHITECTURE: Renaissance: Italy; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1450-1595; PAINTING: Italian; SCULPTURE: High Renaissance; VENICE: 16th century.

1501-1504.—Perfidious treaty for partition of Naples between Louis XII of France and Ferdinand of Aragon.—Their joint conquest.—Their quarrel and war.—French expelled.—Spaniards in possession.—"In the spring of 1501, the French army was ready to pursue its march to Naples. King Frederick, alarmed at the storm which was gathering round his head, had some months before renewed the propositions formerly made by his father Ferdinand to Charles VIII.; namely, to acknowledge himself a feudatory of France, to pay an annual tribute, and to pledge several maritime towns as security for the fulfilment of these conditions. Louis, however, would not hear of these liberal offers, although Ferdinand the Catholic [of Aragon] undertook to guarantee the payment of the tribute proffered by Frederick, and strongly remonstrated against the contemplated expedition of the French King. Ferdinand finding that he could not divert Louis from his project, proposed to him to divide Naples between them, and a partition was arranged by a treaty concluded between the two monarchs at Granada, November 11th, 1500. Naples, the Terra di Lavoro, and the Abruzzi were assigned to Louis, with the title of King of Naples and Jerusalem; while Ferdinand was to have Calabria and Apulia with the title of Duke." This perfidious arrangement was kept secret, of course, from Frederick. "Meanwhile the forces of Ferdinand, under Gonsalvo of Cordova [the 'Great Captain,' as he was styled after his Italian campaign], were admitted as friends into the Neapolitan fortresses, which they afterwards held as enemies. Frederick opened to them without suspicion his ports and towns, and thus became the instrument of his own ruin. The unhappy Frederick had in vain looked around for assistance. He had paid the Emperor Maximilian 40,000 ducats to make a diversion in his favour by attacking Milan, but Maximilian was detached from the Neapolitan alliance by a counter bribe, and consented to prolong the truce with France. Frederick had then had recourse to Sultan Bajazet II., with as little effect; and this application only served to throw an odium on his cause. . . . The French army, which did not exceed 13,000 men, began its march towards Naples about the end of May, 1501, under the command of Stuart d'Aubigny, with Cæsar Borgia [son of Pope Alexander VI] for his lieutenant. When it arrived before Rome, June 25th, the French and Spanish ambassadors acquainted the Pope with the treaty of Granada, and the contemplated partition of Naples, in which the suzerainty of this kingdom was guaranteed to the Holy See; a communication which Alexander received with more surprise than displeasure, and he proceeded at once to invest the Kings of France and Aragon with the provinces which they respectively claimed. Attacked in front by the French, in the rear by Gonsalvo, Frederick did not venture to take the field. He cantoned his troops in Naples, Averso, and Capua, of which the last alone made any attempt at defence. It was surprised by the French while in the act of treating for a capitulation (July 24th), and was subjected to the most revolting cruelty; 7,000 of the male inhabitants were massacred in the streets; the women were outraged; and forty of the handsomest reserved for Borgia's harem at Rome; where they were in readiness to amuse the Court at the extraordinary and disgusting fête given at the fourth marriage of Lucretia. Rather than expose his subjects to the horrors of a useless war, Frederick entered into negociations with

GONZALO DE CORDOVA

d'Aubigny, with the view of surrendering himself to Louis XII. . . . In October, 1501, he sailed for France with a small squadron, which remained to him. In return for his abandonment of the provinces assigned to the French King, he was invested with the county of Maine, and a life pension of 30,000 ducats, on condition that he should not attempt to quit France; a guard was set over him to enforce the latter proviso, and this excellent prince died in captivity in 1504. Meanwhile Gonsalvo of Cordova was proceeding with the reduction of Calabria and Apulia. . . . The Spaniards entered Taranto March 1st, 1502; the other towns of southern Italy were soon reduced, and the Neapolitan branch of the House of Aragon fell for ever, after reigning 65 years. In the autumn of 1501, Louis had entered into negociations with the Emperor, in order to obtain formal investiture of the Duchy of Milan. With this view, Louis's daughter Claude, then only two years of age, was affianced to Charles [afterwards the Emperor Charles V], grandson of Maximilian, the infant child of the Archduke Philip and Joanna of Aragon. A treaty was subsequently signed at Trent, October 13th, 1501, by Maximilian and the Cardinal d'Amboise, to which the Spanish sovereigns and the Archduke Philip were also parties. By this instrument Louis engaged, in return for the investiture of Milan, to recognise the preten-

sions of the House of Austria to Hungary and Bohemia, and to second Maximilian in an expedition which he contemplated against the Turks. It was at this conference that those schemes against Venice began to be agitated, which ultimately produced the League of Cambray. The treaty between Louis and Ferdinand for the partition of Naples was so loosely drawn, that it seemed purposely intended to produce the quarrels which occurred." Disputes arose as to the possession of a couple of provinces, and the Spaniards were driven out. "In the course of 1502 the Spaniards were deprived of everything, except Barletta and a few towns on the coast of Bari. It was in the combats round this place that Bayard, by his deeds of courage and generosity, won his reputation as the model of chivalry, and became the idol of the French soldiery." The crafty and unscrupulous king of Aragon now amused Louis with the negotiation of a treaty for the relinquishment of the whole Neapolitan domain to the lately affianced infants, Charles of Austria and Claude of France, while he diligently reinforced the "Great Captain." Then "Gonsalvo suddenly resumed the offensive with extraordinary vigour and rapidity, and within a week two decisive battles were fought"—at Seminara, in Calabria, April 21, 1503, and at Cerignola, near Barletta, April 28. In the last named battle the French army was dispersed and almost destroyed. On the 14th of May, Gonsalvo entered Naples, and by the end of July the French had completely evacuated the Neapolitan territory. The king of France made prompt preparations for vigorous war, not only in Naples but in Spain itself, sending two armies to the Pyrenees and one across the Alps. The campaign of the latter was ruined by Cardinal d'Amboise, who stopped its march near Rome, to support his candidacy for the papal chair, just vacated by the death of Alexander VI. Malaria made havoc in the ranks of the French, and they were badly commanded. They advanced to the seat of war in October, and forced the passage of the Garigliano, November 9. "Here their progress was arrested. . . . The seasons themselves were hostile to the French; heavy rains set in with a constancy quite unusual in that climate; and the French soldiers perished by hundreds in the mud and swamps of the Garigliano. The Spanish army, encamped near Sessa, was better supplied and better disciplined; and at length, after two months of inaction, Gonsalvo, having received some reinforcements, assumed the offensive, and in his turn crossed the river. The French, whose quarters were widely dispersed, were not prepared for this attack, and attempted to fall back upon Gaeta; but their retreat soon became a disorderly flight; many threw down their arms without striking a blow; and hence the affair has sometimes been called the rout of the Garigliano [December 29, 1503]. Peter de' Medici, who was following the French army, perished in this retreat. . . . Very few of the French army found their way back to France. Gaeta surrendered at the first summons, January 1st, 1504. This was the most important of all Gonsalvo's victories, as it completed the conquest of Naples. The two attacks on Spain had also miscarried. . . . A truce of five months was concluded, November 15th, which was subsequently converted into a peace of three years." —T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe, v.* 1, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 5-6.

Also in: L. von Ranke, *History of the Latin and Teutonic nations from 1494-1514, bk.* 1, *ch.* 4; *bk.* 2, *ch.* 1.—T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence, v.* 4, *bk.* 9, *ch.* 8-9.—M. J. Ouintana, *Great captain* (*Lives of celebrated Spaniards*)—G. P. R. James, *Memoirs of great commanders, v.* 1: *Gonzalvez de Cordoba.*—L. Larchey, *History of Bayard, bk.* 2.

1504-1506.—Treaties of Blois.—Tortuous diplomacy of Louis XII.—His double renunciation of Naples.—"There was danger [to Louis XII of France] that the loss of the Milanese should follow that of the kingdom of Naples. Maximilian was already preparing to assert his imperial rights beyond the Alps, and Gonsalvo de Cordova was marching toward the northern part of the peninsula. Louis XII. divided and disarmed his enemies by three treaties, signed at Blois on the same day (1504). By the first Louis and Maximilian agreed to attack Venice, and to divide the spoil; by the second Louis promised the king of the Romans 200,000 francs in return for the investiture of the Milanese; by the third he renounced the kingdom of Naples in favor of Maximilian's grandson Charles, who was to marry Claude, daughter of Louis XII. and receive as her dowry three French provinces,—Burgundy, Brittany, and Blois. A more disastrous agreement could not have been made. Charles was to obtain by inheritance from his father, Philip the Handsome, the Netherlands; from his mother, Castile; from his paternal grandfather, Austria; from his maternal grandfather, Aragon. And now he was assured of Italy, and France was to be dismembered for him. This was virtually giving him the empire of Europe. France protested, and Louis XII. seized the first occasion to respond to her wishes. He found it in 1505, when Ferdinand the Catholic married Germaine de Foix, niece of Louis XII. Louis by treaty made a second cession of his rights over the kingdom of Naples to his niece, thus breaking one of the principal conditions of his treaty with Maximilian. He convoked the States-General at Tours in order openly to break the others (1506). The Assembly declared that the fundamental law of the state did not permit alienations of the domains of the crown, and besought the king to give his daughter in marriage to his heir presumptive, Francis, Duke of Angoulême, in order to insure the integrity of the territory and the independence of France. Louis XII. found little difficulty in acceding to their request. Maximilian and Ferdinand were at the time unable to protest."—V. Duruy, *History of France, ch.* 38.

1508-1509.—League of Cambrai against Venice.—Continental provinces of republic torn away. See Venice: 1508-1509.

1510-1513.—Dissolution of League of Cambrai and formation of Holy League against France.—French expelled from Milan and all Italy.—Restoration of the Medici.—Recovery of Venetian territories.—As the League of Cambrai began to weaken and fall in pieces, the vigorous republic of Venice "came forth again, retook Padua, and kept it through a long and terrible siege, at last forcing the Emperor to withdraw and send back his French allies. The Venetians recovered Vicenza, and threatened Verona; Maximilian, once more powerless, appealed to France to defend his conquests. Thus things stood [1510] when Julius II. made peace with Venice and began to look round him for allies against Louis XII. He negotiated with the foreign kings; but that was only in order thereby to neutralise their influence, sowing discord among them; it was on the Swiss mercenaries that he really leant. Now that he had gained all he wanted on the northern frontier of the States of the Church, he thought that he might safely undertake the high duty of protecting Italy against the foreigner: he would accomplish what Cæsar Borgia had but dreamed of

doing, he would chase the Barbarian from the sacred soil of culture. . . . He 'thanked God,' when he heard of the death of the Cardinal of Amboise, 'that now he was pope alone!' . . . He at once set himself to secure the Swiss, and found a ready and capable agent in Matthew Schynner, Bishop of Sion in the Valais. . . . Bishop Schynner was rewarded for this traffic with a cardinal's hat. And now, deprived by death of the guiding hand [of Cardinal d'Amboise], Louis XII. began to follow a difficult and dangerous line of policy: he called a National Council at Tours, and laid before it, as a case of conscience, the question whether he might make war on the Pope. The Council at once declared for the King, distinguishing, as well they might under Julius II., between the temporal and the spiritual in the Papacy, and declaring that any papal censure that might be launched would be null and void. Above all, an appeal was made to a General Council. . . . Meanwhile war went on in Italy. A broadly-planned attack on the Milanese, on Genoa, and Ferrara, concerted by Julius II. with the Venetians and Swiss, had come to nothing. Now the warlike Pontiff—one knows his grim face from Raphael's picture, and his nervous grasp of the arms of his chair, as though he were about to spring forward into action—took the field in person. At Bologna he fell ill; they thought he would die; and Chaumont of Amboise was marching up with the French at his heels to surround and take him there. But by skilful treating with the French general Julius gained time, till a strong force of Venetians had entered Bologna. Then the Pope rose from his sick-bed, in the dead of winter, and marched out to besiege Mirandola," 1511, which capitulated. "Bayard soon after attacked him, and all but took him prisoner. A congress at Mantua followed: but the Pope sternly refused to make terms with the French: the war must go on. Then Louis took a dangerous step. He convoked an ecclesiastical council at Pisa, and struck a medal to express his contempt and hatred for Julus II. . . . The Pope had gone back to Rome, and Bologna had opened her gates to the French; the coming council, which should depose Julius, was proclaimed through Northern Italy. But, though the moment seemed favourable, nothing but a real agreement of the European powers could give success to such a step. And how far men were from such an agreement Louis was soon to learn; for Julius, finding that the French did not invade the States of the Church, resumed negociations with such success that in October 1511 a 'Holy League' was formed between the Pope, Venice, Ferdinand of Aragon, and Henry VIII. of England. Maximilian wavered and doubted; the Swiss were to be had—on payment. At first Louis showed a bold front; in spite of this strange whirl of the wheel of politics from the League of Cambrai to the Holy League, he persevered, giving the command of Milan to his nephew, Gaston of Foix, Duke of Nemours, a man of 23 years, the most promising of his younger captains. He relieved Bologna, seized Brescia, and pillaged it [1512]; and then pushed on to attack Ravenna; it is said that the booty of Brescia was so great that the French soldiers, having made their fortunes, deserted in crowds, and left the army much weakened. With this diminished force Gaston found himself caught between the hostile walls of Ravenna, and a relieving force of Spaniards, separated from him only by a canal. The Spaniards, after their usual way of warfare made an entrenched camp round their position. The French first tried to take the city by assault; but being driven back, determined to attack the Spanish camp." They made the assault (on Easter day, 1512) and took the camp, with great slaughter; but in his reckless pursuit of the retreating enemy Gaston de Foix was slain. "The death of the young prince more than balanced the great victory of the day: for with Gaston, as Guicciardini says, perished all the vigour of the French army. . . . Though Ravenna was taken, the French could no longer support themselves. Their communications with Milan were threatened by the Swiss: they left garrisons in the strong places and fell back. The council of Pisa also had to take refuge at Milan. When the Swiss came down from their mountain-passes to restore the Sforza dynasty, the harassed council broke up from Milan, and fled to Lyons; there it lingered a while, but it had become contemptible; anon it vanished into thin air. The Pope retook Bologna, Parma, Piacenza; the Medici returned to Florence [see FLORENCE: 1502-1569]; Maximilian Sforza was re-established [see MILAN: 1512], while the Grisons Leagues received the Valteline as their reward: the English annoyed the coast without any decisive result. . . . Ferdinand seized Navarre, which henceforward became Spanish to the Pyrenees. Before winter, not one foot of Italian soil remained to the French. Julius II., the formidable centre of the Alliance, died at this moment (1513). . . . The allies secured the election of a Medicean Pope, Leo X., a pontiff hostile to France, and certain not to reverse that side of his predecessor's policy. . . . Louis, finding himself menaced on every side, suddenly turned about and offered his friendship to Venice. . . . Natural tendencies overbore all resentments on both sides, and a treaty between them both guaranteed the Milanese to Louis and gave him a strong force of Venetian soldiers. Meanwhile, Ferdinand had come to terms with Maximilian and boyish Henry VIII., who . . . had framed a scheme for the overthrow of France. The French king, instead of staying at home to defend his frontiers, was eager to retake Milan, and to join hands with the Venetians. . . . But the Swiss round Maximilian Sforza defended him without fear or treachery; and catching the French troops under La Trémoille in a wretched position not far from Novara, attacked and utterly defeated them (1513). The French withdrew beyond the Alps; the Venetians were driven off with great loss by the Spaniards, who ravaged their mainland territories down to the water's edge. For the short remainder of his life Louis XII. had no leisure again to try his fortunes in Italy; he was too busy elsewhere."—G. W. Kitchin, *History of France, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 3.*

ALSO IN: P. Villari, *Life and times of Machiavelli, v. 3, bk. 1, ch. 12-14.*—M. Creighton, *History of the papacy, v. 4, bk. 5, ch. 15-16.*—L. von Ranke, *History of the Latin and Teutonic nations from 1494 to 1514, bk. 2, ch. 3.*—R. Comyn, *History of the Western empire, v. 2, ch. 37-38.*—L. Larchey, *History of Bayard, bk. 2, ch. 21-44.*—H. E. Napier, *Florentine history, v. 4, bk. 2, ch. 9.*

1515-1516.—Invasion and reconquest of Milan by Francis I.—His treaty with the pope. See FRANCE: 1515; 1515-1518.

1516-1517.—Abortive attempt against Milan by Emperor Maximilian.—His peace with Venice and surrender of Verona. See FRANCE: 1516-1517.

1520-1542.—Early Reformation movements and their want of popular support.—Council of Trent. See PAPACY: 1537-1563.

1521-1522.—Re-expulsion of French from Milan.—Treason of the Constable Bourbon.—His appointment to command of imperial army. See FRANCE: 1520-1523.

1523-1527.—Double dealings of Pope Clement VII.—Invasion of Milanese by Francis I and his defeat and capture at Pavia.—Holy League against Charles V.—Attack on Rome by Constable Bourbon.—Giulio de' Medici, natural son of Giuliano de' Medici, and cousin of Leo X., had succeeded Adrian VI in the papacy in 1523, under the name of Clement VII. "Nothing could have been more unfortunate than the new Pope's first steps on the zig-zag path which he proposed to follow. Becoming alarmed at the preponderating power of Charles [the Fifth, emperor, king of Spain and Naples, duke of Burgundy, and ruler of all the Netherlands,—see AUSTRIA: 1496-1526; GERMANY: 1519], in 1524 he entered into a league with Francis [the First, king of France]; but scarcely had this been concluded when the memorable battle of Pavia [see FRANCE: 1523-1525], resulting in the entire defeat of the French, on the 24th of February, 1525, and the captivity of the French king, frightened him back again into seeking anew the friendship of Charles, in April of that year. Each of these successive treaties was of course duly sworn to and declared inviolable; but it could hardly be expected that he who exercised the power of annulling other men's oaths would submit to be bound by his own, when the observance of them became inconvenient. Clement accordingly was not prevented by the solemn treaty of April, 1525, from conspiring against his new ally in the July following. The object of this conspiracy was to induce Ferdinando Francesco d'Avalos, Marquis of Pescara, who commanded the army of Charles V. before Milan, to revolt against his sovereign, and join the Italians in an attempt to put an end for ever to Spanish sway in Italy. . . . But the Spanish general had no sooner secured clear evidence of the plans of the conspirators, by pretending to listen to their proposals, than he reported the whole to Charles. The miscarriage of this scheme, and the exposure consequent upon it, necessarily threw the vacillating and terrified Pontiff once more into the arms of Francis. 'The Most Christian'—as the old Italian historians often elliptically call the Kings of France—obtained his release from his Madrid prison by promising on oath, on the 17th of January, 1526, all that Charles, driving a hard bargain, chose to demand of him [see FRANCE: 1525-1526]. And Clement hastened to prove the sincerity of his renewed friendship by a professional contribution to the success of their new alliance, in the welcome shape of a plenary absolution from all observance of the oaths so sworn. . . . On the 22nd of May following [at Cognac], the Pope entered into a formal league with Francis [called 'Holy,' for the reason that the pope was a party to it]. Venice joined her troops to those of the Ecclesiastical States, and they marched together to the support of the Milanese, who had risen in revolt against the Emperor. Assistance had also been promised by Henry of England, who had stipulated, however, that he should not be named as a party to the alliance, but only considered as its protector. This was the most strenuous and most united attempt Italy had yet made to rid herself of the domination of the stranger, and patriotic hopes beat high in several Italian hearts. . . . It may be easily imagined that the 'Most Catholic' monarch [Charles V] felt towards Clement at this time in a manner which led him to distinguish very nicely between the infallible head of the universal Church and the sovereign of the Ecclesiastical States. . . . Though he retained the utmost respect and reverence for the viceregent of heaven, he thought that a little correction administered to the sovereign of Rome would not be amiss, and nothing could be easier than to find means ready to his hand for the infliction of it. The Colonnas were of course ready for a rebellion on the slightest encouragement. . . . So when Don Ugo di Moncada, Charles's general at Naples, proposed to the Colonnas to join him in a little frolic at Clement's expense, the noble and most reverend members of that powerful family jumped at the proposal. . . . The united forces of the Viceroy and the Colonnas accordingly one morning entered Rome, altogether without opposition, and marched at once to the Vatican. They completely sacked, not only the Pope's palace, and the residences of many gentlemen and prelates, but also, says the historian [Varchi], 'with unheard-of avarice and impiety,' robbed the sacristy of St. Peter of everything it contained. Clement had barely time to escape into the castle of St. Angelo; but as he found there neither soldiers nor ammunition, nor even food for above three days, . . . he consented to a treaty by which the Pope agreed to pardon the Colonnas freely for all they had done against him; to take no steps to revenge himself on them; to withdraw his troops from Lombardy; and to undertake nothing in any way, or under any pretext, against the Emperor." As a hostage for the fulfilment of this treaty, Pope Clement gave his dear friend Filippo Strozzi; but no sooner was he delivered from his captors than he hired seven "black companies" of adventurers and 2,000 Swiss, and began a furious war of extermination upon the Colonnas and all their dependents. At the same time he wrote private letters to the heads of his "Holy League," "warning them to pay no heed to any statement respecting a treaty made by him with the Emperor, and assuring them of his intention to carry on the war with the utmost energy." A little later, however, this remarkable Holy Father found it convenient to make another treaty with the viceroy of Naples, for the release of his friend Strozzi, which bound him still more to friendly relations with the emperor. This latter treaty, of March, 1527, "would seem in some sort to imply the reconciliation once again of the pope and the emperor." But Charles had already set forces in motion for the chastisement of the faithless pope and his allies, which either he could not or did not care to arrest. "The Constable Bourbon, whom the gross injustice of Francis I., and the intolerable persecution of his infamous mother, Louise de Savoie, had driven to abandon his country and allegiance [see FRANCE: 1520-1523], . . . [was now] marching southwards, with the imperial troops, to chastise the different members of the League against the Emperor, which Clement, as has been seen, had formed. George Frundsberg, a German leader of reputation, had also crossed the Alps with 15,000 men,—'all Lutherans and Lanzknechts,' as the Italians write with horror and dismay,—and had joined these forces to the Spaniards under Bourbon. . . . The combined force was in all respects more like a rabble rout of brigands and bandits than an army; and was assuredly such as must, even in those days, have been felt to be a disgrace to any sovereign permitting them to call themselves his soldiers. Their pay was, as was often the case with the troops of Charles V., hopelessly in arrear, and discipline was of course proportionately weak among them. . . . The progress southward of this bandit army . . . filled the cities exposed to their inroad with terror and dismay. They had passed like a destroying locust swarm over Bologna and Imola, and crossing the Apennines, which separate Umbria from Tuscany, had descended into the valley of the Arno not far from Arezzo. Florence and Rome both trembled. On

which would the storm burst? That was the all-absorbing question. Pope Clement, with his usual avarice-blinded imbecility, had, immediately on concluding the above-mentioned treaty with the Neapolitan viceroy, discharged all his troops except a body-guard of about 600 men. Florence was nearly in as defenceless a position"; but a small army of the league, under the duke of Urbino, was at Incisa, and it was "probably the presence of his army, little as it had hitherto done to impede the progress of the enemy, which decided Bourbon eventually to determine on marching towards Rome. It seems doubtful how far they were in so doing executing the orders, or carrying out the wishes, of the emperor. . . . Upon the whole we are warranted in supposing that Bourbon and Frundsberg would hardly have ventured on the course they took, if they had not had reason to believe that it would not much displease their master. . . . On the 5th of May [1527] Bourbon arrived beneath the walls of Rome. . . . On the evening of the 6th of May the city was stormed and given over to the unbridled cupidity and brutality of the soldiers. . . . Bourbon himself had fallen in the first moments of the attack."—T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence, v.* 4, *bk.* 10, *ch.* 3.

Also in: T. A. Trollope, *Filippo Strozzi, ch.* 7.—W. Robertson, *History of the reign of Charles V, v.* 2, *bk.* 4.—L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany, bk.* 4, *ch.* 1-3.

1527.—Sack of Rome by Spanish and German imperialists.—Ruin of artistic treasures of Rome.—"Bourbon fell at the first assault; but by evening the Vatican suburb was in the hands of the enemy. Clement, who was even best informed of the state of things, had not anticipated such an issue. He scarcely saved himself by flight from the Vatican to the castle of St. Angelo, whither the fugitive population hurried, as the shipwrecked crew of an entire fleet hastens to a single boat which cannot receive them. In the midst of the thronging stream of men, the portcullis was lowered. Whoever remained without was lost. Benvenuto Cellini was at that time in Rome, and was among the defenders of the walls. He boasted that his ball had destroyed Bourbon. He stole fortunately into the citadel, before it was closed, and entered the Pope's service as bombardier. Even at this last moment, Clement might have saved Rome itself, which, situated on the opposite shore of the river, had not yet been entered by the enemy. They offered to spare it for a ransom; but finding this too high, and awaiting hourly Urbino's army, to which, though nothing was yet to be seen of it, he looked as a deliverer in the time of need, he would hear nothing of it. And thus the undefended city fell into the hands of the imperialists. Almost without resistance they entered Trastevere, a small quarter of the city lying to the west of the Tiber; and then crossing the bridges, which no one had demolished, they pressed forwards into the heart of Rome. It was the depth of the night. Benvenuto Cellini was stationed on the tower of the castle of St. Angelo, at the foot of the colossal angel, and saw the flames bursting forth in the darkness, and heard the sorrowful cry all around. For it was late before the soldiers began to cast off all restraint. They had entered quietly. The Germans stood in battalions. But when they saw the Spaniards broken up and plundering, the desire was aroused in them also; and now a spirit of emulation appeared, as to which nation could outdo the other in cruelty. The Spaniards, it is asserted by impartial Italians, carried the day. There had been no siege, no bombardment, no flight of any great extent; but as if the earth had opened, and had disgorged a legion of devils, so suddenly came these hosts. Everything was in a moment abandoned to them. We must endeavour to conceive what kind of men these German soldiers were. They formed an intermediate class between the prime and the refuse of the people. Gathered together by the hope of booty, indifferent what end was assigned them, rendered wild by hunger and tardy pay, left without a master after the death of their commander, they found themselves unrestrained in the most luxurious city of the world—a city abounding with gold and riches, and at the same time decried for centuries in Germany, as the infernal nest of the popes, who lived there as incarnate devils, in the midst of their Babylonian doings. The opinion that the pope of Rome, and Clement VII. in particular, was the devil, prevailed not only in Germany, but in Italy and in Rome the people called him so. In the midst of plague and famine he had doubled the taxes and raised the price of bread. What with the Romans, however, was an invective arising from indignation, was an article of faith among the Germans. They believed they had to do with the real antichrist, whose destruction would be a benefit to Christendom. We must remember, if we would understand this fury of the German soldiery, in whose minds, as in those of all Germans, Lutheran ideas at that time prevailed, how Rome had been preached and written upon in the north. The city was represented to people as a vast abyss of sin; the men as villains, from the lowest up to the cardinals; the women as courtesans; the business of all as deceit, theft, and murder; and the robbing and deluding of men that had for centuries been emanating from Rome, was regarded as the universal disease from which the world was languishing. Thither for centuries the gold of Germany had flowed; there had emperors been humbled or poisoned; from Rome every evil had sprung. And thus, while satiating themselves with rapine and murder, they believed a good work was being done for the welfare of Christendom, and for the avenge of Germany. Never, however—this we know—does the nature of man exhibit itself more beast-like, than when it becomes furious for the sake of ideas of the highest character. Before the castle of St. Angelo, which, carefully fortified with walls and fosses, alone afforded resistance, the German soldiers proclaimed Martin Luther as pope. Luther's name was at that time a war-cry against pope and priestcraft. The rude multitude surmised not what Luther desired when he attacked the papacy. In front of St. Peter's church, they represented an imitation of the papal election with the sacred garments and utensils. They compelled one priest to give extreme unction to a dying mule. One protested that he would not rest until he had consumed a piece of the pope's flesh. It is true, Italians for the most part relate this, but the German reports themselves do not deny the excessive barbarity which was permitted. Ten millions of precious metal was carried away. How much blood did this money involve, and what was done to those from whom it was taken? Fewer were put to death than were plundered, says one of the records, but what does that imply? It is true, the Germans often quarrelled with the Spaniards, because the horrors which they saw them practise were too terrible for them. Otherwise the sparing of human life was less an act of clemency than of covetousness. Prisoners of war were at that time regarded as slaves; they were carried away as personal property, or a ransom was extorted. . . . This system was carried to a great pitch in

Rome. The possessors of palaces were obliged to purchase their ransom, the Spanish cardinals as well as the Italian—no difference was made. Thus at least escape was possible. . . . And as the people were treated, so were the things. Upon the inlaid marble floor of the Vatican, where the Prince of Orange took up his abode—the command of the army devolving upon him after Bourbon's death—the soldiers lighted their fire. The splendid stained glass windows, executed by William of Marseilles, were broken for the sake of the lead. Raphael's tapestries were pronounced excellent booty; in the paintings on the walls the eyes were put out; and valuable documents were given as straw to the horses which stood in the Sistine Chapel. The statues in the streets were thrown down; the images of the Mother of God in the churches were broken to pieces. For six months the city thus remained in the power of the soldiery, who had lost all discipline. Pestilence and famine appeared. Rome had more than 90,000 inhabitants under Leo X.; when Clement VII. returned a year after the conquest, scarcely a third of that number then existed—poor, famished people, who had remained behind, because they knew not whither to turn. All this lay on the conscience of the man who now for months had been condemned to look down upon this misery from the castle of St. Angelo, in which the Spaniards held him completely blockaded, and where pestilence and want of provisions appeared just as much as down below in Rome. At last, after waiting day after day, he saw Urbino's army approaching from afar; their watchfires were to be perceived; and every moment he expected that the duke would attack and deliver the city. But he moved not. It is thought he intended now to avenge the rapine which the Medici under Leo X had carried on against him. . . . After having rested for some time in sight of the city, in which the imperialists had opened their intrenchments round the castle of St. Angelo for a regular siege, he withdrew back again to the north, and left the pope to his fate."—H. Grimm, *Life of Michael Angelo, v. 2, ch. 10, sect. 3.* —See also ROME: Modern city: 1527.

ALSO IN: Benvenuto Cellini, *Life* (tr. by J. A. Symonds), *v. 1, bk. 1, sec. 34-38.*—*Ibid.* (tr. by T. Roscoe), *ch. 7.*—J. S. Brewer, *Reign of Henry VIII, v. 2, ch. 25.*

1527-1529.—Siege and captivity of the pope.—New league against the emperor.—French invasion and disastrous siege of Naples.—Recovery of independence by Genoa under leadership of Doria.—Treaties of Barcelona and Cambrai.—Francis renounces all pretensions beyond the Alps.—Charles V supreme.—Shut up in Castle St. Angelo, the pope, Clement VII, "deprived of every resource, and reduced to such extremity of famine as to feed on asses' flesh, was obliged to capitulate on such conditions as the conquerors were pleased to prescribe. He agreed to pay 400,000 ducats to the army; to surrender to the emperor all the places of strength belonging to the Church; and, besides giving hostages, to remain a prisoner himself until the chief articles were performed. . . . The account of this extraordinary and unexpected event was no less surprising than agreeable to the emperor. But in order to conceal his joy from his subjects, who were filled with horror at the success and crimes of their countrymen, and to lessen the indignation of the rest of Europe, he declared that Rome had been assaulted without any order from him. He wrote to all the princes with whom he was in alliance, disclaiming his having had any knowledge of Bourbon's intention. He put himself and court into mourning; commanded the rejoicings which had been ordered for the birth of his son Philip to be stopped; and, employing an artifice no less hypocritical than gross, he appointed prayers and processions throughout all Spain for the recovery of the pope's liberty, which, by an order to his generals, he could have immediately granted him. . . . Francis and Henry [of France and England], alarmed at the progress of the imperial arms in Italy, had, even before the taking of Rome, entered into a closer alliance; and, in order to give some check to the emperor's ambition, had agreed to make a vigorous diversion in the Low Countries. The force of every motive which had influenced them at that time was now increased; and to these was added the desire of rescuing the pope out of the emperor's hands, a measure no less politic than it appeared to be pious. This, however, rendered it necessary to abandon their hostile intentions against the Low Countries, and to make Italy the seat of war. . . . Besides all . . . public considerations, Henry was influenced by one of a more private nature: having begun, about this time, to form his great scheme of divorcing Catharine of Aragon, towards the execution of which he knew that the sanction of papal authority would be necessary, he was desirous to acquire as much merit as possible with Clement, by appearing to be the chief instrument of his deliverance. . . . Henry . . . entered so eagerly into this new alliance, that, in order to give Francis the strongest proof of his friendship and respect, he formally renounced the ancient claim of the English monarchs to the crown of France, which had long been the pride and ruin of the nation; as a full compensation for which he accepted a pension of 50,000 crowns, to be paid annually to himself and his successors. The pope, being unable to fulfil the conditions of his capitulation, still remained a prisoner. . . . The Florentines no sooner heard of what had happened at Rome, than they ran to arms . . . and, declaring themselves a free state, reëstablished their ancient popular government [see FLORENCE: 1502-1569]. The Venetians, taking advantage of the calamity of their ally, the pope, seized Ravenna, and other places belonging to the church, under pretext of keeping them in deposite." On the other hand, Lannoy, Charles' viceroy at Naples, "marched to Rome, together with Moncada and the Marquis del Guasto, at the head of all the troops which they could assemble in the kingdom of Naples. The arrival of this reinforcement brought new calamities on the unhappy citizens of Rome; for the soldiers, envying the wealth of their companions, imitated their license, and with the utmost rapacity gathered the gleanings which had escaped the avarice of the Spaniards and Germans. There was not now any army in Italy capable of making head against the imperialists." But the troops who had enjoyed months of license and riotous pillage in Rome could not be brought back to discipline, and refused to quit the perishing city. They had chosen for their general the Prince of Orange, who "was obliged to pay more attention to their humours than they did to his commands. . . . This gave the king of France and the Venetians leisure to form new schemes, and to enter into new arrangements for delivering the pope, and preserving the liberties of Italy. The newly-restored republic of Florence very imprudently joined with them, and Lautrec . . . was . . . appointed generalissimo of the league. . . . The best troops in France marched under his command; and the king of England, though he had not yet declared war against the emperor, advanced a considerable sum towards carrying on the expedition. Lautrec's first operations [1527] were pru-

dent, vigorous and successful. By the assistance of Andrew Doria, the ablest sea-officer of that age, he rendered himself master of Genoa, and reëstablished in that republic the faction of the Fregosi, together with the dominion of France. He obliged Alexandria to surrender after a short siege, and reduced all the country on that side of the Tesino. He took Pavia, which had so long resisted the arms of his sovereign, by assault, and plundered it with . . . cruelty. . . . But Lautrec durst not complete a conquest which would have been so honorable to himself and of such advantage to the league. Francis . . . was afraid that, if Sforza were once reëstablished in Milan, they [his confederates] would second but coldly the attack which he intended to make on the kingdom of Naples. . . . Happily the importunities of the pope and the solicitations of the Florentines, the one for relief, and the other for protection, were so urgent as to furnish him with a decent pretext for marching forward. . . . While Lautrec advanced slowly towards Rome, the emperor" came to terms with the pope, and Clement obtained his liberty at the cost of 350,000 crowns, a tenth of the ecclesiastical revenues of Spain, and an agreement to take no part in the war against Charles. The latter next made overtures to the French king, offering some relaxation of the treaty of Madrid; but they were received in a manner that irritated even his cold temper. He, in turn, provoked his antagonist, until a ridiculous exchange of defiances to personal combat passed between them. Meantime "Lautrec continued his operations, which promised to be more decisive. His army, which was now increased to 35,000 men, advanced by great marches towards Naples." The remains of the imperial army retreated, as he advanced, from Rome, where it had held riot for ten months, and took shelter behind the fortifications of the Neapolitan capital. Lautrec undertook (April, 1528) the siege of Naples, with the co-operation of the Genoese admiral, Doria, who blockaded its port. But he was neglected by his own frivolous king, and received little aid from the Pope, the king of England, or other confederates of the league. Moreover, Doria and the Genoese suffered treatment so insolent, oppressive and threatening, from the French court that the former opened negotiations with the emperor for a transfer of his services. "Charles, fully sensible of the importance of such an acquisition, granted him whatever terms he required. Doria sent back his commission, together with the collar of St. Michael, to Francis, and, hoisting the imperial colours, sailed with all his galleys towards Naples, not to block up the harbour of that unhappy city, as he had formerly engaged, but to bring them protection and deliverance. His arrival opened the communication with the sea, and restored plenty in Naples, which was now reduced to the last extremity; and the French . . . were soon reduced to great straits for want of provisions." With the heat of summer came pestilence; Lautrec died, and the wasted French army, attempting to retreat, was forced to lay down its arms and march under guard to the frontiers of France. "The loss of Genoa followed immediately upon the ruin of the army in Naples." Doria took possession of the town; the French garrison in the citadel capitulated (September 12, 1528), and the citadel was destroyed. "It was now in Doria's power to have rendered himself the sovereign of his country, which he had so happily delivered from oppression." But he magnanimously refused any preëminence among his fellow citizens. "Twelve persons were elected to new-model the constitution of the republic. The influence of Doria's virtue and example communicated itself to his countrymen; the factions which had long torn and ruined the state seemed to be forgotten; prudent precautions were taken to prevent their reviving; and the same form of government which hath subsisted with little variation since that time in Genoa, was established with universal applause." In Lombardy, the French army, under St. Pol, was surprised, defeated and ruined at Landriano (June, 1529), as completely as the army in Naples had been a few months before. All parties were now desirous of peace, but feared to seem too eager in making overtures. Two women took the negotiations in hand and carried them to a conclusion. "These were Margaret of Austria, duchess dowager of Savoy, the emperor's aunt, and Louise, Francis's mother. They agreed on an interview at Cambray, and, being lodged in two adjoining houses, between which a communication was opened, met together without ceremony or observation, and held daily conferences, to which no person whatever was admitted." The result was a treaty signed August 5, 1529, known as the Peace of Cambray, or "the Ladies' Peace," or "Peace of the Dames." By its terms, Francis was to pay 2,000,000 crowns for the ransom of his sons; restore such towns as he still held in the Milanese; resign and renounce his pretensions to Naples, Milan, Genoa, and every other place beyond the Alps, as well as to Flanders and Artois; and consummate his marriage with the emperor's sister, Eleanora. On the other hand, the emperor only agreed not to press his claims on Burgundy, for the present, but reserved them, in full force. Another treaty, that of Barcelona, had already, in 1529, been concluded between the emperor and the pope. The former gave up the papal states which he occupied, and agreed to reëstablish the dominion of the Medici in Florence; besides giving his natural daughter in marriage to Alexander, the head of that family. In return he received the investiture of Naples, absolution for all concerned in the plundering of Rome, and the grant to himself and his brother of a fourth of the ecclesiastical revenues throughout their dominions.—W. Robertson, *History of the reign of Charles V, bk.* 4-5.

Also in: F. P. Guizot, *Popular history of France, ch.* 28.—C. Coignat, *Francis I and his times, ch.* 9.—G. B. Malleson, *Studies from Genoese history, ch.* 1.—E. Armstrong, *Emperor Charles V, v.* 1.

(Southern): 1528-1570.—Naples under Spanish viceroys.—Ravages of Turks along coast.—Successful revolt against Inquisition.—"After the memorable and unfortunate expedition of Lautrec, in 1528, Philibert of Chalons, Prince of Orange, who commanded the Imperial army, exercised the severest vengeance [in Naples] on the persons and estates of all those nobles who had joined the French, or who appeared to demonstrate any attachment towards that nation. . . . These multiplied . . . acts of oppression received no effectual redress during the short administration [1529-1532] of Cardinal Colonna, who succeeded to the Prince of Orange. . . . In the place of Cardinal Colonna was substituted Don Pedro de Toledo, who governed Naples with almost unlimited powers, during the space of near 21 years. His viceroyalty, which forms a memorable *Epocha* in the annals of the country, demands and fixes attention. We are impressed with horror at finding, by his own confession, . . . that during the progress of his administration, he put to death near 18,000 persons, by the hand of the executioner. Yet a fact still more extraordinary is that Giannone, himself a Neapolitan, and one of the ablest as well as most impartial historians whom the 18th century has produced, not only acquits, but even

commends Toledo's severity, as equally wholesome and necessary," on account of the terrible lawlessness and disorder which he found in the country. "The inflexible and stern character of the viceroy speedily redressed these grievances, and finally restored order in the capital. . . . All the provinces experienced equal attention, and became the objects of his personal inspection. The unprotected coasts of Calabria and of Apulia, subject to the continual devastation of the Turks, who landed from their gallies, were fortified with towers and beacons to announce the enemy's approach. . . . Repeated attempts were made by Solyman II., Emperor of the Turks, either alone or in conjunction with the fleets of France, to effect the conquest of Naples, during this period: but the exertions of Toledo were happily attended with success in repulsing the Turkish invaders. . . . In no part of the middle ages . . . were the coasts of Naples and Sicily so frequently plundered, ravaged, and desolated, as at this period. Thousands of persons of both sexes, and of all conditions, were carried off by Barbarossa, Dragut, Sinan, and the other Bashaws, or admirals of the Porte. Not content with landing on the shores and ravaging the provinces, their squadrons perpetually appeared in sight of Naples; laid waste the islands of Ischia and Procida, situate in its immediate vicinity; attacked the towns of Pouzzoli and Baiæ; and committed every outrage of wanton barbarity. . . . The invasion of 1552, when Dragut blocked up the harbour of Naples, with 150 large gallies, during near four weeks, spread still greater consternation; and if the fleet of France had arrived, as had been concerted, it is more than probable that the city must have fallen into their hands. But the delays of Henry II., Solyman's ally, proved its preservation. The Turkish admiral, corrupted by a present of 200,000 ducats, which the Viceroy found means of conveying to him, retired and made sail for Constantinople. . . . The administration of Toledo . . . was . . . completely subverted from the moment that he attempted [1546] to introduce the Inquisition. . . . The Neapolitans, patient under every other species of oppression, instantly revolted. . . . They even forgot, in the general terror, the distinction of ranks; and the Barons united with their fellow-citizens to oppose that formidable tribunal. The Viceroy, returning to the capital, reinforced by 3,000 veteran Spaniards, determined nevertheless to support the measure. Hostilities took place, and the city, during near three months, was abandoned to anarchy, while the inhabitants, having invested the castle, besieged their governor. . . . The Emperor, convinced by experience of the impracticability of success in his attempt, at length desisted." Toledo died in 1553, and "was succeeded by the Cardinal Pacheco, as Viceroy; and the abdication of Charles V., in the following year, devolved on his son Philip II. the sovereignty of Naples. Alarmed at the preparations made by Henry II., King of France, in conjunction with Paul IV., who had newly ascended the papal throne, Philip dispatched Ferdinand, Duke of Alva, to the aid of his Neapolitan subjects; and to the vigorous measures embraced by him on his arrival was due the safety of the kingdom [see FRANCE: 1547-1559]. . . . The administration of the Duke of Alcala, to whom Philip delegated the supreme power soon after the recall of Alva [1558], lasted near 12 years, and was marked by almost every species of calamity."—N. W. Wraxall, *History of France, v. 2, ch. 9.*—"The march of the Mareschal of Lautrec was the last important attempt of the French to reconquer Naples. . . . Spain remained in possession of this beautiful country for two centuries. . . . Their [the Spaniards'] ascendancy was owing as well to an iron discipline as to that inveterate character of their race, the firmness of purpose which had gradually developed itself in the long struggle for the country which they wrenched inch by inch from their tenacious enemies. The Neapolitans found that they had in the Spaniards different rulers from the French."—A. de Reumont, *Carafas of Maddaloni: Naples under Spanish dominion, bk. 1.*

1529.—Siege of Florence by the imperial forces.—Reinstatement of the Medici. See FLORENCE: 1502-1569.

1530-1600.—Under Spanish domination, and papacy of counter-reformation.—Inquisition.—Jesuits.—Vice-regal rule.—Deplorable state of country.—"It will be useful, at this point, to recapitulate the net results of Charles's administration of Italian affairs in 1530. The kingdom of the Two Sicilies, with the island of Sardinia and the Duchy of Milan, became Spanish provinces, and were ruled henceforth by viceroys. The House of Este was confirmed in the Duchy of Ferrara, including Modena and Reggio. The Duchies of Savoy and Mantua and the Marquisate of Montferrat, which had espoused the Spanish cause, were undisturbed. Genoa and Siena, both of them avowed allies of Spain, the former under Spanish protection, the latter subject to Spanish coercion, remained with the name and empty privileges of republics. Venice had made her peace with Spain, and though she was still strong enough to pursue an independent policy, she showed as yet no inclination, and had, indeed, no power, to stir up enemies against the Spanish autocrat. The Duchy of Urbino, recognised by Rome and subservient to Spanish influence, was permitted to exist. The Papacy once more assumed a haughty tone, relying on the firm alliance struck with Spain. This league, as years went by, was destined to grow still closer, still more fruitful of results. Florence alone had been excepted from the articles of peace. It was still enduring the horrors of the memorable siege when Clement left Bologna at the end of May. . . . Finally, on August 12, the town capitulated. Alessandro de' Medici, who had received the title of Duke of Florence from Charles at Bologna, took up his residence there in July 1531, and held the State by help of Spanish mercenaries under the command of Alessandro Vitelli. . . . Though the people endured far less misery from foreign armies in the period between 1530 and 1600 than they had done in the period from 1494 to 1527, yet the state of the country grew ever more and more deplorable. This was due in the first instance to the insane methods of taxation adopted by the Spanish viceroys, who held monopolies of corn and other necessary commodities in their hands, and who invented imposts for the meanest articles of consumption. Their example was followed by the Pope and petty princes. . . . The settlement made by Charles V. in 1530, and the various changes which took place in the duchies between that date and the end of the century, had then the effect of rendering the Papacy and Spain omnipotent in Italy. . . . What they only partially effected in Europe at large, by means of S. Bartholomew massacres, exterminations of Jews in Toledo and of Mussulmans in Granada, holocausts of victims in the Low Countries, wars against French Huguenots and German Lutherans, naval expeditions and plots against the state of England, assassinations of heretic princes, and occasional burning of free thinkers, they achieved with plenary success in Italy. . . . It is the tragic history of the eldest and most beautiful, the noblest and most venerable, the freest and

most gifted of Europe's daughters, delivered over to the deviltry that issued from the most incompetent and arrogantly stupid of the European sisterhood, and to the cruelty, inspired by panic, of an impious theocracy. When we use these terms to designate the Papacy of the Counter-Reformation, it is not that we forget how many of those Popes were men of blameless private life and serious views for Catholic Christendom. When we use these terms to designate the Spanish race in the sixteenth century, it is not that we are ignorant of Spanish chivalry and colonising enterprise, of Spanish romance, or of the fact that Spain produced great painters, great dramatists, and one great novelist in the brief period of her glory. We use them deliberately, however, in both cases; because the Papacy at this period committed itself to a policy of immoral, retrograde, and cowardly repression of the most generous of human impulses under the pressure of selfish terror; because the Spaniards abandoned themselves to a dark fiend of religious fanaticism; because they were merciless in their conquests and unintelligent in their administration of subjugated provinces; because they glutted their lusts of avarice and hatred on industrious folk of other creeds within their borders; because they cultivated barren pride and self-conceit in social life; because at the great epoch of Europe's reawakening they chose the wrong side and adhered to it with fatal obstinacy. . . . After the year 1530 seven Spanish devils entered Italy. These were the devil of the Inquisition, with stake and torture-room, and war declared against the will and soul and heart and intellect of man; the devil of Jesuitry, with its sham learning, shameless lying, and casuistical economy of sins; the devil of vice-royal rule, with its life-draining monopolies and gross incapacity for government; the devil of an insolent soldiery, quartered on the people, clamorous for pay, outrageous in their lusts and violences; the devil of fantastical taxation, levying tolls upon the bare necessities of life, and drying up the founts of national well-being at their sources; the devil of petty-princedom, wallowing in sloth and cruelty upon a pinchbeck throne; the devil of effeminate hidalgoism, ruinous in expediture, mean and grasping, corrupt in private life, in public ostentatious, vain of titles, cringing to its masters, arrogant to its inferiors. In their train these brought with them seven other devils, their pernicious offspring: idleness, disease, brigandage, destitution, ignorance, superstition, hypocritically sanctioned vice. These fourteen devils were welcomed, entertained, and voluptuously lodged in all the fairest provinces of Italy. The Popes opened wide for them the gates of outraged and depopulated Rome. . . . After a tranquil sojourn of some years in Italy, these devils had everywhere spread desolation and corruption. Broad regions, like the Patrimony of S. Peter and Calabria, were given over to marauding bandits; wide tracts of fertile country, like the Sienese Maremma, were abandoned to malaria; wolves prowled through empty villages round Milan; in every city the pestilence swept off its hundreds daily; manufactures, commerce, agriculture, the industries of town and rural district, ceased; the Courts swarmed with petty nobles, who vaunted paltry titles, and resigned their wives to cicisbei and their sons to sloth; art and learning languished; there was not a man who ventured to speak out his thought or write the truth; and over the Dead Sea of social putrefaction floated the sickening oil of Jesuitical hypocrisy."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: Catholic reaction, pt.* 1, *ch.* 1.—See also PAPACY: 1534-1540.

1534-1563.—Beginnings of counter-Reformation.—Popular weakness of Reformation movement.—Catholic reaction.—Council of Trent and its consolidating work. See PAPACY: 1534-1540; 1537-1563; CHRISTIANITY: 16th century: Counter-Reformation.

1536-1544.—French invasion of Piedmont.—French and Turkish siege of Nice.—Turkish ravages on coast.—Treaty of Crespy. See FRANCE: 1532-1547.

1545-1556.—Creation of duchy of Parma and Placentia, under rule of House of Farnese. See PARMA: 1545-1592.

1556.—Territorial division of country. See EUROPE: Map of Central Europe: 1556.

1559-1580.—End of French occupation of Savoy and Piedmont.—Notable reign of Emanuel Philibert. See SAVOY AND PIEDMONT: 1559-1580; FRANCE: 1547-1559.

1559-1600.—Peace without prosperity.—Foreign and domestic despotism.—Exhaustion and helplessness of country.—"From the epoch of the treaty of Château Cambresis [1559] to the close of the 16th century, Italy remained, in one sense, in profound and uninterrupted peace. During this long period of 41 years, her provinces were neither troubled by a single invasion of foreign armies, nor by any hostilities of importance between her own feeble and nerveless powers. But this half century presented, nevertheless, anything rather than the aspect of public happiness and prosperity. Her wretched people enjoyed none of the real blessings of peace. Subject either to the oppressive yoke of their native despots, or to the more general influence of the arch-tyrant of Spain, they were abandoned to all the exactions of arbitrary government, and compelled to lavish their blood in foreign wars and in quarrels not their own. While France, torn by religious and civil dissensions, sank for a time from her political station among the powers of the continent, and was no longer capable of affording protection or exciting jealousy, Philip II was left free to indulge in the peninsula all the obdurate tyranny of his nature. . . . The popes were interested in supporting his career of bigotry and religious persecution; the other powers of Italy crouched before him in abject submission. To feed the religious wars, in which he embarked as a principal or an accessory, in the endeavour to crush the protestant cause in France, in the Low Countries, and in Germany, he drained Italy of her resources in money and in men. . . . While the Italian soldiery fought with the courage of freemen, they continued the slaves of a despot, and while the Italian youth were consumed in transalpine warfare, their suffering country groaned under an iron yoke, and was abandoned a prey to the unresisted assaults of the infidels. Her coasts, left without troops, or defences in fortifications and shipping, were insulted and ravaged by the constant descents of the corsairs of Turkey and Barbary. Her maritime villages were burnt, her maritime population dragged off into slavery; and her tyrants, while they denied the people the power of defending themselves, were unable or careless also to afford them protection and safety."—G. Procter, *History of Italy, ch.* 9.

1569.—Creation of grand duchy of Tuscany. See FLORENCE: 1502-1569.

1580.—Aid in Irish rebellion. See IRELAND: 1559-1603.

1593.—Decree of Livornina by Ferdinand I of Tuscany. See LIVORNINA, DECREE OF.

1597.—Annexation of Ferrara to States of the Church. See PAPACY: 1597.

1605-1607.—Venice under guidance of Fra Paolo Sarpi.—Successful contest of republic

with the papacy. See VENICE: 1606-1607; PAPACY: 1605-1700.

1620-1626.—Valtelline War. See FRANCE: 1624-1626.

1627-1631.—Disputed succession to duchy of Mantua.—War of France with Spain, Savoy and the emperor.—Fruits of war.—"About Christmas in the year 1627, Vincenzo II., Duke of Mantua, of the house of Gonzaga, died without issue. His next of kin, beyond all controversy, was Charles Gonzaga, Duke of Nevers, whose family had settled in France some fifty years before, and acquired by marriage the dukedoms of Nevers and Rethel. Although there was a jealousy on the part both of Austria and Spain that French influences should be introduced into Upper Italy, there seems to have been no intention, in the first instance, of depriving Charles of his Italian inheritance. . . . But . . . when the old Duke Vincenzo's days were evidently numbered, Charles's son, the young Duke of Rethel, by collusion with the citizens, arrived at Mantua to seize the throne which in a little while death would make vacant." At the same time, he took from a convent in the city a young girl who represented whatever claims might exist in the direct native line, and married her, the pope granting a dispensation. "Both the King of Spain and the Emperor . . . were incensed by the conduct which both must needs have regarded as indicative of hostility, and the latter as an invasion of his feudal rights. Spain flew to arms at once. The emperor summoned the young duke before his tribunal, to answer the charges of having seized the succession without his investiture, and married his ward without his consent. . . . Charles, supported by the promises of Richelieu, refused to acknowledge the emperor's rights of superiority, or to submit to his jurisdiction."—B. Chapman, *History of Gustavus Adolphus, ch.* 8.—"The emperor . . . sequestered the disputed territory, and a Spanish army invaded Montferrat [embraced in the dominions of the duke of Mantua] and besieged Casale, the capital. Such was the paramount importance attached by Richelieu to his principle of opposition to the house of Austria, that he induced Louis to cross the Alps in person with 36,000 men, in order to establish the Duke of Nevers in his new possessions. The king and the cardinal forced the pass of Susa in March, 1629, in spite of the Duke of Savoy, who was another competitor for Montferrat, and so decisive was the superiority of the French arms that the duke immediately afterward signed a treaty of peace and alliance with Louis, by which he undertook to procure the abandonment of the siege of Casale and the retreat of the Spaniards into their own territory. This engagement was fulfilled, and the Duke of Nevers took possession of his dominions without further contest. But the triumph was too rapid and easy to be durable."—N. W. Jervis, *Students' history of France, ch.* 19.—"The Spaniards remained, however, in Milaness, ready to burst again upon the Duke of Mantua. The king was in a hurry to return to France, in order to finish the subjugation of the Reformers in the south, commanded by the Duke of Rohan. The cardinal placed little or no reliance upon the Duke of Savoy. . . . A league . . . was formed between France, the republic of Venice, the Duke of Mantua, and the Duke of Savoy, for the defence of Italy in case of fresh aggression on the part of the Spaniards; and the king, who had just concluded peace with England, took the road back to France. Scarcely had the cardinal joined him before Privas when an Imperialist army advanced into the Grisons and, supported by the celebrated Spanish general Spinola, laid siege to Mantua. Richelieu did not hesitate: he entered Piedmont in the month of March, 1630, to march before long on Pignerol, an important place commanding the passage of the Alps; it, as well as the citadel, was carried in a few days. . . . The Duke of Savoy was furious, and had the soldiers who surrendered Pignerol cut in pieces. The king [Louis XIII] had put himself in motion to join his army. . . . The inhabitants of Chambéry opened their gates to him; Annecy and Montmélian succumbed after a few days' siege; Maurienne in its entirety made its submission, and the king fixed his quarters there, whilst the cardinal pushed forward to Casale [the siege of which had been resumed by Spinola] with the main body of the army. Rejoicings were still going on for a success gained before Veillane over the troops of the Duke of Savoy, when news arrived of the capture of Mantua by the Imperialists. This was the finishing blow to the ambitious and restless spirit of the Duke of Savoy. He saw Mantua in the hands of the Spaniards, 'who never give back aught of what falls into their power'; . . . it was all hope lost of an exchange which might have given him back Savoy; he took to his bed and died on the 26th of July, 1630, telling his son that peace must be made on any terms whatever." A truce was arranged, followed by negotiations at Ratisbon, and Casale was evacuated by both parties—the Spaniards having had possession of the city, while the citadel was held by the French. "It was only in the month of September, 1631, that the states of Savoy and Mantua were finally evacuated by the hostile troops. Pignerol had been given up to the new Duke of Savoy, but a secret agreement had been entered into between that prince and France: French soldiers remained concealed in Pignerol; and they retook possession of the place in the name of the king, who had purchased the town and its territory, to secure himself a passage into Italy. . . . The affairs of the emperor in Germany were in too bad a state for him to rekindle war, and France kept Pignerol."—F. P. Guizot, *Popular history of France, ch.* 41.—"The peace left all parties very nearly in the condition in which they were when the war began; the chief loser was the emperor, who was now compelled to acknowledge De Nevers as Duke of Mantua and Montserrat; and the chief gainer was the Duke of Savoy, whose territories were enlarged by the addition of Alba, Trino, and some portions of the territory of Montserrat which lay nearest to his Piedmontese dominions. France, too, made some permanent acquisitions to compensate her for the cost of the war. She eluded the stipulation which bound her to evacuate Casal, and Victor Amedée subsequently suffered her to retain both that fortress and Pignerol, such permission, as was generally believed, . . . having furnished the secret reason which influenced Richelieu to consent to the duke's obtaining the portion of Montserrat already mentioned, the cardinal thus making the Duke of Mantua furnish the equivalent for the acquisitions made by Louis."—C. D. Yonge, *History of France under the Bourbons, v.* 1, *ch.* 7.

1631.—Annexation of Urbino to States of the Church. See PAPACY: 1605-1700.

1635.—Italian alliances of Richelieu against Spaniards in Milan. See GERMANY: 1634-1639.

1635-1659.—Invasion of Milanese by French and Italian armies.—Civil war and foreign war in Savoy and Piedmont.—Extraordinary siege of Turin.—Treaty of the Pyrenees.—Restoration of territory to Savoy.—"Richelieu . . . having obtained the alliance of the Dukes of Savoy, Parma, and Mantua, and having secured the neutrality of

the Republics of Venice and Genoa, now bent all his efforts to expel the Spaniards from Milan, which was at that time but weakly defended. . . . In 1635, a French army of 15,000 men was accordingly assembled in Dauphiny, and placed under the command of Mareschal Crequi. Having crossed the Alps, it formed a junction with 8,000 troops under the Duke of Parma, and 12,000 under the Duke of Savoy, to whom the supreme command of this formidable army of 35,000 men was entrusted. Such a force, if properly employed, ought to have proved sufficient to overwhelm the Dutchy of Milan, in its present unprotected condition. . . . But the confederates were long detained by idle disputes among themselves, their licentiousness and love of plunder." When they did advance into Milanese, their campaign was ineffective, and they finally "separated with mutual disgust," but "kept the field, ravaging the open and fertile plains of Milan. They likewise took possession of several towns, particularly Bremi, on the Po. . . . On hearing of the distress of Milan, the King of Spain took immediate steps for the relief of that bulwark of his Italian power. In 1636 he appointed to its government Diego Guzman, Marques of Leganez, who was a near relative of Olivarez. . . . He had not long entered on the government intrusted to him when he succeeded in expelling the enemy from every spot in Milan, with exception of Bremi, which they still retained. Milan having been thus delivered, Leganez transferred the theatre of war to the States of the Duke of Parma, and completely desolated those fertile regions," compelling the Duke to renounce his French alliance (1637). "The Duke of Savoy, Victor Amadeus, did not long survive these events; and it was strongly suspected, both in Spain and Italy, though probably on no just grounds, that he had been poisoned. . . . The demise of the Duke of Mantua occurred nearly about the same period; and on the decease of these two princes, the Court of Spain used every exertion to detach their successors from the French confederacy. Its efforts succeeded, at least to a certain extent, with the Dutchess-dowager of Mantua. . . . But the Dutchess of Savoy, . . . being the sister of Louis XIII., could not easily be drawn off from the French interests. Olivarez [the Spanish minister], despairing to gain this princess, excited by his intrigues the brothers of the late Duke [Cardinal Maurice and Prince Thomas] to dispute with her the title to the regency." Leganez, now (1638) laid siege to Bremi, and Marshal Crequi, in attempting to relieve the place, was killed by a cannon shot. "By the loss of Bremi, the French were deprived of the last receptacle for their supplies or forces in the Duchy of Milan; and in consequence of the death of Crequi, they had now no longer any chief of their own nation in Italy. The few French nobility who were still in the army returned to their own country, and the soldiery dispersed into Montferrat and Piedmont. Leganez, availing himself of this favourable posture of affairs, marched straightway into Piedmont, at the head of an army of 20,000 men. . . . He first laid siege to Vercelli, which, from its vicinity to Milan, had always afforded easy access for the invasion of that duchy, by the French and Savoyards." A new French army, of 13,000 men, under Cardinal La Valette, was sent to the relief of the place, but did not save it from surrender. "After the capture of Vercelli, the light troops of Leganez ravaged the principality of Piedmont as far as the gates of Turin."—J. Dunlop, *Memoirs of Spain, from 1621 to 1700, v. 1, ch. 4.*—Fabert and Turenne were now sent from France to the assistance of La Valette, "and soon changed the aspect of affairs. Turenne aided powerfully in driving back Leganez and Prince Thomas from Turin, in seizing Chivasso and in organizing a decisive success." In November, 1639, the French, through want of provisions, were forced to retreat to Carignano, repelling an attack made upon them in the course of the retreat. The command was now handed over to Turenne, "with instructions to revictual the citadel of Turin, which was defended by French troops against Prince Thomas, who had gained most of the town. Turenne succeeded . . . in conveying food and munitions into the citadel. In the following spring d'Harcourt [resuming command] undertook to relieve Casale, which belonged to the Duke of Mantua. . . . The place was besieged by Leganez." The attempt succeeded, the besieging army was beaten, and the siege raised. "After the relief of Casale d'Harcourt resolved, on the advice of Turenne, to besiege Turin. The investment was made on the 10th May, 1640. This siege offered a curious spectacle; the citadel which the French held was besieged by Prince Thomas, who held the town. He himself was besieged by the French army, which in its turn was besieged in its lines of circumvallation by the Spanish army of Leganez. The place capitulated on the 17th September. . . . Prince Thomas surrendered; Leganez recrossed the Po; Marie Christine [the dowager duchess] reentered Turin; and d'Harcourt, being recalled to France by the cardinal, left the command of the army to Turenne."—H. M. Hozier, *Turenne, ch. 2.* —"The fall of Turin did not put an end to the civil war, but its main exploits were limited to the taking of Cuneo by Harcourt (September 15th, 1641), . . . and of Revel, which was reduced by the Piedmontese troops who fought on the French side. . . . In the meantime the Regent, no less than her opponents, began to grow weary of the burdensome protection of their respective allies. . . . Under such circumstances, a reconciliation between the hostile parties became practicable, and was indeed effected on the 24th of July, 1642. The Princes were admitted to a share of the Regent's power, and from that time they joined the French standard, and took from the Spaniards most of the places they had themselves placed in their hands. . . . In the meanwhile the great agitator of Europe, Richelieu, had died (1642), and had been followed by the King, Louis XIII., five months later. . . . The struggle between the two great rival powers, France and Spain, scarcely interrupted by the celebrated peace of Westphalia, which put an end to the Thirty Years' War in the North, in 1648, continued throughout the greatest part of this period; but the rapid decline of Spain, the factions of Alessio in Sicily and of Massaniello in Naples, as much paralysed the efforts of the Court of Madrid as the disorders of the Fronde weakened that of Paris. The warlike operations in North Italy were languid and dull. The taking of Valenza by the French (September 3rd, 1656) is the greatest event on record, and even that [was] void of results. By the treaty of the Pyrenees (November 17th, 1659) Savoy was restored to her possessions, and Vercelli was evacuated by the Spaniards. The citadel of Turin had been given up by the French two years before, owing to the influence of Mazarin, who married on that occasion his niece Olimpia Mancini to Eugene Maurice, son of Thomas, Prince of Carignano, and first cousin to Charles Emanuel II. From that union, it is well known, was born in Paris, in 1663, Prince Eugene of Savoy. The French nation were highly displeased at the loss of the Turin citadel, and never forgave the Cardinal this

mere act of just and tardy restitution. Pinerola and Perosa, however, still remained in their hands, and placed the Court of Turin entirely at their discretion."—A. Gallenga, *History of Piedmont, v. 3, ch. 2.*

1644.—First publication of gazettes or newspapers. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1612-1650.

1646-1654.—French hostility to the pope.—Siege of Orbitello.—Masaniello's revolt at Naples.—French intrigue and failures.—"The war [of France and Spain] in Italy had for some years languished, but hostility to the Pope [on the election of Innocent X., which Cardinal Mazarin, then supreme in France, had opposed] stirred it again into life. New vessels were fitted out for the navy, and large preparations were made for the invasion of Italy. . . . On April 26, 1646, the expedition set sail, and on the 9th of May it cast anchor off the important city of Orbitello. The fleet consisted of 156 sail, and was expected to land 10,000 men, and Mazarin wrote that all Italy was in terror. The ships were commanded by the Duke of Brézé, and no more skilful or gallant leader could have been found. . . . The command of the land forces was, however, entrusted to a leader whose deficiencies more than counterbalanced Brézé's skill. Mazarin desired an Italian prince to lead his expedition, and Prince Thomas of Savoy had been chosen for the command. . . . Fearing that disease would come with the hot weather, Mazarin urged Prince Thomas to press forward with the siege. But the most simple advances seemed beyond his skill. . . . A severe misfortune to the navy made the situation worse. In a sharp and successful engagement with the Spanish fleet, a cannon ball struck and killed the Duke of Brézé. His death was more disastrous than would have been the loss of 20 sail. The French fleet retired to Provence and left the sea open to the Spanish. Sickness was fast reducing the army on land, and on July 18th Prince Thomas raised the siege, which was no further advanced than when it was begun, and led back the remains of his command to Piedmont. . . . So mortifying an end to this expensive venture only strengthened Mazarin's resolution to make his power felt in Italy. The battered ships and fever-wasted soldiers were scarcely back in Provence, when the minister began to prepare a second expedition for the same end. . . . By September a fleet of 200 sail, with an army of 8,000 men commanded by the Marshals of La Meilleraie and Du Plessis, was under way. The expedition was conducted with skill and success. Orbitello was not again attacked, but Porto Longone, on the island of Elba, and Piombino, on the mainland, both places of much strategic importance, were captured after brief sieges. With this result came at once the change in the feelings of Innocent X. for which Mazarin had hoped," and certain objects of the latter's desire—including a cardinal's hat for his brother Michael—were brought within his reach. His attention was now turned to the more southerly portion of the peninsula. "During the expedition to Orbitello in 1646, Mazarin had closely watched Naples, whose coming revolution he foresaw. The ill-suppressed discontents of the city now showed themselves in disturbances, sudden and erratic as the eruptions of Vesuvius, and they offered to France an opportunity for seizing the richest of the remaining possessions of Spain. After the vicissitudes of centuries, Naples and Sicily were now subject to the Spanish crown. They were governed by a viceroy, and were subjected to the drain of men and money which was the result of Spain's necessities and the characteristic of her rule. Burdened with taxation, they complained that their viceroy, the Duke of Arcos, was sending to Spain money raised solely for their own defence. The imposition of a duty on fruits, in a country where fruit formed a cheap article of diet for the poor, and where almost all were poor, kindled the long smouldering discontent. Under the leadership of a fisherman [Tommaso Aniello], nicknamed Masaniello, the people of Naples in 1647 rose in revolt. Springing from utter obscurity, this young man of twenty-seven, poor and illiterate, became powerful almost in a day. While the Duke of Arcos hid himself away from the revolt, Masaniello was made Captain-General of Naples. So sudden a change turned his head. At first he had been bold, popular, and judicious. He sought only, he said, to deliver the people from their taxes, and when that was done, he would return again to selling soles and red mullets. But political delirium seized him when he reached an elevation which, for him, was as dizzy as the throne of the Roman emperors, and like some who reached that terrible eminence, his brain was crazed by the bewilderment and ecstasy of power. He made wild and incoherent speeches. He tore his garments, crying out against popular ingratitude, attacking groups of passers-by, riding his horse wildly through the multitude, and striking with his lance to the right and left. The populace wearied of its darling. Exalted to power on July 7th, he was murdered on the 16th, with the approval of those who had worshipped him a week before. But the revolution did not perish with him. Successive chiefs were chosen and deposed by a fickle people. When the insurrection was active, the representatives of Spain promised untaxed fruits and the privileges allowed by Charles V., and they revoked their promises when it appeared to subside. In the meantime, Mazarin watched the movement, uncertain as to the course he should pursue. . . . While the minister hesitated, the chance was seized by one who was never accused of too great caution." This was the duke of Guise—the fifth Henry of that dukedom—a wild, madcap young nobleman, who accepted an invitation from the Neapolitan insurgents to become their chief. Guise landed at Naples on the 15th of November, 1647, with half a dozen attendants, and a month later he was followed by a French fleet. But the latter did nothing, and Guise was helplessly without means. "The truth was that Mazarin, even if desirous of crippling the Spaniards, was very averse to assisting Guise. He believed that the duke either desired to form a republic, of which he should be chief, or a monarchy, of which he should be king, and neither plan was agreeable to the cardinal." At the end of a fortnight the fleet sailed away. Guise held his ground as the leader of the revolt until the following April, when certain of the Neapolitan patriots, corrupted by the enemy, betrayed the city into the hands of the Spaniards. "Guise endeavored, with a handful of followers, to escape towards Capua, but they were captured by a detachment of Spaniards. . . . By the petition of powerful friends, and by the avowal of France, Guise was saved from the public execution which some of his enemies demanded, but he was presently taken to Spain, and there was kept a prisoner during four years." Meantime, Mazarin had prepared another expedition, which appeared before Naples in the summer of 1648, but only to discover that the opportunity for deriving any advantage from the popular discontent in that city was past. "Receiving no popular aid, the expedition, after some ineffective endeavors, was aban-

doned." Six years afterwards, in 1654, Mazarin sent a third expedition to Naples, and entrusted it to the command of the duke of Guise, who had lately been released from his captivity in Spain. "Guise hoped that the Neapolitans would rise in revolt when it was known that their former leader was so near, but not a person in the city showed any desire to start a movement in behalf of the Duke of Guise. The Spanish met him with superior forces." After some slight encounters the expedition sailed back to France.—J. B. Perkins, *France under Mazarin, v. 1, ch. 8; v. 2, ch. 16.*

Also in: A. de Reumont, *Carafas of Maddaloni: Naples under Spanish dominion, bk. 3.*—F. Midon, *Rise and fall of Masaniello.*—H. R. St. John, *Masaniello of Naples.*—H. G. Smith, *Romance of history, ch. 1.*

1648.—Peace of Westphalia. See Germany: 1648: Peace of Westphalia.

18th century.—Historiography. See History: 25.

1701-1713.—War of the Spanish Succession.—Initial success of the French and their defeat.—Peace of Utrecht.—"Compelled to take part with one of the contending parties [in the War of the Spanish Succession—see Spain: 1698-1700; 1701-1702], Victor [duke of Savoy] would have been prompted by his interest to an alliance with Austria; but he was beset on all sides by the combined forces of France and Spain, and was all the more at their mercy as Louis XIV. had (April 5th, 1701) obtained from Ferdinand Gonzaga of Mantua permission to garrison his capital, in those days already one of the strongest places in Italy. The Duke of Savoy had already, in 1697, married his daughter, Adelaide, to one of Louis's grandsons, the Duke of Burgundy; he now gave his younger daughter, Mary Louise, to Burgundy's brother, the new King of Spain (September 11th, 1701), and took the field as French commander-in-chief. He was opposed by his own cousin, Prince Eugene, at the head of the Imperial armies. The war in Lombardy was carried on with some remissness, partly owing to the natural repugnance or irresolution of the Duke of Savoy, partly to the suspicion with which, on that very account, he was looked upon by Catinat and Vaudemont, the French and Spanish commanders under him. The King in an evil hour, removed his able marshal, Catinat, and substituted for him Villeroi, a carpet knight and court warrior, who committed one fault after another, allowed himself to be beaten by Eugene at Chiari (September 1st), and to be surprised and taken prisoner at Cremona (1702, January 21st), to the infinite relief of his troops. Vendôme restored the fortunes of the French, and a very brilliant but undecisive action was fought at Luzzara (August 15th), after which Prince Eugene was driven from the neighbourhood of Mantua, and fell back towards the mountains of Tyrol. With the success of the French their arrogance increased, and with their arrogance the disgust and ill-will of Victor Amadeus." The duke withdrew from the camp and began to listen to overtures from the powers in the Grand Alliance. "Report of the secret intercourse of the Duke with Austrian agents reached Louis XIV., who sent immediate orders to Vendôme to secure and disarm the Piedmontese soldiers (3,800 to 6,000 in number) who were fighting under French standards at Mantua. This was achieved by treachery, at San Benedetto, on the 29th of September, 1703. An attempt to seize the Duke himself, whilst hunting near Turin, miscarried. Savoy retaliated by the arrest of the French and Spanish ambassadors, and war was declared (October 5th). The moment was ill-chosen. Victor had barely 4,000 men under his orders. The whole of Savoy was instantly overrun; and in Piedmont Vercelli, Ivrea, Verrua, as well as Susa, Bard, and Pinerolo, and even Chivasso, fell into the enemy's hands during the campaigns of 1704 and 1705. In the ensuing year the tide of invasion reached Nice and Villafranca; nothing was left to Victor Amadeus but Cuneo and Turin, and the victorious French armies appeared at last under the very walls of the capital (March, 1706). The war had, however, been waged with different results beyond the Alps, where the allies had crushed the French at Blenheim (1704) and at Ramillies (1705). One of the heroes of those great achievements, Prince Eugene, now hastened to the rescue of his cousin. He met with a severe check at Cassano (August 16th, 1705), and again at Calcinato (April 19th, 1706); but his skilful antagonist, Vendôme, was called away to Flanders, and Prince Eugene so outmanœuvred his successors as to be able to join Victor at Turin. The French had begun the siege of this place on the 13th of May, 1706. They had between 50,000 and 60,000 men, and 170 pieces of artillery with them." When Prince Eugene, early in September, reached the neighborhood of Turin, he concerted with Victor Amadeus an attack on the investing army which destroyed it completely. "Its relics withdrew in awful disorder towards Pinerolo, pursued not only by the victorious troops but also by the peasantry, who, besides attachment to their princes, obeyed in this instance an instinct of revenge against the French, who had barbarously used them. Out of 50,000 or 60,000 men who had sat down before Turin in March, hardly 20,000 recrossed the Alps in September. Three of the French generals lay dead on the field; . . . 6,000 prisoners were marched through the streets of the liberated town, and 55 French banners graced the main altar of the cathedral. In the following year, Victor and Eugene, greatly against their inclination, were induced by the allies to undertake an expedition against Toulon, which, like all previous invasions of Provence, led to utter discomfiture, and the loss of 10,000 combatants (1707, July 1st to September 1st). An attack upon Briançon, equally undertaken against the sound judgment of the Duke of Savoy, in 1708, led to no better results; but Savoy won back Exilles, Perosa, Fenestrelles, and, one by one, all the redoubts with which during those wars the Alps were bristling. The war slackened in Italy, and the fates of Europe were decided in the Netherlands. . . . By the Peace of Utrecht [1713] France renounced to Savoy all the invaded territories, and, besides, the valleys of Oulx, Cesanne, Bardonneche, and Castel Delfino, ancient possessions of Dauphiny, east of the Alps, from the 12th century, whilst, for her own part, Savoy gave up the western valley of Barcellonette; thus the limits between the two nations (with the exception of Savoy and Nice) were at last fixed on the mountain-crest, at 'the parting of the waters.' By virtue of an agreement signed with Austria, November 8th, 1703, the whole of Montferrat, as well as Alessandria, Valenza, Lomellina, and Val Sesia, dependencies of the duchy of Milan, and the imperial fiefs in the Langhe (province of Alba) were ceded to Savoy."—A. Gallenga, *History of Piedmont, v. 3, ch. 2.*—See also Utrecht: 1712-1714.

Also in: G. B. Malleson, *Prince Eugene of Savoy, ch. 5, 7-9.*—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV, v. 2, ch. 5-6.*—W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria, v. 2-3, ch. 68, 69, 73-75, 77.*

1713-1714.—Milan, Naples and Sardinia ceded to the House of Austria and Sicily to the duke of Savoy. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1715-1735.—Ambitions of Elizabeth Farnese, the Spanish queen.—Austro-Spanish conflict.—Quadruple Alliance.—Duke of Savoy as king of Sardinia.—Acquisition of Naples by Spanish Bourbons.—By the provisions of the Treaty of Utrecht, Philip V of Spain was left with no dominions in Italy, the Italian possessions of the Spanish monarchy having been transferred to Austria. Philip might have accepted this arrangement without demur. Not so his wife—"Elizabeth Farnese, a lady of the Italian family for whom the Duchy of Parma had been created by the Pope. The crown of Spain was settled on her step-son. For her own child the ambitious queen desired the honours of a crown. Cardinal Alberoni, a reckless and ambitious ecclesiastic, was the minister of the Spanish court. Under his advice and instigated by the queen, Philip claimed the possessions in Italy, which in the days of his grandfather had belonged to the Spanish crown. When his title to that crown was admitted, he denied the right of the other powers of Europe to alienate from it its possessions. This was not all: in right of his queen he claimed the duchies of Parma and of Tuscany. She determined to recover for him all the Italian possessions of the Spanish crown, and to add to them the duchies of Parma and Tuscany. The Duke of Parma was old and childless. The extinction of the reigning line of the Medici was near. Cosmo di Medici, the reigning sovereign, was old. His only son, Jean Gaston, was not likely to leave heirs. To Parma Elizabeth advanced her claims as heiress of the family of Farnese; to Tuscany she asserted a more questionable title in right of a descent from the family of Medici. These duchies she demanded for her son, Don Carlos, in whose behalf she was ready to waive her own claims. The success of these demands would have given to the Spanish monarchy even greater power than it had before enjoyed. To Naples, Sicily, and Milan, would have been added the territories of Parma and Tuscany. All Europe denounced the ambitious projects of Alberoni as entirely inconsistent with that balance of power which it had then become a political superstition to uphold. Philip's French relatives were determined in opposition to his claims; and to resist them the quadruple alliance was formed between Holland, England, France and the emperor. The parties to this alliance offered to the Spanish Bourbons that the emperor should settle on Don Carlos the reversion to the duchies of Parma and Tuscany on their lapsing to him by the failure of the reigning families without heirs. These proposals were rejected, and it was not until the Spanish court found the combination of four powerful monarchs too strong for them, that they reluctantly acceded to the terms of the Quadruple Alliance, and accepted for Don Carlos the promised reversion of Parma and Tuscany. To induce the emperor to accede to this arrangement the Duke of Savoy was compelled to surrender to him his newly-acquired kingdom of Sicily, receiving instead the island of Sardinia with its kingly title. It is as kings of Sardinia that the princes of Savoy have since been known in European history. The treaty of the quadruple alliance was thus the second by which at this period the European powers attempted to arrange the affairs of Italy. This treaty left the house of Austria in possession of Sicily and Naples. It was assented to by Spain in 1720. European complications unconnected with Italy produced new wars and a new treaty; and the treaty of Seville in 1724, followed by one entered into at Vienna two years later, confirmed Don Carlos in the duchy of Parma, of which, on the death of the last of the Farnese in 1734, he entered into possession. A dispute as to the election of a king of Poland gave the Spanish court an opportunity of once more attempting the resumption of the Neapolitan dominions. Don Carlos, the second son of Philip and Elizabeth, was now just grown to man's estate. His father placed in his hand the sword which he himself had received from Louis XIV. Don Carlos was but seventeen years old when he took possession of his sovereignty of Parma. In the same year [1734] he was called from it to invade the Sicilian dominions of Austria. He conquered in succession the continental territories, and the island of Sicily; and on the 15th of June, 1734, he was proclaimed as King of the Two Sicilies. The war of the Polish Succession was ended in the following year by a peace, the preliminaries of which were signed at Vienna. In this treaty an entirely new arrangement of Italian affairs was introduced. The rights of Don Carlos to the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily were recognised. Parma was surrendered to the emperor; and, lastly, the duchy of Tuscany was disposed of to a new claimant [Francis of Lorraine] for the honours of an Italian prince."—I. Butt, *History of Italy, v.* 1, *ch.* 5.—See also SPAIN: 1713-1725; FRANCE: 1733-1735.

ALSO IN: E. Armstrong, *Elisabeth Farnese, ch.* 2-10.—P. Colletta, *History of the kingdom of Naples, bk.* 1, *ch.* 1-2.

1719.—Emperor and duke of Savoy exchange Sardinia for Sicily. See SPAIN: 1713-1725.

1733-1735.—Franco-Austrian War.—Invasion of Milanese by French.—Naples and Sicily occupied by Spaniards and erected into kingdom for Don Carlos. See FRANCE: 1733-1735.

1741-1743.—War of the Austrian Succession: Desertion of Spanish cause by king of Sardinia.—"The struggle between England and Spain [see ENGLAND: 1739-1741] had altogether merged in the great European war, and the chief efforts of the Spaniards were directed against the Austrian dominions in Italy. The kingdom of Naples, which had passed under Austrian rule during the war of the [Spanish] Succession, had, as we have seen, been restored to the Spanish line in the war which ended in 1740, and Don Carlos, who ruled it, was altogether subservient to Spanish policy. The Duke of Lorraine, the husband of Maria Theresa, was sovereign of Tuscany; and the Austrian possessions consisted of the Duchy of Milan, and the provinces of Mantua and Placentia. They were garrisoned at the opening of the war by only 15,000 men, and their most dangerous enemy was the King of Sardinia, who had gradually extended his dominions into Lombardy, and whose army was, probably, the largest and most efficient in Italy. 'The Milanese,' his father is reported to have said, 'is like an artichoke, to be eaten leaf by leaf,' and the skill and perseverance with which for many generations the House of Savoy pursued that policy, have in our own day had their reward. Spanish troops had landed at Naples as early as November 1741. The King of Sardinia, the Prince of Modena, and the Republic of Genoa were on the same side. Venice was completely neutral, Tuscany was compelled to declare herself so, and a French army was soon to cross the Alps. The King of Sardinia, however, at this critical moment, was alarmed by the ambitious projects openly avowed by the Spaniards, and he was induced by English influence to change

sides. He obtained the promise of certain territorial concessions from Austria, and of an annual subsidy of £200,000 from England; and on these conditions he suddenly marched with an army of 30,000 men to the support of the Austrians. All the plans of the confederates were disconcerted by this defection. The Spaniards went into winter quarters near Bologna in October, fought an unsuccessful battle at Campo Santo in the following February [1743], and then retired to Rimini, leaving Lombardy in complete tranquillity. The British fleet in the Mediterranean had been largely strengthened by Carteret, and it did good service to the cause. It burnt a Spanish squadron in the French port of St. Tropez, compelled the King of Naples, by the threat of bombardment, to withdraw his troops from the Spanish army, and sign an engagement of neutrality, destroyed large provisions of corn collected by the Genoese for the Spanish army, and cut off that army from all communications by sea."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England, v.* 1, *ch.* 3.

Also in: W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria, v.* 3, *ch.* 102.

1743.—War of the Austrian Succession: Treaty of Worms.—"By a treaty between Great Britain, the Queen of Hungary, and the King of Sardinia, signed at Worms September 23rd, 1743, Charles Emanuel renounced his pretensions to Milan; the Queen of Hungary ceding to him the Vigevanesco, that part of the duchy of Pavia between the Po and the Tessino, the town and part of the duchy of Piacenza, and a portion of the district of Anghiera. Also whatever rights she might have to the marquisate of Finale; hoping that the Republic of Genoa would facilitate this agreement, in order that the King of Sardinia might have a communication with the sea. The Queen of Hungary promised to increase her army in Italy to 30,000 men as soon as the affairs of Germany would permit; while the King of Great Britain engaged to keep a strong fleet in the Mediterranean, and to pay Charles Emanuel annually £200,000, so long as the war lasted, he keeping in the field an army of 45,000 men."—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe, v.* 3, *bk.* 6, *ch.* 4.

1743.—Bourbon family compact (France and Spain) for establishing Spanish claims. See France: 1743 (October).

1744.—War of the Austrian Succession: Indecisive campaigns.—Leadership of king of Sardinia.—"In Italy, the discordant views and mutual jealousies of Maria Theresa and the king of Sardinia prevented the good effects which might have been derived from their recent union. The king was anxious to secure his own dominions on the side of France, and to conquer the marquisate of Finale; while Maria Theresa was desirous to direct her principal force against Naples, and recover possession of the two Sicilies. Hence, instead of co-operating for one great object, their forces were divided; and, after an arduous and active campaign, the Austrians were nearly in the same situation as at the commencement of the year. Prince Lobcowitz being reinforced, compelled the Spaniards to retreat successively from Pesara and Senegallia, attacked them at Loretto and Reconati, and drove them beyond the Fronto, the boundary of the kingdom of Naples. Alarmed by the advance of the Austrians, the king of Naples broke his neutrality, quitted his capital at the head of 15,000 men, and hastened to join the Spaniards. But Prince Lobcowitz . . . turned towards Rome, with the hope of penetrating into Naples on that side; and, in the commencement of June, reached the neighbourhood of Albano. His views were anticipated by the king of Naples, who, dividing the Spanish and Neapolitan troops into three columns, which were led by himself, the duke of Modena, and the count de Gages, passed through Anagni, Valmonte, and Monte Tortino, and reunited his forces at Veletri, in the Campagna di Roma. In this situation, the two hostile armies, separated only by a deep valley, harassed each other with continual skirmishes. At length prince Lobcowitz, in imitation of prince Eugene at Cremona, formed the project of surprising the head-quarters of the king of Naples. In the night of August 10th, a corps of Austrians, led by count Brown, penetrated into the town of Veletri, killed all who resisted, and would have surprised the king and the duke of Modena in their beds, had they not been alarmed by the French ambassador, and escaped to the camp. The Austrian troops, giving way to pillage, were vigorously attacked by a corps of Spaniards and Neapolitans, despatched from the camp, and driven from the town with great slaughter, and the capture of the second in command, the marquis de Novati. In this contest, however, the Spanish army lost no less than 3,000 men. This daring exploit was the last offensive attempt of the Austrian forces. Prince Lobcowitz perceiving his troops rapidly decrease by the effects of the climate, and the unwholesome air of the Pontine marshes, began his retreat in the beginning of November, and though followed by an army superior in number, returned without loss to Rimini, Pesaro, Cesano, and Immola; while the combined Spaniards and Neapolitans took up their quarters between Viterbo and Civita Vecchia. In consequence of the expedition against Naples, the king of Sardinia was left with 30,000 men, many of them new levies, and 6,000 Austrians, to oppose the combined army of French and Spaniards, who advanced on the side of Nice. After occupying that place, the united army forced the intrenched camp of the Sardinians, though defended by the king himself, made themselves masters of Montalbano and Villafranca, and prepared to penetrate into Piedmont along the sea coast. The Genoese, irritated by the transfer of Finale, were inclined to facilitate their operations; but were intimidated by the presence of an English squadron which threatened to bombard their capital. The prince of Conti, who commanded under the infant Don Philip, did not, however, relinquish the invasion of Piedmont, but formed the spirited project of leading his army over the passes of the Alps, although almost every rock was a fortress, and the obstacles of nature were assisted by all the resources of art. He led his army, with a large train of artillery, and numerous squadrons of cavalry, over precipices and along beds of torrents, carried the fort of Chateau Dauphin, forced the celebrated Barricades which were deemed impregnable, descended the valley of the Stura, took Demont after a slight resistance, and laid siege to Coni. The king of Sardinia, having in vain attempted to stop the progress of this torrent which burst the barriers of his country, indignantly retired to Saluzzo, to cover his capital. Being reinforced by 6,000 Austrians, he attempted to relieve Coni, but was repulsed after a severe engagement, though he succeeded in throwing succours into the town. This victory, however, did not produce any permanent advantage to the confederate forces; Coni continuing to hold out, the approach of winter and the losses they had sustained, amounting to 10,000 men, compelled them to raise the siege and repass the Alps, which they did not effect without

extreme difficulty."—W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria, v. 3, ch. 105.*

Also in: W. Russell, *History of modern Europe, pt. 2, ch. 28.*

1745.—War of the Austrian Succession: Successes of the Spaniards, French and Genoese.—"The Italian campaign of 1745, in boldness of design and rapidity of execution, scarcely finds a parallel in military history, and was most unpropitious to the Queen of Hungary and King of Sardinia. The experience of preceding years had taught the Bourbon Courts that all attempts to carry their arms across the Alps would be fruitless, unless they could secure a stable footing in the dominions of some Italian state on the other side, to counteract the power of their adversary, who had the entire command of the passes between Germany and Italy, by means of which reinforcements could be continually drafted to the scene of action. Accordingly they availed themselves of the jealousy and alarm excited at Genoa, by the transfer of Finale to the King of Sardinia, to engage that republic on their side. The plan was to unite the two armies which had wintered on the distant frontiers of Naples and Provence, in the vicinity of Genoa, where they were to be joined by 10,000 auxiliaries on the part of the republic. Charles Emanuel was sensible of the terrible consequences to himself, should the Genoese declare openly for the house of Bourbon, and sent General Pallavicini, a man of address and abilities, to renounce his pretensions to Finale, while Admiral Rowley, with a British fleet, hovered on their coasts. In spite of all this, nevertheless the treaty of Aranjuez was concluded between France, Spain and Genoa. After surmounting amazing difficulties, and making the most arduous and astonishing marches, the army commanded by Don Philip, who was accompanied by the French General Maillebois, and that commanded by Count de Gages, effected their junction on the 14th of June, near Genoa, when their united forces, now under Don Philip, amounted to 78,000 men. All that the King of Sardinia could do under these circumstances, was to make the best dispositions to defend the Milanese, the Parmesan, and the Plaisantine; but the whole disposable force under the King and Count Schulenburg, the successor of Lobkowitz, did not amount to above 45,000 men. Count Gages with 30,000 men was to be opposed to Schulenburg, and took possession of Serravalle, on the Scrivia; then advancing towards Alessandria he obliged the Austrians to retire under the cannon of Tortona. Don Philip made himself master of Acqui, so that the King of Sardinia, with the Austrian General, Count Schulenburg, had to retreat behind the Tanaro. On the 24th of July the strong citadel of Tortona was taken by the Spaniards, which opened the way to the occupation of Parma and Placentia. The combined army of French, Spanish, Neapolitans, and Genoese being now masters of an extensive tract with all the principal towns south of the Po, they readily effected a passage near the confluence of the Ticino, and with a detachment surprised Pavia. The Austrians, fearful for the Milanese, separated accordingly from the Sardinian troops. The Bourbon force seeing this, suddenly reunited, gained the Tanaro by a rapid movement on the night of the 27th of September, forded it in three columns, although the water reached to the very necks of the soldiers, fell upon the unsuspecting and unprepared Sardinians, broke their cavalry in the first charge, and drove the enemy in dismay and confusion to Valenza. Charles Emanuel fled to Casale, where he reassembled his broken army, in order to save it from utter ruin. The confederate armies still advanced, drove the King back and took Trino and Verua, which last place lay but twenty miles from his capital: fearful now that this might be bombarded he hastened thither, withdrew his forces under its cannon, and ordered the pavement of the city to be taken up. Maillebois, on his side, penetrated into the Milanese, and by the month of October the territories of the house of Austria in Italy were wholly subdued. The whole of Lombardy being thus open, Don Philip made a triumphant entry into Milan on the 20th of December, fondly hoping that he had secured for himself an Italian kingdom, as his brother, Don Carlos, had done at Naples. The Austrian garrison, however, still maintained the citadel of Milan and the fortress of Mantua."—E. Cust, *Annals of the wars of the eighteenth century, v. 2, pp. 75-76.*

Also in: A. Gallenga, *History of Piedmont, v. 3, ch. 4.*

1746-1747.—War of the Austrian Succession: A turn of fortune.—Spaniards and French abandon North Italy.—Austrians in Genoa, and their expulsion from city.—"Of all the Austrian possessions in Lombardy, little remained except the fortress of Mantua and the citadel of Milan; while the citadels of Asti and Alessandria, the keys of Piedmont, were expected to fall before the commencement of the ensuing campaign. On the return of the season for action, the struggle for the mastery of Italy was renewed, and the queen of Spain already saw in imagination the crown of Lombardy gracing the brow of her second son. On the east, the French and Spanish armies had extended themselves as far as Reggio, Placentia, and Guastalla; on the north they were masters of the whole country between the Adda and Tesino; they blockaded the passages by the lake of Como and the Lago Maggiore, and were preparing to reduce the citadel of Milan; on the west their posts extended as far as Casale and Asti, though of the last the citadel was still held by the Sardinians. The main body of the French secured the communication with Genoa and the country south of the Po; a strong body at Reggio, Parma, and Placentia, covered their conquests on the east; and the Spaniards commanded the district between the Po and the mountains of Tyrol. The Sardinians were collected into the neighbourhood of Trino; while the Austrians fell back into the Novarrese to effect a junction with the reinforcements which were daily expected from Germany. In this situation, a sudden revolution took place in the fortune of the war. The empress queen [Maria Theresa], by the conclusion of a peace with Prussia, was at liberty to reinforce her army in Italy, and before the end of February 30,000 men had already descended from the Trentine Alps, and spread themselves as far as the Po." This change of situation caused the French court to make overtures to the king of Sardinia, which gave great offense to Spain. The wily Sardinian gained time by his negotiations with the French, until he found an opportunity, by suddenly ending the armistice, to capture the French garrison in Asti, to relieve the citadel of Alessandria and to lay siege to Valenza. "These disasters compelled Maillebois [the French general] to abandon his distant posts and concentrate his forces between Novi and Voghera, in order to maintain the communication with Genoa. Nor were the Spaniards beyond the Po in a less critical situation. A column of 10,000 Austrians under Berenclau having captured Codogno, and

advanced to Lodi, the Spanish general was compelled to withdraw his troops from the passes towards the lakes, to send his artillery to Pavia and draw towards the Po. The infantry had scarcely quitted Milan before a party of Austrian hussars entered the place." Meantime, the Spanish general Castelar, blockaded in Parma by the Austrians, broke through their lines and gained the eastern Riviera, with the loss of half his force. In June, the Spaniards and French, concentrated at Placentia, made a powerful attack on the Austrians, to arrest their progress, but were repulsed with heavy loss. The Sardinians soon afterwards formed a junction with the Austrians, which compelled the Spaniards and French to evacuate Placentia and retreat to Genoa, abandoning stores and artillery and losing many men. In the midst of these disasters, the Spanish king, Philip V., died, and his widowed queen, Elizabeth Farnese—the "Spanish termagant," Carlyle calls her—who had been the moving spirit of the struggle for Italy, lost the reins of government. His son (by his first wife, Maria Louisa of Savoy) who succeeded him, had no ambitions and no passions to interest him in the war, and resolved to escape from it. The marquis Las Minas, whom he sent to take command of the retreating army, speedily announced his intention to abandon Italy. "Thus deserted, the situation of the French and Genoese became desperate. . . . Maillebois, after exhorting the Genoese to defend their territory to the last extremity, was obliged to follow the example of Las Minas in withdrawing towards Provence. Abandoned to their fate, the Genoese could not withstand the combined attacks of the Austro-Sardinians, assisted by the British fleet. The city surrendered almost at discretion; the garrison were made prisoners of war; the stores, arms and artillery were to be delivered; the doge and six senators to repair to Vienna and implore forgiveness. The marquis of Botta, who had replaced Lichtenstein in the command, took possession of the place with 15,000 men, while the king of Sardinia occupied Finale and reduced Savona. In consequence of this success the Austrian court meditated the re-conquest of Naples and Sicily, which had been drained of troops to support the war in Lombardy." But this project was overruled by the British government, and the allied army crossed the Var, to carry the war into the southeastern provinces of France. "Their progress was, however, instantly arrested by an insurrection at Genoa, occasioned by the exactions and oppressions of the Austrian commanders. The garrison was expelled by the tumultuary efforts of the populace; and the army, to obviate the mischiefs of this unexpected reverse, hastily measured back its steps. Instead of completing the disasters of the Bourbon troops, the Austro-Sardinians employed the whole winter in the investment of Genoa." The siege was protracted but unsuccessful, and the allies were forced to abandon it the following summer, on the approach of the Bourbon forces, which resumed the offensive under Marshal Belleisle. After delivering Genoa, the latter sent a detachment of his army into Piedmont, where it met with disaster. No further operations of importance were undertaken before the conclusion of the peace, which was then being negotiated at Aix-la-Chapelle.—W. Coxe, *Memoirs of the Bourbon kings of Spain, v.* 3-4, *ch.* 46-48.

Also in: J. T. Bent, *Genoa, ch.* 16.

1749-1792.—Peace in peninsula.—The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle "left nothing to Austria in Italy except the duchies of Milan and Mantua. [See also Aix-la-Chapelle: Congresses: 2.] Although the grand-duchy of Tuscany was settled on the family of Hapsburg-Lorraine, every precaution was taken to prevent that province from being united with the German possessions of their house. The arrangements of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle continued up to the period of the French revolution undisturbed. Those arrangements, although the result of a compromise of the interests and ambitions of rival statesmen, were not, considering the previous state of Italy, unfavourable to the cause of Italian independence. Piedmont, already recognised as the protector of Italian nationality, gained not only in rank, but in substantial territory, by the acquisition of the island of Sardinia, still more by that of the High Novarese, and by extending her frontier to the Ticino. Naples and Sicily were released from the tyranny of viceroys, and placed under a resident king, with a stipulation to secure their future independence, that they should never be united to the Spanish crown. . . . [In the half century] which elapsed between the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle and the French revolution, Italy enjoyed a perfect and uninterrupted peace. In some, at least, of its principalities, its progress in prosperity and in legislation was rapid. Naples and Sicily, under the government of Charles III, and subsequently under the regency of his minister, Tanucci, were ruled with energy and prudence. Tuscany prospered under the sway of the princes of Lorraine, Milan and Mantua were mildly governed by the Austrian court; and Lombardy rose from the misery to which the exactions of Spanish viceroys had reduced even the great resources of that rich and fertile province. In the other Italian States at least no change had taken place for the worse. Industry everywhere flourished under the presence of the most essential of all blessings,—peace."—I. Butt, *History of Italy, v.* 1, *ch.* 5.

1780.—Armed Neutrality League. See Armed Neutrality.

1792-1793.—Annexation of Savoy and Nice to French republic.—Sardinia and the two Sicilies in the great European coalition against France. See France: 1792 (September-December); 1793 (March-September).

1794-1795.—War with France.—French successes at Loano. See France: 1794-1795 (October-May); 1795 (June-December).

1796-1797.—French invasion.—Bonaparte's first campaigns.—His victories and pillage.—Expulsion of Austrians.—French treaties with Genoa and Naples.—Cispadane and Cisalpine republics.—Surrender of papal territories.—Peace preliminaries of Leoben.—Overthrow of Venice by Bonaparte. See France: 1796 (April-October); (October); 1796-1797 (October-April); 1797 (April-May).

1797.—Division of country. See Europe: Map of central Europe.

1797 (May-October).—Creation of Ligurian and Cisapline republics.—Peace of Campo-Formio.—Lombardy relinquished by Austria.—Venice and Venetian territory made over to her. See France: 1797 (May-October).

1797-1798 (December-May).—French occupation of Rome.—Formation of Roman republic.—Removal of the pope. See France: 1797-1798 (December-May).

1798-1799.—Overthrow of Neapolitan kingdom.—Creation of Parthenopean republic.—Relinquishment of Piedmont by king of Sardinia.—French reverses. See France: 1798-1799 (August-April).

1799 (April-August).—Successful Austro-Russian campaign.—Suvarov's victories.—

French evacuation of Lombardy, Piedmont and Naples. See FRANCE: 1799 (April-September).

1799 (August-December).—Austrian successes.—Expulsion of French.—Fall of Parthenopean and Roman republics. See FRANCE: 1799 (August-December).

19th century.—Historiography.—Nationalist historians. See HISTORY: 29.

19th century.—Industrial revolution. See INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: Italy.

19th century.—Standard of education.—Elementary communal schools.—Secondary schools. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Italy.

1800.—Bonaparte's Marengo campaign.—Northern Italy recovered by French.—Siege and capture of Genoa by Austrians. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (May-February).

1801.—Treaty of Florence with France. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (June-February).

1802.—Name of Cisalpine republic changed to Italian republic.—Bonaparte president.—Annexation of part of Piedmont, with Parma and Elba, to France. See FRANCE: 1801-1803.

1805.—Transformation of Italian republic into kingdom of Italy.—Election and coronation of Napoleon.—Annexation of Genoa to France. See FRANCE: 1804-1805.

1805.—Cession of Venetian territory by Austria to kingdom of Italy. See GERMANY: 1805-1806.

1805-1806.—Napoleon's dethronement of the dynasty of Naples.—Joseph Bonaparte as imperial viceroy.—Napoleon's decrees.—His efforts toward making the pope a vassal king. See FRANCE: 1805-1806 (December-September).

1808.—Napoleon's annexation of Tuscany to France, and seizure of papal marches. See FRANCE: 1807-1808 (August-November).

1808 (July).—Crown of Naples resigned by Joseph Bonaparte. See SPAIN: 1808 (May-September).

(Southern): 1808-1809.—Beginning of reign of Murat at Naples.—Expulsion of English from Capri.—Insolence of Murat's soldiery.—Popular discontent and hatred.—Rise of Carbonari.—Their characteristics and tenets.—Civil war in Calabria.—"Joachim Murat, the new King of Naples, announced his accession to the nation [July, 1808]. 'The august Napoleon,' he said, 'had given him the kingdom of the two Sicilies. Gratitude to the donor, and a desire to benefit his subjects, would divide his heart.' . . . The commencement of Murat's reign was felicitous; the English, however, occupied the island of Capri, which, being placed at the opening of the gulf, is the key of the bay of Naples. Their presence stimulated all who were adverse to the new government, intimidated its adherents, and impeded the freedom of navigation, to the manifest injury of commerce; besides, it was considered disgraceful, that one of the Napoleonides should suffer an enemy so near, and that enemy the English, who were at once so hated and so despised. The indolence of Joseph had patiently suffered the disgrace; but Joachim, a spirited soldier, was indignant at it, and he thought it necessary to commence his reign by some important enterprise. He armed therefore against Capri: Sir Hudson Lowe was there in garrison with two regiments collected from all the nations of Europe, and which were called the Royal Corsican and the Royal Maltese. . . . A body of French and Neapolitans were sent from Naples and Salerno, under the command of General Lamarque, to reduce the island; and they effected a landing, by means of ladders hung to the rocks by iron hooks, and thus possessed themselves of Anacarpi, though not without great difficulty, as the English resolutely defended themselves. . . . The siege proceeded but slowly—succours of men and ammunition reached the besieged from Sicily; but fortune favoured the enemy, as an adverse wind drove the English out to sea. The King, who superintended the operations from the shore of Massa, having waited at the point of Campanella, seizing the propitious moment, sent fresh squadrons in aid of Lamarque, and the English, being already broken, and the forts dismantled, now yielded to the conqueror. The Neapolitans were highly gratified by the acquisition of Capri, and from that event augured well of the new government. The kingdom of Naples contained three classes of people—barons, republicans, and populace. The barons willingly joined the party of the new king, because they were pleased by the honours granted to them, and they were not without hopes of recovering their ancient privileges, or at least of acquiring new ones. . . . The republicans were, on the contrary, inimical to Joachim, not because he was a king, for they easily accommodated themselves to royalty; but because his conduct in Tuscany, where he had driven them forth or bound them in chains like malefactors, had rendered him personally obnoxious to them. They were moreover disgusted by his incredible vanity, which led him to court and caress with the most zealous adulation every bearer of a feudal title. . . . The populace, who cared no more for Joachim than they had done for Joseph, would easily have contented themselves with the new government, if it had protected them from the oppressions of the barons, and had procured for them quiet and abundance. But Joachim, wholly intent on courting the nobles, neglected the people, who, oppressed by the barons and soldiery, became alienated from him. . . . The spirit of discontent was further increased by his introduction of the conscription laws of France. . . . Joachim, a soldier himself, permitted every thing to his soldiery; and an insupportable military license was the result. Hence, also, they became the sole support of his power, and it took no root in the affections of the people. The insolence of the troops continually augmented: not only every desire, but every caprice of the head of a regiment, nay, even of the inferior officers, was to be complied with, as if they were the laws of the realm; and whosoever even lamented his subjection to their will was ill-treated and incurred some risk of being declared an enemy to the King. . . . The discontents produced by the enormities committed by the troops of Murat gave hopes to the court of Palermo that its fortunes might be re-established in the kingdom beyond the Faro. Meanwhile, the civil war raged in Calabria; nor were the Abruzzi tranquil. In these disturbances there were various factions in arms, and various objects were pursued: some of those who fought against Joachim, and had fought against Joseph, were adherents of Ferdinand,—others were the partisans of a republican constitution. . . . The sect of the Carbonari arose at this period."—C. Botta, *Italy during the consulate and empire of Napoleon, ch.* 5.—"The most famous, the most widely disseminated, and the most powerful of all the secret societies which sprang up in Italy was that of the Carbonari, or Charcoal-makers. . . . The Carbonari first began to attract attention in the Kingdom of Naples about the year 1808. A Genoese named Maghella, who burned with hatred of the French, is said to have initiated several Neapolitans into a secret order whose purpose it was to goad their countrymen

into rebellion. They quitted Naples, where Murat's vigilant policy kept too strict a watch on conspirators, and retired to the Abruzzi, where in order to disarm suspicion they pretended to be engaged in charcoal-burning. As their numbers increased, agents were sent to establish lodges in the principal towns. The Bourbon king, shut up in Sicily, soon heard of them, and as he had not hesitated at letting loose with English aid galley-prisoners, or at encouraging brigands, to harass Murat, so he eagerly connived with these conspirators in the hope of recovering his throne. Murat, having striven for several years to suppress the Carbonari, at last, when he found his power slipping from him, reversed his policy towards them, and strove to conciliate them. But it was too late: neither he nor they could prevent the restoration of the Bourbons under the protection of Austria. The sectaries who had hitherto foolishly expected that, if the French could be expelled, Ferdinand would grant them a Liberal government, were soon cured of their delusion, and they now plotted against him as sedulously as they had plotted against his predecessor. Their membership increased to myriads; their lodges, starting up in every village in the Kingdom of Naples, had relations with branch-societies in all parts of the Peninsula: to the anxious ears of European despots the name Carbonaro soon meant all that was lawless and terrible; it meant anarchy, chaos, assassination. But when we read the catechism, or confession of faith, of the Carbonari we are surprised by the reasonableness of their aims and tenets. The duties of the individual Carbonaro were, 'to render to the Almighty the worship due to Him; to serve the fatherland with zeal; to reverence religion and laws; to fulfil the obligations of nature and friendship; to be faithful to promises; to observe silence, discretion, and charity; to cause harmony and good morals to prevail; to conquer the passions and submit the will; and to abhor the seven deadly sins.' The scope of the Society was to disseminate instruction; to unite the different classes of society under the bond of love; to impress a national character on the people, and to interest them in the preservation and defense of the fatherland and of religion; to destroy by moral culture the source of crimes due to the general depravity of mankind; to protect the weak and to raise up the unfortunate. . . . It went still farther and asserted the un-Catholic doctrine of liberty of conscience: 'to every Carbonaro,' so reads one of its articles, 'belongs the natural and unalterable right to worship the Almighty according to his own intuition and understanding.' We must not be misled, however, by these enlightened professions, into a wrong notion of the real purposes of Carbonarism. Politics, in spite of a rule forbidding political discussion, were the main business, and ethics but the incidental concern of the conspirators. They organized their Order under republican forms as if to prefigure the ideal towards which they aspired. The Republic was subdivided into provinces, each of which was controlled by a grand lodge, that of Salerno being the 'parent.' There were also four 'Tribes,' each having a council and holding an annual diet. Each tribe had a Senate, which advised a House of Representatives, and this framed the laws which a magistracy executed. There were courts of the first instance, of appeal, and of cessation, and no Carbonaro might bring suit in the civil courts against a fellow member, unless he had first failed to get redress in one of these. . . . The Carbonari borrowed some of their rites from the Freemasons, with whom indeed they were commonly reported to be in such close relations that Freemasons who joined the 'Carbonic Republic' were spared the formality of initiation; other parts of their ceremonial they copied from the New Testament, with such additions as the special objects of the order called for."—W. R. Thayer, *Dawn of Italian independence, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 4.—See also CARBONARI.

ALSO IN: P. Colletta, *History of the kingdom of Naples, v.* 2, *bk.* 7.—T. Frost, *Secret societies of the European revolution, v.* 1, *ch.* 5.—H. Bunbury, *Great war with France, p.* 343, *and after.*—Chevalier O'Clery, *History of the Italian revolution, ch.* 3.

1809 (April-May).—Renewed war of Austria with France.—Austrian advance and retreat. See GERMANY: 1809 (January-June).

1809 (May-July).—Annexation of the papal states to French empire.—Removal of the pope to Savona.—Rome declared a free and imperial city. See PAPACY: 1808-1814.

1812.—Extent of dominions. See EUROPE: Modern: Map of central Europe in 1812.

1812.—Removal of captive pope to Fontainebleau. See PAPACY: 1808-1814.

1812.—Participation in Napoleon's disastrous campaign in Russia. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September), to (October-December).

1813.—Participation in war in Germany. See GERMANY: 1813 (April-May).

1814.—Desertion of Napoleon by Murat.—His treaty with the Allies.—Expulsion of French from the peninsula.—Murat, king of Naples, "foreseeing the downfall of the Emperor, had attempted to procure from Napoleon, as the price of his fidelity, the union under his own sceptre of all Italy south of the Po; but, failing in this, he prepared to abandon the cause of his benefactor. On the 11th January, 1814, he concluded a treaty with the Allies, by which he was guaranteed possession of Naples; and forthwith advancing on Rome with 20,000 men, occupied the second city in his brother-in-law's empire (Jan. 19); having previously published a flaming proclamation, in which the perfidy and violence of the imperial government were denounced in terms which came strangely from a chief of the Revolution. . . . At the end of December, 1813, Eugene had withdrawn to the Adige with 36,000 men, before Bellegarde and 50,000 Austrians; and he was already taking measures for a further retreat, when the proclamation of Murat, and his hostile advance, rendered such a movement inevitable. He had accordingly fallen back to the Mincio, when, finding himself threatened on the flank by a British expedition from Sicily under Lord William Bentinck, he determined on again advancing against Bellegarde, so as to rid himself of one enemy before he encountered another. The two armies, however, thus mutually acting on the offensive, passed each other, and an irregular action at last ensued on the Mincio (Feb. 8), in which the advantage was rather with the French, who made 1,500 prisoners, and drove Bellegarde shortly after over the Mincio, about 3,000 being killed and wounded on each side. But, in other quarters, affairs were going rapidly to wreck. Verona surrendered to the Austrians on the 14th, and Ancona to Murat on the 16th; and the desertion of the Italians, unequal to the fatigues of a winter campaign, was so great that the Viceroy was compelled to fall back to the Po. Fouché, meanwhile, as governor of Rome, had concluded a convention (Feb. 20) with the Neapolitan generals for the evacuation of Pisa, Leghorn, Florence, and other garrisons of the French empire in Italy. A

proclamation, however, by the hereditary prince of Sicily, who had accompanied Bentinck from Sicily, gave Murat such umbrage that he separated his troops from the British, and commenced operations, with little success, against Eugene on the Po, in which the remainder of March passed away. Bentinck, having at length received reinforcements from Catalonia, moved forward with 12,000 men, and occupied Spezia on the 29th of March, and, driving the French (April 8) from their position at Sestri, forced his way through the mountains, and appeared on the 16th in front of Genoa. On the 17th the forts and positions before the city were stormed; and the garrison, seeing preparations made for a bombardment, capitulated on the 18th, on condition of being allowed to march out with the honours of war. Murat had by this time recommenced vigorous operations, and after driving the French (April 13) from the Taro, had forced the passage of the Stura; but the news of Napoleon's fall put an end to hostilities. By a convention with the Austrians, Venice, Palma-Nuova, and the other fortresses still held by the French, were surrendered; the whole of Lombardy was occupied by the Germans; and in the first week of May the French troops finally repassed the Alps."—*Epitome of Alison's history of Europe, sect.* 775, 807-808.—See also AUSTRIA: 1809-1814.

1814-1815.—Return of despots.—Restoration of Austrian tyranny in the north.—Metternich's police and espionage system.—"With little resistance, Northern Italy was taken from the French. Had it been otherwise, had Murat and Beauharnais joined their forces, they might have long held the Austrians in check, perhaps even have made a descent on Vienna; and although this might not have hindered the ultimate overthrow of Napoleon, yet it must have compelled the Allies, at the day of settlement, to respect the wishes of the Italians. But disunited, and deluded into the belief that they were partners in a war of liberation, the Italians woke up to find that they had escaped from the talons of the French eagle, only to be caught in the clutch of the two-headed monstrosity of Austria. They were to be used, in the language of Joseph De Maistre, like coins, wherewith the Allies paid their debts. This was plain enough when the people of the just-destroyed Kingdom of Italy prepared to choose a ruler for themselves: one party favored Beauharnais, another wished an Austrian prince, a third an Italian, but all agreed in demanding independence. Austria quickly informed them that they were her subjects, and that their affairs would be decided at Vienna. Thus, almost without striking a blow, and without a suspicion of the lot awaiting them, the Northern Italians fell back under the domination of Austria. In the spring and early summer of 1814 the exiled princelings returned: Victor Emanuel I. from his savage refuge in Sardinia to Turin; Ferdinand III. from Würzburg to Florence; Pius VII. from his confinement at Fontainebleau and Savona to Rome [see PAPACY: 1808-1814]; Francis IV. to Modena. Other aspirants anxiously waited for the Congress of Vienna to bestow upon them the remaining provinces. The Congress . . . dragged on into the spring of the following year."—W. R. Thayer, *Dawn of Italian independence, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch* 2.—"The spirit of the Restoration of 1814-15 may be summed up in the words of the edict issued by Victor Emanuel I. on the day after his entry into Turin. 'Disregarding all other laws whatsoever, the public will, from the date of this edict, observe the Royal Ordinances of 1770, together with all other decrees issued up to June 23, 1800, by Our Royal Predecessors.' The rulers assembled in Council at Vienna saw safety only in a return to the conditions of life prevailing before the deluge, and in the case of Italy they believed that paternal government by a ring of Austrian and semi-Austrian princes would be the best guarantee for the peace and contentment of the populations But if, owing to the evil influences to which they had been exposed, the populations concerned failed to take this view of their deliverance; if they showed any signs of claiming a share in the business of government, or otherwise displayed their contamination with French ideas, the princes would know how to deal with them. The police and their shadows the *sbirri* would act as the sure support of the state in each of the restored governments; Napoleon's system of conscription would be retained as a convenient method of repressing outbreaks, and behind all native safeguards would stand the Austrian army of occupation, strong shield and bulwark of the re-established order. Thus reasoned the Holy Alliance of Sovereigns, which emerged from the Congress of Vienna as the new disposer of the destinies of Europe, and the sinister figure of Prince Metternich, Imperial Chancellor of Austria, supplied the persistence, the brains, and the longevity necessary to carry out such a conception. The Congress partitioned Italy into eight States: (1) the Austrian 'kingdom of Lombardy-Venetia,' with an archduke as viceroy; (2) the kingdom of Sardinia with its accession of Genoa and the Genoese Riviera; (3) the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, as Ferdinand now chose to rename his dominions; (4) the grand duchy of Tuscany; (5-7) the duchies of Parma, Modena, and Lucca, and finally the States of the Church, restored to the Pope in their entirety by the adroit diplomacy of Cardinal Consalvi. The tendency of some of these arrangements was unifying so far as it went, *e.g.* the final suppression of the two republics of Venice and Genoa, both of which had nourished hopes that the Congress would restore them to their ancient independence. So also with King Ferdinand's destruction of the autonomy of Sicily [1816], which followed closely on his re-establishment at Naples. With characteristic perfidy he rewarded the islanders for their loyalty during his long exile by depriving them, with a stroke of the royal pen, of the local autonomy which they had cherished all through the centuries of Spanish domination. Lord William Bentinck's constitution was swept away, with hardly a protest from England, and the island was flooded with Neapolitan officials whose misgovernment and corruption soon produced a state of intolerable tension between the two 'united Sicilies.' In the States of the Church the old municipal liberties which had survived from the Middle Ages had already been abolished by Napoleon, and the field was therefore left clear for the erection of a more untrammelled Papal despotism. As long as Pius VII. and his Minister Consalvi lived, the despotism was tempered by the latter's efforts to encourage the employment of laymen in the administration, to keep the provincial Legates and Delegates under check from Rome, and to maintain a sound finance; but with the restoration all the old abuses had in reality returned, and the proud cities of Romagna groaned under a government which was not only vile and corrupt in every department, but had the added odium of being forced anew on a generation that had outgrown it. In Piedmont and the duchy of Modena the Jesuits were re-established and soon

had the whole educational system in their hands; no Protestant chapel might be built in Turin; no Waldensian might hold office in the kingdom of Sardinia. If in Lombardy-Venetia the less clerical traditions of Joseph II. were followed in this and other matters, the dead weight of the Austrian occupation made itself felt in a political tyranny which was as ruthless as the ordinary administration was decent, and a sullen hatred of the white-coat and his ways arose among the educated classes. Perhaps it was only in Tuscany that the Restoration was truly welcomed, for there the Grand Duke Ferdinand (son of Leopold I.) and his Minister Fossombroni pursued the principle of letting well alone, and, having no domestic revolutionaries to fear, even extended a mild welcome to political refugees from other states. In Parma the ex-Empress Marie Louise prided herself on maintaining French law, liberty, and justice in spite of an Austrian garrison; but in the neighbouring duchy of Modena the restless, bigoted Duke Francis embodied all the darkest features of reaction pure and simple."—J. P. Trevelyan, *Short history of the Italian people, pp.* 466-469.—"Each district had its civil and military tribunals, but the men who composed these being appointees of the viceroy or his deputies, their subservience could usually be reckoned upon. The trials were secret, a provision which, especially in political cases, made convictions easy. . . . Feudal privileges, which had been abolished by the French, could be recovered by doing homage to the Emperor and by paying specific taxes. In some respects there was an improvement in the general administration, but in others the deterioration was manifest. . . . Art, science, and literature were patronized, and they throve as potted plants thrive under the care of a gardener who cuts off every new shoot at a certain height. . . . We may liken the people of the Austro-Italian provinces to those Florentine revelers who, at the time of the plague, tried to drive away their terror by telling each other the merry stories reported by Boccaccio. The plague which penetrated every corner of Lombardy and Venetia was the Austrian police. Stealthy, but sure, its unseen presence was dreaded in palace and hovel, in church, tribunal, and closet. . . . Every police-office was crammed with records of the daily habits of each citizen, of his visitors, his relatives, his casual conversations,—even his style of dress and diet were set down. . . . Such was the Metternichian system of police and espionage that counteracted every mild law and every attempt to lessen the repugnance of the Italians. They were not to be deceived by blandishments: Lombardy was a prison, Venetia was a prison, and they were all captives, although they seemed to move about unshackled to their work or pleasure."—W. R. Thayer, *Dawn of Italian independence, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 2.—See also VIENNA, CONGRESS OF; AUSTRIA: 1815-1849; HOLY ALLIANCE; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: b, 1.

(Southern): 1815.—Murat's attempt to head a national movement.—His failure, downfall and death.—Restoration of Bourbons at Naples.—"Wild as was the attempt in which, after Napoleon's return from Elba, the King of Naples lost his crown, we must yet judge of it both by his own character and the circumstances in which he was placed. . . . In the autumn of 1813 communications took place at Milan between Murat and the leaders of the secret societies which were then attempting to organise Italian patriotism in arms. In 1814, when the restoration of Austrian rule in Lombardy so cruelly disappointed the national hopes, these communications were renewed. The King of Naples was assured that he needed but to raise the standard of Italian independence to rally round him thousands and tens of thousands of volunteers. . . . These calculations . . . were readily adopted by the rash and vain-glorious monarch to whom they were presented. . . . His proud spirit chafed and fretted under the consciousness that he had turned upon Napoleon, and the mortification of finding himself deserted by those in reliance upon whose faith this sacrifice had been made. The events in France had taken him by surprise. In joining the alliance against Napoleon he had not calculated on the deposition of the emperor, still less had he dreamed of the destruction of the empire. . . . He bitterly reproached his own conduct for having lent himself to such results. . . . When his mind was agitated with these mingled feelings, the intelligence reached him that Napoleon had actually left Elba, on that enterprise in which he staked everything upon regaining the imperial throne of France. It came to him direct from Napoleon. . . . He foresaw that the armies of the allied powers would be engaged in a gigantic struggle with the efforts which Napoleon would be sure to make. Under such circumstances, he fancied Italy an easy conquest; once master of this he became a power with whom, in the conflict of nations, any of the contending parties could only be too happy to treat. He determined to place himself at the head of Italian nationality, and strike one daring blow for the chieftainship of the nation. . . . His ministers, his friends, the French generals, even his queen, Napoleon's sister, dissuaded him from such a course. . . . But with an obstinacy by which the vacillating appear sometimes to attempt to atone for habitual indecision, he persevered in spite of all advice. . . . He issued a proclamation and ordered his troops to cross the Papal frontier. . . . The Pope appointed a regency and retired, accompanied by most of the cardinals, to Florence. . . . On the 30th of March his [Murat's] troops attacked the Austrian forces at Cesena. The Germans were driven, without offering much resistance, from the town. On the evening of that day he issued from Rimini his proclamation to the Italian people, which was against Austria a declaration of war. . . . A declaration of war on the part of Austria immediately followed. . . . The whole of the Italian army of Austria was ordered at once to march upon Naples; and a treaty was concluded with Ferdinand, by which Austria engaged to use all her endeavours to recover for him his Neapolitan dominions. . . . The army which Murat led northward, instead of numbering 80,000 as he represented in his proclamation, certainly never exceeded 34,000. . . . Nearly 60,000 Austrians defended the banks of the Po. . . . On the 10th of April, the troops of Murat, under the command of General Pepe, were driven back by the Austrians, who now in their turn advanced. . . . A retreat to the frontiers of Naples was unanimously resolved on. This retreat was one that had all the disasters without any of the redeeming glories of war. . . . At last, as they approached the confines of the Neapolitan kingdom, an engagement which took place between Macerata and Tolentino, on the 4th of May, ended in a total and ignominious rout. . . . At Macerata most of the troops broke up into a disorganised rabble, and with difficulty Murat led to Capua a small remnant of an army, that could hardly be said to be defeated, because they were worsted without anything that deserves to be called a fight.

From Capua, on the 12th of May, the king sent to Naples a proclamation granting a free constitution. To conceal the fact that this was wrung from him only in distress, he resorted to the miserable subterfuge of ante-dating it from Rimini, on the 30th of March." On the evening of the 18th of May, Murat entered Naples quietly on foot, and had his last interview with his queen and children. A British squadron was already in the harbor. The next night he slipped away to the island of Ischia, and thence to Frejus, while Queen Caroline remained to discharge the last duties of sovereignty. On the 20th Naples was surrendered to the Austrians, and the ex-queen took refuge on an English vessel to escape from a threatening mob of the lazzaroni. She was conveyed to Trieste, where the Austrian emperor had offered her an asylum. The restored Bourbon king, Ferdinand, made his entry into the capital on the 17th of June. Meantime, Murat, in France, had offered his services to Napoleon and they had been declined. After Waterloo, he escaped to Corsica, whence, in the following October, he made a foolhardy attempt to recover his kingdom, landing with a few followers at Pizzo, on the Neapolitan coast, expecting a rising of the people to welcome his return. But the rising that occurred was hostile instead of friendly. The party was quickly overpowered, Murat taken prisoner and delivered to Ferdinand's officers. He was summarily tried by court martial and shot, October 13, 1815.—I. Butt, *History of Italy, v. 2, ch. 10-11.*

Also in: P. Colletta, *History of Naples, v. 2, bk. 7, ch. 5; bk. 8, ch. 1.*

1820-1821.—Revolutionary insurrections in Naples and Sicily.—Perjury and duplicity of king.—Revolt crushed by Austrian troops.—Abortive insurrection in Piedmont.—Its end at Novara.—Abdication of Victor Emmanuel I, king of Sardinia.—Accession of Charles Felix.—Entire suppression of liberty under Austrian rule.—"In the last days of February, 1820, a revolution broke out in Spain. The object of its leaders was to restore the Constitution of 1812, which had been suppressed on the return of the Bourbons to the throne. . . . The Revolution proved successful, and for a short time the Spaniards obtained possession of a democratic Constitution. Their success stirred up the ardour of the Liberal party in the kingdom of the two Sicilies, and before many weeks were over a revolutionary movement occurred at Naples. The insurrection originated with the army under the command of General Pepé, and it is worthy of note that the movement was not directed against the reigning dynasty, and was not, even nominally, associated with any demand for national unity. All the insurgents asked for was the establishment of a Constitution similar to that then existing in Spain. After a very brief and feeble resistance, the King yielded to the demands of the military conspirators, who were strongly supported by popular feeling. On the 1st of October, a Parliament of the Neapolitan kingdom was opened by His Majesty Francis the First, who then and there took a solemn oath to observe the Constitution, and even went out of his way to profess his profound attachment for the principles on which the new Government was based. General Pepé thereupon resigned the Dictatorship he had assumed, and constitutional liberty was deemed to have been finally established in Southern Italy by a bloodless revolution. The rising on the mainland was followed after a brief interval by a popular insurrection in Sicily. The main object, however, of the Sicilian Constitutionalists was to bring about a legislative separation between the island and the kingdom of Naples proper. . . . The Sicilian insurrection afforded Francis I. the pretext he had looked for, from the commencement, for overthrowing the Constitution to which he had personally plighted his faith. The Allied Sovereigns took alarm at the outbreak of the revolutionary spirit in Sicily, and a Congress of the Great Powers was convoked at Laibach [see Verona, Congress of] to consider what steps required to be taken for the protection of social order in the kingdom of Naples. . . . By the Neapolitan Constitution the Sovereign was not at liberty to leave the kingdom without the consent of the Parliament. This consent was only given, after much hesitation, in reliance upon the reiterated assurances of the King, both publicly and privately, that his one object in attending the Congress was to avert, if possible, a foreign intervention. His Majesty also pledged himself most solemnly not to sanction any change in the Constitution to which he had sworn allegiance, and . . . he promised further that he would not be a party to any reprisals being inflicted upon his subjects for the part they might have taken in the establishment of Constitutional liberty. As soon, however, as Francis the First had arrived at Laibach, he yielded without a protest to the alleged necessity for a foreign occupation of his kingdom, with the avowed object of putting down the Constitution. Without any delay being given, the Austrian regiments crossed the frontier, preceded by a manifesto from the King, calling upon his faithful subjects to receive the army of occupation not as enemies, but as friends. . . . The national troops, under General Pepé, were defeated with ease by the Austrians, who in the course of a few weeks effected, almost without opposition, the military occupation of the whole kingdom [February-March, 1821]. Forthwith reprisals commenced in grim earnest. On the plea that the resistance offered by the Constitutionalists to the invading army constituted an act of high treason, the King declared himself absolved from all promises he had given previously to his departure. A reign of terror was set on foot. . . . Signor Botta thus sums up the net result of the punishments inflicted after the return of the King in Neapolitan provinces alone. 'About a thousand persons were condemned to death, imprisoned, or exiled. Infinitely greater was the number of officers and officials who were deprived of their posts by the Commissioners of Investigation.' . . . The establishment of Constitutional Government in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and the resolution adopted at the instigation of Austria, by the Congress of Laibach, to suppress the Neapolitan Constitution by armed force, produced a profound effect throughout Italy, and especially in Sardinia. The fact that internal reforms were incompatible with the ascendency of Austria in the Peninsula was brought home to the popular mind, and, for the first time in the history of Italy, the desire for civil liberty became identified with the national aversion to foreign rule. In Piedmont there was a powerful Constitutional party, composed chiefly of professional men, and a strong military caste, aristocratic by birth and conviction, but opposed on national grounds to the domination of Austria over Italy. These two parties coalesced for a time upon the common platform of Constitutional Reform and war with Austria; and the result was the abortive rising of 1821. The insurrection, however, though directed against the established Govern-

ment, had about it nothing of an anti-dynastic, or even of a revolutionary character. On the contrary, the leaders of the revolt professed, and probably with sincerity, that they were carrying out the true wishes of their Sovereign. Their theory was, that Victor Emmanuel I. was only compelled to adhere to the Holy Alliance by considerations of foreign policy, and that, if his hands were forced, he would welcome any opportunity of severing himself from all complicity with Austria. Acting on this belief, they determined to proclaim the Constitution by a sort of coup d'état, and then, after having declared war on Austria, to invade Lombardy, and thus create a diversion in favour of the Neapolitans. It is certain that Victor Emmanuel I. gave no sanction to, and was not even cognisant of, this mad enterprise. . . . The troubles and calamities of his early life had exhausted his energy; and his one desire was to live at peace at home and abroad. On the other hand, it is certain that Charles Albert [prince of Savoy-Carignan, heir presumptive to the throne of Sardinia] was in communication with the leaders of the insurrection, though how far he was privy to their actual designs has never yet been clearly ascertained. The insurrection broke out just about the time when the Austrian troops were approaching the Neapolitan frontiers. . . . The insurrection gained head rapidly, and the example of Alexandria was followed by the garrison of Turin. Pressure was brought to bear upon Victor Emmanuel I., and he was led to believe that the only means of averting civil war was to grant the Constitution. The pressure, however, overshot its mark. On the one hand, the King felt that he could not possibly withstand the demand for a Constitution at the cost of having to order the regiments which had remained loyal to fire upon the insurgents. On the other hand, he did not feel justified in granting the Constitution without the sanction of his brother and [immediate] heir. In order, therefore, to escape from this dilemma, his Majesty abdicated suddenly in favour of Charles Felix [his brother]. As, however, the new Sovereign happened to be residing at Modena, at the Court of his brother-in-law, the Prince of Savoy-Carignan was appointed Regent until such time as Charles Felix could return to the capital. Immediately upon his abdication, Victor Emmanuel quitted Turin, and Charles Albert was left in supreme authority as Regent of the State. Within twelve hours of his accession to power, the Regent proclaimed the Spanish Constitution as the fundamental law of Piedmont. . . . The probability is . . . that Charles Albert, or rather his advisers, were anxious to tie the hands of the new Sovereign. They calculated that Charles Felix who was no longer young, and who was known to be bitterly hostile to all Liberal theories of Government, would abdicate sooner than accept the Crown of a Constitutional kingdom. This calculation proved erroneous. . . . As soon as his Majesty learned the news of what had occurred in his absence, he issued a manifesto [March, 1821], declaring all the reforms granted under the Regency to be null and void, describing the authors of the Constitution as rebels, and avowing his intention, in the case of necessity, of calling upon the Allied Powers to assist him in restoring the legitimate authority of the Crown. Meanwhile, he refused to accept the throne till the restoration of order had given Victor Emmanuel full freedom to reconsider the propriety of abdication. This manifesto was followed by the immediate advance of an Austrian corps d'armée to the frontier stream of the Ticino, as well as by the announcement that the Russian Government had ordered an army of 100,000 men to set out on their march towards Italy, with the avowed object of restoring order in the Peninsula. The population of Piedmont recognised at once, with their practical good sense, that any effective resistance was out of the question. . . . The courage of the insurgents gave way in view of the obstacles which they had to encounter, and the last blow was dealt to their cause by the sudden defection of the Prince Regent. . . . Unable either to face his coadjutors in the Constitutional pronunciamento, or to assume the responsibility of an open conflict with the legitimate Sovereign, the Regent left Turin secretly [March 21, 1821], without giving any notice of his intended departure, and, on arriving at Novara, formally resigned his short-lived power. The leaders, however, of the insurrection had committed themselves too deeply to follow the example of the Regent. A Provisional Government was established at Turin, and it was determined to march upon Novara, in the hope that the troops collected there would fraternise with the insurgents. As soon as it was known that the insurgents were advancing in force from Turin, the Austrians, under General Bübner, crossed the Ticino, and effected a junction with the Royal troops. When the insurgents reached Novara, they suddenly found themselves confronted, not by their own fellow-countrymen, but by an Austrian army. A panic ensued, and the insurrectionary force suffered a disastrous, though, fortunately, a comparatively bloodless, defeat. After this disaster the insurrection was virtually at an end. . . . The Austrians, with the consent of Charles Felix, occupied the principal fortresses of Piedmont. The old order of things was restored, and, upon Victor Emmanuel's formal refusal to withdraw his abdication, Charles Felix assumed the title of King of Sardinia. As soon as military resistance had ceased, the insurrection was put down with a strong hand."—E. Dicey, *Victor Emmanuel, ch.* 3-4.—"Henceforth the issue could not be misunderstood. The conflict was not simply between the Neapolitans and their Bourbon king, or between the Piedmontese and Charles Felix, but between Italian Liberalism and European Absolutism. Santarosa and Pepé cried out in their disappointment that the just cause would have won had their timid colleagues been more daring, had promises but been kept; we, however, see clearly that though the struggle might have been prolonged, the result would have been unchanged. Piedmont and Naples, had each of their citizens been a hero, could not have overcome the Holy Alliance [see HOLY ALLIANCE], which was their real antagonist. The revolutionists had not directly attacked the Holy Alliance; they had not thrown down the gauntlet to Austria; they had simply insisted that they had a right to constitutional government; and Austria, more keen-witted than they, had seen that to suffer a constitution at Naples or Turin would be to acknowledge the injustice of those principles by which the Holy Alliance had decreed that Europe should be repressed to the end of time. So when the Carbonari aimed at Ferdinand they struck Austria, and Austria struck back a deadly blow. . . . But Austria and the Reactionists were not content with simple victory; treating the revolution as a crime, they at once proceeded to take vengeance. . . . Ferdinand, the perjured Neapolitan king, tarried behind in Florence, whilst the Austrians went

down into his kingdom. . . . But as soon as Ferdinand was assured that the Austrian regiments were masters of Naples, he sent for that Prince of Canosa whom he had been forced unwillingly to dismiss on account of his outrageous cruelty five years before, and deputed to him the task of restoring genuine Bourbon tyranny in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. A better agent of vindictive wrath than Canosa could not have been found; he was troubled by no humane compunctions, nor by doubts as to the justice of his fierce measures; to him, as to Torquemada, persecution was a compound of duty and pleasure. . . . The right of assembling, no matter for what purpose, being denied, the universities, schools, and lyceums had to close; proscription lists were hurriedly drawn up, and they contained not only the names of those who had been prominent in the recent rising, but also of all who had incurred suspicion for any political acts as far back as 1793. . . . Houses were searched without warrant; seals were broken open; some of the revelations of the confessional were not sacred. The church-bells tolled incessantly for victims led to execution. To strike deeper terror, Canosa revived the barbarous torture of scourging in public. . . . How many victims actually suffered during this reign of terror we cannot tell. Canosa's list of the proscribed had, it is said, more than four thousand names. The prisons were choked with persons begging for trial; the galleys of Pantelleria, Procida, and the Ponza Islands swarmed with victims condemned for life; the scaffolds, erected in the public squares of the chief towns, were daily occupied. . . . At length, when his deputies had terrorized the country into apparent submission, and when the Austrian regiments made it safe for him to travel, Ferdinand quitted Florence and returned to Naples. . . . In Sicily the revolution smouldered and spluttered for years, in spite of remorseless efforts to stamp it out; on the mainland, robberies and brigandage, and outbreaks now political and now criminal, proved how delusive was a security based on oppression and lies. Amid these conditions Ferdinand passed the later years of his infamous reign. . . . In Piedmont the retaliation was as effectual as in Naples, but less blood was shed there. Della Torre took command of the kingdom in the name of Charles Felix. . . . Seventy-three officers were condemned to death, one hundred and five to the galleys; but as nearly all of them had escaped, they were hanged in effigy; only two, Lieutenant Lanari and Captain Garelli, were executed. The property of the condemned was sequestrated, their families were tormented, and the commission, not content with sentencing those who had taken an active part in the revolution, cashiered two hundred and twenty-one officers who, while holding aloof from Santarosa, had refused to join Della Torre at Novara and fight against their countrymen. . . . The King . . . had soon reason to learn the truth of a former epigram of his, 'Austria is a bird-lime which you cannot wash off your fingers when you have once touched it'; for Austria soon showed that her motive in bolstering falling monarchs on their shaky thrones was not simply philanthropic nor disinterested. General Bubna, on taking possession of Alessandria, sent the keys of that fortress to Emperor Francis, in order, he said,—and we wonder whether there was no sarcasm in his voice,—in order to give Charles Felix 'the pleasure of receiving them back from the Emperor's hand.' 'Although I found this a very poor joke,' wrote Charles Felix to his brother, 'I dissembled.' How, indeed, could he do otherwise? . . . Charles Felix had in truth become but the vassal of the hereditary enemy of his line, and that not by conquest, but by his own invitation."—W. R. Thayer, *Dawn of Italian independence, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 7.

Also in: P. Colletta, *History of Naples, v.* 2, *bk.* 9-10.—A. Gallenga, *History of Piedmont, v.* 3, *ch.* 6.—R. H. Wrightson, *History of modern Italy, ch.* 2-3, 6.

1820-1822.—Congresses of Troppau, Laibach and Verona. See Verona, Congress of.

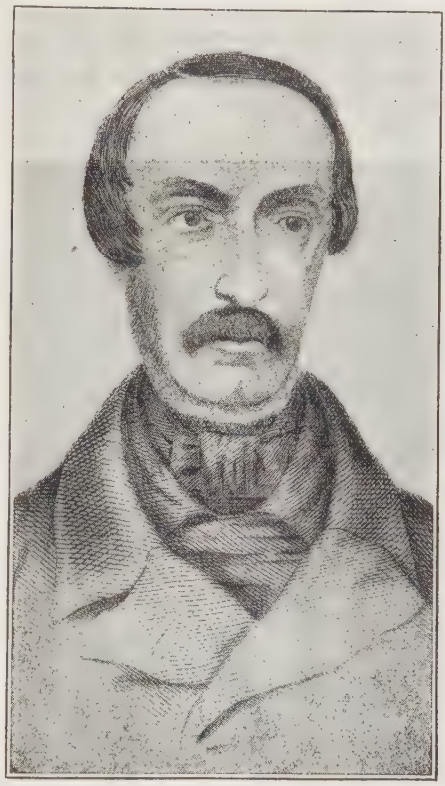
1820-1860.—Bourbon persecutions.—Rise of the Camorra. See Camorra: 1820-1860.

1830-1832.—Revolt in Modena, Parma and papal states, suppressed by Austrian troops.—Charles Albert's accession as king of Sardinia.—"The Revolution of 1830 [in France] made a natural impression in a country which had many evils to complain of and which had so lately been connected with France. The duke of Modena, Francis IV., sought to make use of the liberal movement to extend his rule over northern Italy. But at the last moment he was terrified by threats from Vienna, turned against his fellow-conspirators, and imprisoned them (Feb. 3, 1831). The people, however, were so alienated by his treachery that he fled with his prisoners to seek safety in Austrian territory. A provisional government was formed, and Modena was declared a free state. Meanwhile the election of a new pope, Gregory XVI., gave occasion for a rising in the papal states. Bologna took the lead in throwing off its allegiance to Rome, and in a few weeks its example was followed by the whole of Romagna, Umbria, and the Marches. The two sons of Louis Bonaparte, the late king of Holland, hastened to join the insurgents, but the elder died at Forli (17 March), and thus an eventful career was opened to the younger brother, the future Napoleon III. Parma revolted against Maria Louisa, who followed the example of the duke of Modena and fled to Austria. The success of the movement, however, was very short-lived. Austrian troops marched to the assistance of the papacy, the rebellion was put down by force, and the exiled rulers were restored. Louis Philippe, on whom the insurgents had relied, had no sympathy with a movement in which members of the Bonaparte family were engaged. But a temporary revival of the insurrection brought the Austrians back to Romagna, and a great outcry was raised in France against the king. To satisfy public opinion, Louis Philippe sent a French force to seize Ancona (Feb. 22, 1832), but it was a very harmless demonstration, and had been explained beforehand to the papal government. In Naples and Sardinia no disturbances took place. Ferdinand II. succeeded his father Francis I. on the Neapolitan throne in 1830, and satisfied the people by introducing a more moderate system of government. Charles Albert became king of Sardinia on the death of Charles Felix, (April 27, 1831), and found himself in a difficult position between Austria, which had good reason to mistrust him, and the liberal party, which he had betrayed."—R. Lodge, *History of modern Europe, ch.* 25.

Also in: L. C. Farini, *Roman state, v.* 1, *ch.* 3-5.

1831-1848.—Mazzini, the revolutionist.—Young Italy.—Defeat of Mazzini's first revolutionary attempt.—His remarkable influence during exile.—"The Revolution of 1830, ineffectual as it seemed to its promoters, was yet most significant. It failed in Italy and Poland, in Spain

and Portugal; it created a mongrel monarchy, neither Absolute nor Constitutional, in France; only in Belgium did it attain its immediate purpose. Nevertheless, if we look beneath the surface, we see that it was one of those epoch-marking events of which we can say, 'Things cannot be again what until just now they were.' . . . The late risings in the Duchies and Legations had brought no comfort to the conspirators, but had taught them, on the contrary, how ineffectual, how hopeless was the method of the secret societies. After more than fifteen years they had not gained an inch; they had only learned that their rulers would concede nothing, and that Austria, their great adversary, had staked her existence on maintaining thraldom in Italy. Innumerable small outbursts and three revolutions had ended in the death of hundreds and in the imprisonment or proscription of thousands of victims. . . . Just when conspiracy, through repeated failures, was thus discredited, there arose a leader so strong and unselfish, so magnetic and patient and zealous, that by him, if by any one, conspiracy might be guided to victory. This leader, the Great Conspirator, was Joseph Mazzini, one of the half dozen supreme influences in European politics during the nineteenth century, whose career will interest posterity as long as it is concerned at all in our epoch of transition. For just as Metternich was the High Priest of the Old Régime, so Mazzini was the Prophet of a Social Order, more just, more free, more spiritual than any the world has known. He was an idealist who would hold no parley with temporizers, an enthusist whom half-concessions could not beguile: and so he came to be decried as a fanatic or a visionary. . . . Mazzini joined the Carbonari, not without suspecting that, under their complex symbolism and hierarchical mysteries they concealed a fatal lack of harmony, decision, and faith. . . . As he became better acquainted with Carbonarism, his conviction grew stronger that no permanent good could be achieved by it. . . . The open propaganda of his Republican and Unitarian doctrines was of course impossible; it must be carried on by a secret organization. But he was disgusted with the existing secret societies: they lacked harmony, they lacked faith, they had no distinct purpose. . . . Therefore, Mazzini would have none of them; he would organize a new secret society, and call it 'Young Italy,' whose principles should be plainly understood by every one of its members. It was to be composed of men under forty, in order to secure the most energetic and disinterested members, and to avoid the influence of older men, who, trained by the past generation, were not in touch with the aspirations and needs of the new. It was to awaken the People, the bone and sinew of the nation; whereas the earlier sects had relied too much on the upper and middle classes, whose traditions and interests were either too aristocratic or too commercial. Roman Catholicism had ceased to be spiritual; it no longer purified and uplifted the hearts of the Italians. . . . Young Italy aimed, therefore, to substitute for the mediæval dogmas and patent idolatries of Rome a religion based on Reason, and so simple as to be within the comprehension of the humblest peasant. . . . The doctrines of the new sect spread. . . . Contrary to Mazzini's expectations, it was recruited, not so much from the People, as from the Middle Class, the professional men, and the tradesmen." In 1831 Mazzini was forced into exile, at Marseilles, from which city he planned an invasion of Savoy. The project was discovered, and the Sardinian government revenged itself cruelly upon the patriots within its reach. "In a few weeks, eleven alleged conspirators had been executed, many more had been sentenced to the galleys, and others, who had escaped, were condemned in contumacy. Among the men who fled into exile at this time were . . . Vincent Gioberti and Joseph Garibaldi. . . . To an enthusiast less determined than Mazzini, this calamity would have been a check; to him, however, it was a spur. Instead of abandoning the expedition against Savoy, he worked with might and main to hurry it on. . . . One column, in which were fifty Italians and twice as many Poles, . . . was to enter Savoy by way of Annemasse. A second column had orders to push on from Nyon; a third, starting from



GIUSEPPE MAZZINI

Lyons, was to march towards Chambéry. Mazzini, with a musket on his shoulder, accompanied the first party. To his surprise, the peasants showed no enthusiasm when the tri-color flag was unfurled and the invaders shouted 'God and People! Liberty and the Republic!' before them. At length some carabineers and a platoon of troops appeared. A few shots were fired. Mazzini fainted; his comrades dispersed across the Swiss border, taking him with them. . . . His enemies attributed his fainting to cowardice; he himself explained it as the result of many nights of sleeplessness, of great fatigue, fever and cold. . . . To all but the few concerned in it, this first venture of Young Italy seemed a farce, the disproportion between its aim and its achievement was so enormous, and Mazzini's personal collapse was so ignominious. Nevertheless, Italian conspiracy had now and henceforth that head for lack of which it had so long floundered amid vague

and contradictory purposes. The young Idealist had been beaten in his first encounter with obdurate Reality, but he was not discouraged. . . . Now began in earnest that 'apostolate' of his, which he laid down only at his death. Young Italy was established beyond the chance of being destroyed by an abortive expedition; Young Poland, Young Hungary, Young Europe itself, sprang up after the Mazzinian pattern; the Liberals and revolutionists of the Continent felt that their cause was international, and in their affliction they fraternized. No one could draw so fair and reasonable a Utopia for them as Mazzini drew; no one could so fire them with a sense of duty, with hope, with energy. He became the mainspring of the whole machine—truly an infernal machine to the autocrats—of European conspiracy. The redemption of Italy was always his nearest aim, but his generous principle reached out over other nations, for in the world that he prophesied every people must be free. Proscribed in Piedmont, expelled from Switzerland, denied lodging in France, he took refuge in London, there to direct, amid poverty and heartache, the whole vast scheme of plots. His bread he earned by writing critical and literary essays for the English reviews,—he quickly mastered the English language so as to use it with remarkable vigor,—and all his leisure he devoted to the preparation of political tracts, and to correspondence with numberless confederates. . . . He was the consulting physician for all the revolutionary practitioners of Europe. Those who were not his partisans disparaged his influence, asserting that he was only a man of words; but the best proof of his power lies in the anxiety he caused monarchs and cabinets, and in the precautions they took to guard against him. . . . Mazzini and Metternich! For nearly twenty years they were the antipodes of European politics. One in his London garret, poor, despised, yet indomitable and sleepless, sending his influence like an electric current through all barriers to revivify the heart of Italy and of Liberal Europe; the other in his Vienna palace . . . shedding over Italy and over Europe his upas-doctrines of torpor and decay!" —W. R. Thayer, *Dawn of Italian independence, v.* 1, *bk.* 3, *ch.* 1.

POPE PIUS IX
(After painting by Anelli)

Also in: J. Mazzini, *Collected works, v.* 1.—E. F. Richards, ed., *Mazzini's letters.*

1848.—Constitution granted to Sardinia. See Italy, Constitution of.

1848.—Expulsion of Jesuits. See Jesuits: 1769-1871.

1848-1849. — Insurrection and revolution throughout the peninsula.—Moderate liberalism of Pius IX.—Temporary success of revolutionary cause.—French occupation of Rome.—Triumph of King "Bomba" in Naples and Sicily.—Disastrous war of Sardinia with Austria.—Lombardy and Venice enslaved anew.—Apparent failure of revolutionary movement.—"The revolution of 1831, which affected the States of the Church, Modena, and Parma, had been suppressed, like the still earlier rebellions in Naples and Piedmont, by Austrian intervention. . . . Hence, all the hatred of the Italians was directed against foreign rule, as the only obstacle to the freedom and unity of the peninsula. . . . The secret societies, and the exiles in communication with them —especially Joseph Mazzini, who issued his commands from London—took care that the national spirit should not be buried beneath material interests, but should remain ever wakeful. Singularly, the first encouragement came from" Rome. "Pope Gregory XVI., . . . had died June 1st, 1846, and been succeeded by the fifty-four-year-old Cardinal Count Mastai Ferretti, who took the name of Pius IX. If the pious world which visited him was charmed by the amiability and clemency of its new head, the cardinals were dismayed at the reforms which this new head would fain introduce in the States of the Church and in all Italy. He published an amnesty for all political offences; permitted the exiles to return with impunity; allowed the Press freer scope; threw open the highest civil offices to laymen; summoned from the notables of the provinces a council of state, which was to propose reforms; bestowed a liberal municipal constitution on the city of Rome; and endeavored to bring about an Italian confederation. . . . After the French revolution of 1848 he granted a constitution. There was a first chamber, to be named by the Pope, and a second chamber, to be elected by the people, while the irresponsible college of cardinals formed a sort of privy council. A new era appeared to be dawning. The old-world capital, Rome, once the mistress of the nations, still the mistress of all Roman Catholic hearts, was to become the central point of Italy. . . . But when the flames of war broke out in the north [see below], and the fate of Italy was about to be decided between Sardinia and Austria on the old battle fields of Lombardy, the Romans demanded from the Pope a declaration of war against Austria, and the despatch of Roman troops to join Charles Albert's army. Pius rejected their demands as unsuited to his papal office, and so broke with the men of the extreme party. . . . In this time of agitation Pius thought that in Count Pellegrino Rossi, of Carrara, . . . he had found the right man to carry out a policy of moderate liberalism, and on the 17th of September, 1848, he set him at the head of the new ministry. The anarchists . . . could not forgive Rossi for grasping the reins with a firm hand." On the 15th of November, as he alighted from his

carriage at the door of the Chambers, he was stabbed in the neck by an assassin, and died on the spot. He was about, when murdered, to open the Chambers with a speech, in which he intended "to promise abolition of the rule of the cardinals and introduction of a lay government, and to insist upon Italy's independence and unity. . . . The next day an armed crowd appeared before the Quirinal and attacked the guard, which consisted of Swiss mercenaries, some of the bullets flying into the Pope's antechamber. He had to accept a radical ministry and dismiss the Swiss troops. . . . Pius fled in disguise from Rome to Gaeta, November 24th, and sought shelter with the King of Naples. Mazzini and his party had free scope. A constitutional convention was summoned, which declared the temporal power of the Pope abolished (February 5th, 1849), and Rome a republic. To them attached itself Tuscany. Grand-duke Leopold II. had granted a constitution, February 17th, 1848, but nevertheless the republican-minded ministry of Guerrazzi compelled him to join the Pope at Gaeta, February 21st, 1849. The republic was then proclaimed in Tuscany and union with Rome resolved upon." But Louis Napoleon, president of the French republic, intervened. "Marshal Oudinot was despatched with 8,000 men. He landed in Civita Vecchia, April 26th, 1849, and appeared before the walls of Rome on the 30th, expecting to take the city without any trouble. But . . . after a fight of several hours, he had to retreat to Civita Vecchia with a loss of 700 men. A few days later the Neapolitan army, which was to attack the rebels from the south, was defeated at Velletri; and the Spanish troops, the third in the league against the red republic, prudently avoided a battle. But Oudinot received considerable re-enforcements, and on June 3d he advanced against Rome for the second time, with 35,000 men, while the force in the city consisted of about 19,000, mostly volunteers and national guards. In spite of the bravery of Garibaldi and the volunteers, into whom he breathed his spirit, Rome had to capitulate, after a long and bloody struggle, owing to the superiority of the French artillery. On the 4th of July Oudinot entered the silent capital. Garibaldi, Mazzini, and their followers fled. . . . Pius, for whose nerves the Roman atmosphere was still too strong, did not return until the 4th of April, 1850. His ardor for reform was cooled. . . . In the Legations they had to protect themselves by Austrian bayonets, and in Rome and Civita Vecchia by French. This lasted in the Legations until 1859, and in Rome and Civita Vecchia until 1866 and 1870. Simultaneously with Rome the south of Italy had entered into the movement so characteristic of the year 1848. The scenes of 1820 and 1821 were repeated." The Sicilians again demanded independence; expelled the Neapolitan garrison from Palermo; refused to accept a constitution proffered by King Ferdinand II, which created a united parliament for Naples and Sicily; voted in a Sicilian parliament the perpetual exclusion of the Bourbon dynasty from the throne, and offered the crown of Sicily to a son of the king of Sardinia, who declined the gift. In Naples, Ferdinand yielded at first to the storm, and sent, under compulsion, a force of 13,000 Neapolitan troops, commanded by the old revolutionist, General Pepe, to join the Sardinians against Austria. This was in April, 1848. A month later he crushed the revolution with his Swiss mercenaries, recalled his army from northern Italy, and was master, again, in his capital and his peninsular kingdom. The following summer he landed 8,000 troops in Sicily; his army bombarded and stormed Messina in September; defeated the insurgents at the foot of Mount Etna; took Catania by storm in April, 1849, and entered Palermo, after a short bombardment, on the 17th of May, having gained for its master the nickname of "King Bomba." "He ordered a general disarmament, and established an oppressive military rule over the whole island; and there was no more talk of parliament and constitution. All these struggles in central and southern Italy stood in close connection with the events of 1848 and 1849 in upper Italy. . . . In the north the struggle was to shake off the Austrian yoke. . . . During the month of January, 1848, there was constant friction between the citizens and the military in Milan and the university cities of Pavia and Padua. . . . March 18th, Milan rose. All classes took part in the fight; and the eighty-two-year-old field-marshal Count Joseph Radetzky . . . was obliged, after a street fight of two days, to draw his troops out of the city, call up as quickly as possible the garrisons of the neighboring cities, and take up his position in the famous Quadrilateral, between Peschiera, Verona, Legnano, and Mantua. March 22d, Venice, where Count Zichy commanded, was lost for the Austrians," who yielded without resistance, releasing their political prisoners, one of whom, the celebrated Daniel Manin, a Venetian lawyer, took his place at the head of a provisional government. "Other cities followed the lead of Venice. The little duchies of Modena and Parma could hold out no longer; Dukes Francis and Charles fled to Austria, and provisional governments sprung up behind them. Like Naples, the duchies and Tuscany also sent their troops across the Po to help the Sardinians in the decisive struggle. The hopes of all Italy were centred on Sardinia and its king. . . . Charles Albert, called to the aid of Lombardy, entered Milan to win for himself the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom and the hegemony of Italy. He presented himself as the liberator of the peninsula, but it was not a part for which he was qualified by his antecedents. . . . He was a brave soldier, but a poor captain. . . . His opponent, Radetzky, was old, but his spirit was still young and fresh. . . . Radetzky received re-enforcements from Austria, and on the 6th of May repelled the attack of the Sardinian king south-west of Verona [at Santa Lucia]. May 29th, he carried the intrenchments at Cartatone; but as the Sardinians were victorious at Goito and took Peschiera, while Garibaldi with his Alpine rangers threatened the Austrian rear, he had to desist from further advances, and limit his operations to the recapture of Vicenza and the other cities of the Venetian main-land. In the mean time the Austrian court, chiefly at the instigation of the British embassy, had opened negotiations with the Lombards, and offered them their independence on condition of their assuming a considerable share of the public debt, and concluding a favorable commercial treaty with Austria. But, as the Lombards felt sure of acquiring their freedom more cheaply, they did not accept the proposition. Radetzky was now in a position to assume an active offensive. He won a brilliant victory at Custozza, July 25th. The Sardinians attempted to make a stand at Goito and again at Volta, but were driven back, and Radetzky advanced on Milan. Charles Albert had to evacuate the city," and on the 9th of August he concluded an armistice, withdrawing his troops from Lombardy and the duchies. But in the following March (1849) he was persuaded to renew the war, and he placed his army under the com-

mand of the Polish general Chrzanowski. It was the intention of the Sardinians to advance again into Lombardy, but they had no opportunity. "Radetzky crossed the Ticino, and in a four days' campaign on Sardinian soil defeated the foe so completely—March 21st at Mortara, and March 23d at Novara—that there could be no more thought of a renewal of the struggle. . . . Charles Albert, who had vainly sought death upon the battle-field, was weary of his throne and his life. In the night of March 23d, at Novara, he laid down the crown and declared his eldest son king of Sardinia, under the title of Victor Emmanuel II. He hoped that the latter would obtain a more favorable peace from the Austrians. . . . Then, saying farewell to his wife by letter, attended by but two servants, he travelled through France and Spain to Portugal. He died at Oporto, July 26th, 1849, of repeated strokes of apoplexy." After long negotiations, the new king concluded a treaty of peace with Austria on the 6th of August. "Sardinia retained its boundaries intact, and paid 75,000,000 lire as indemnity. The false report of a Sardinian victory at Novara had caused the population of Brescia to fall upon the Austrian garrison and drive them into the citadel. General Haynau hastened thither with 4,000 men well provided with artillery. The city was bombarded, and on the 1st of April it was reoccupied, after a fearful street fight, in which even women took part; but Haynau stained his name by inhuman cruelties, especially toward the gentler sex. Venice was not able to hold out much longer. It had at first attached itself to Sardinia, but after the defeat of the Sardinians the republic was proclaimed. Without the city, in Haynau's camp, swamp fever raged; within, hunger and cholera. On the news of the capitulation of Hungary, August 22d, it surrendered, and the heads of the revolution, Manin and Pepe, went into exile. All Italy was again brought under its old masters."—W. Müller, *Political history of recent times, sect.* 16.—The siege of Venice, "reckoning from April 2, when the Assembly voted to resist at any cost, lasted 146 days; but the blockade by land began on June 18, 1848, when the Austrians first occupied Mestre. During the twenty-one weeks of actual siege, 900 Venetians troops were killed, and probably 7,000 or 8,000 were at different times on the sick-list. Of the Austrians, 1,200 were killed in engagements, 8,000 succumbed to fevers and cholera, and as many more were in the hospitals: 80,000 projectiles were fired from the Venetian batteries; from the Austrian, more than 120,000. During the seventeen months of her independence, Venice raised sixty million francs, exclusive of patriotic donations in plate and chattels. When Gorzkowsky came to examine the accounts of the defunct government he exclaimed, 'I did not believe that such Republican dogs were such honest men.' With the fate of Venice was quenched the last of the fires of liberty which the Revolution had kindled throughout Europe in 1848. Her people, whom the world had come to look down upon as degenerate,—mere trinket-makers and gondoliers,—had proved themselves second to none in heroism, superior to all in stability. At Venice, from first to last, we have had to record no excesses, no fickle changes, no slipping down of power from level to level till it sank in the mire of anarchy. She had her demagogues and her passions, but she would be the slave of neither; and in nothing did she show her character more worthily than in recognizing Manin and making him her leader. He repaid her trust by absolute fidelity. I can discover no public act of his to which you can impute any other motive than solicitude for her welfare. The common people loved him as a father, revered him as a patron saint; the upper classes, the soldiers, the politicians, whatever may have been the preferences of individuals or the ambition of cliques, felt that he was indispensable, and gave him wider and wider authority as danger increased. . . . The little lawyer, with the large, careworn face and blue eyes, had redeemed Venice from her long shame of decadence and servitude. But Europe would not suffer his work to stand; Europe preferred that Austria rather than freedom should rule at Venice. At daybreak on August 28 a mournful throng of the common people collected before Manin's house in Piazza San Paterniano. 'Here is our good father, poor dear fellow,' they were heard to say. 'He has endured so much for us. May God bless him!' They escorted him and his family to the shore, whence he embarked on the French ship Pluton, for he was among the forty prominent Venetians whom the Austrians condemned to banishment. At six o'clock the Pluton weighed anchor and passed through the winding channel of the lagune, out into the Adriatic. Long before the Austrian banners were hoisted that morning on the flagstaffs of St. Mark's, Venice, with her fair towers and glittering domes, had vanished forever from her Great Defender's sight. Outwardly, the Revolutionary Movement had failed; in France it had resulted in a spurious Republic, soon to become a tinsel Empire; elsewhere, there was not even a make-believe success to hide, if but for a while, the failure. In Italy, except in Piedmont, Reaction had full play. Bomba filled his Neapolitan and Sicilian prisons with political victims, and demonstrated again that the Bourbon government was a negation of God. Pius IX., having loitered at Naples with his Paragon of Virtue until April, 1850, returned to Rome, to be henceforth now the puppet and now the accomplice of Cardinal Antonelli in every scheme for oppressing his subjects, and for resisting Liberal tendencies. He held his temporal sovereignty through the kindness of the Bonapartist charlatan in France; it was fated that he should lose it forever when that charlatan lost his Empire. In Tuscany, Leopold thanked Austria for permitting him to rule over a people the intelligent part of which despised him. In Modena, the Duke was but an Austrian deputy sheriff. Lombardy and Venetia were again the prey of the double-beaked eagle of Hapsburg. Only in Piedmont did Constitutionalism and liberty survive to become, under an honest king and a wise minister, the ark of Italy's redemption."—W. R. Thayer, *Dawn of Italian independence, v.* 2, *bk.* 5, *ch.* 6.—See also Rome: Modern city: 1849; Europe: Modern: Political revolution of 1848; World War: Causes: Indirect: b; b, 3.

Also in: W. E. Gladstone, *Gleanings of past years, v.* 4, *ch.* 1-4.—L. C. Farini, *Roman state from 1815 to 1850, v.* 1-4, *bk.* 2-7.—H. Martin, *Daniel Manin and Venice in 1848-1849.*—G. Garibaldi, *Autobiography, period* 2, *v.* 1-2.—L. Mariotti, *Italy in 1848.*—E. A. V., *Joseph Mazzini, ch.* 4-5.—Chevalier O'Clery, *History of the Italian revolution, ch.* 6-7.

1848-1882.—Franchise in first Italian constitution.—Property and educational qualifications. See Suffrage, Manhood: Italy: 1848-1882.

1850-1857.—Cavour.—His activities.—"As early as 1850 Cavour laid down the axiom of a free Church in a free State . . the principle upon which he took his stand in politics was the same which he was to proclaim, ten years later, in the national Parliament. . . . In 1852 the king [Victor Emmanuel II], on the advice of D'Azeglio, who had

decided to retire, sent for Cavour and entrusted him with the task of forming a Cabinet, of which he was president, with the temporary administration of the finances. His first years of office were consecrated exclusively to internal reforms: to developing the country; reforming public morals; increasing the budget; intensifying the principal productions; reorganising the army; fortifying the towns and the coasts; augmenting the network of railroads; creating an entirely new merchant service; and negotiating sound commercial treaties with France and England. In his dealings with the Senate, which its servitude to the Church had rendered refractory and hostile, Cavour displayed such tact and versatility and such untiring patience as to win over his proudest enemies. The same qualities, with prudence thrown in, directed his relations with the foreign press. . . . Cavour did nothing to curtail the freedom of the press, nor did he even veto Mazzini's republican journal. '*Italy and the People* does us more good than harm; I would even pay him for writing in it.' . . . The Piedmontese troops in the Crimea vied in bravery with the Zouaves, and their news of victories was hailed with universal joy in Piedmont. After the war, the Congress. Cavour left for Paris, where not only did he not play the part of a supernumerary of a small State, but made himself heard when the question of the fate reserved for the Danubian Principalities came up. . . . [Italy's] faith in Cavour went on growing and reached its greatest height in 1857, when, after Rattazzi's resignation the President of the Council simultaneously held the portfolios of home affairs, foreign affairs and finance; in the conduct of these Parliament followed him submissively, and the people grew accustomed to the prospect of an early war. . . . War was indispensable for the constitution of Italy, and Cavour had to make this war with Austria acceptable to France. . . . When the war broke out Cavour succeeded also to the Ministry of War, which his colleague Lamarmora had held, and could at last arm, pay and feed the volunteers. . . . When the whole of Italy, in its astonishment, was breathlessly following the homeric stages of the conquest of the two Sicilies, Cavour threw a Piedmontese army into the Marches, so once again cleverly outpointing his opponents. Rome and the three Venices were yet to be won. Cavour had no time to look back upon the long stretch of road already traversed; he looked straight ahead at what had still to be covered. He drew the attention of Parliament to Rome. 'The star of Italy,' he said, 'is Rome; there is our polar star. The Eternal City upon which twenty-five centuries have piled up triumph after triumph must needs be the capital of Italy. . . . The unity of Italy, the peace of Europe, can only be secured at that price. But, we are told, we shall never be able to obtain assent to that design from Catholicism or the powers which consider themselves its representatives and defenders. That difficulty cannot be solved by the sword; moral forces alone can solve it. The conviction which will gain ground every day, even in the centre of the great Catholic Society, is this: religion has nothing to fear from freedom. "Holy Father," we can say to the sovereign pontiff, "temporal power is no longer a guarantee of your independence. Surrender it, and we will give you that freedom which for three centuries you have asked for in vain from all the great Catholic Powers. That freedom we offer you in its plentitude. We are ready to proclaim in Italy the great principle of a free Church in a free State."'"—A. A. Pons, *Holocaust, pp.* 92-98.

Also in: W. R. Thayer, *Cavour.*

1850-1919.—Extent of emigration into Germany. See Immigration and emigration: Germany: 1850-1919.

1856-1859.—Austro-Italy before Europe in congress of Paris.—Alliance of France with Sardinia.—War with Austria.—Emancipation of Lombardy.—Growing vitality of nationalist movement.—Peace of Villafranca.—"The year 1856 brought an armistice between the contending powers [in the Crimea, see Russia: 1853-1854; 1854-1856], followed by the Congress of Paris, which settled the terms of peace. At that Congress Count Cavour and the Marquis Villamarina represented their country side by side with the envoys of the great European States. The Prime Minister of Piedmont, while taking his part in the re-establishment of the general peace with a skill and tact which won him the favour of his brother plenipotentiaries, never lost sight of the further object he had in view, namely, that of laying before the

COUNT CAVOUR

Congress the condition of Italy. . . . His efforts were rewarded with success. On the 30th March, 1856, the treaty of peace was signed, and on the 8th April Count Walewski called the attention of the members of the Congress to the state of Italy. . . . Count Buol, the Austrian plenipotentiary, would not admit that the Congress had any right to deal with the Italian question at all; he declined courteously, but firmly, to discuss the matter. . . . But although Austria refused to entertain the question, the fact remained that the condition of Italy now stood condemned, not by revolutionary chiefs, nor by the rulers of Piedmont alone, but by the envoys of some of the leading powers of Europe speaking officially in the name of their respective sovereigns. It was in truth a great diplomatic victory for Italy. . . . No one in Europe was more thoroughly convinced than Napoleon III. that the discontent of Italy and the plots of a section of Italians had their origin in the despotism which annihilated all national life in the Peninsula with the single exception of Piedmont. He

felt keenly, also, how false was his own position at Rome. . . . France upheld the Pope as a temporal sovereign, but, nevertheless, the latter ruled in a manner which pleased Austria and which displeased France. . . . Count Cavour went privately to meet the French Emperor at Plombières in July, 1858. During that interview it was arranged that France should ally herself actively with Piedmont against Austria."—J. W. Probyn, *Italy from 1850 to 1890, ch.* 9-10.—"The terms of the agreement were vague. France was to furnish 200,000 men; Piedmont was to raise 100,000. The joint forces were to drive the Austrians from Lombardy and Venetia, which, together with the Legations and the Marches of Ancona, were to be annexed to the States already under the sovereignty of Victor Emmanuel II. France was to receive the Duchy of Savoy in return for the cession of Lombardy, while Nice was to be given to France in case Venetia was acquired. Thus Cavour set to work to pave the way for the liberation and unification of Italy."—W. K. Wallace, *Greater Italy, p.* 2.—"The first public indication of the attitude taken up by France with regard to Austria and Italy was given on the 1st January, 1859, when Napoleon III. received the diplomatic corps at the Tuileries. Addressing Baron Hubner, the Austrian Ambassador, the French Emperor said: 'I regret that the relations between us are bad; tell your sovereign, however, that my sentiments towards him are not changed.' . . . The ties which united France to Piedmont were strengthened by the marriage, in the end of January, 1859, of the Princess Clotilde, the eldest daughter of Victor Emmanuel, with Prince Napoleon, the first cousin of the French Emperor. . . . An agreement was made by which the Emperor Napoleon promised to give armed assistance to Piedmont if she were attacked by Austria. The result, in case the allies were successful, was to be the formation of a northern kingdom of Italy. . . . Both Austria and Piedmont increased their armaments and raised loans in preparation for war. Men of all ranks and conditions of life flocked to Turin from the other States of Italy to join the Piedmontese army, or enrol themselves among the volunteers of Garibaldi, who had hastened to offer his services to the king against Austria. . . . Meanwhile, diplomacy made continual efforts to avert war. . . . The idea of a European Congress was started. . . . Then came the proposition of a general disarmament by way of staying the warlike preparations, which were taking ever enlarged proportions. On the 18th April, 1859, the Cabinet of Turin agreed to the principle of disarmament at the special request of England and France, on the condition that Piedmont took her seat at the Congress. The Cabinet of Vienna had made no reply to this proposition. Then suddenly it addressed, on the 23rd April, an ultimatum to the Cabinet of Turin demanding the instant disarmament of Piedmont, to which a categorical reply was asked for within three days. At the expiration of the three days Count Cavour, who was delighted at this hasty step of his opponent, remitted to Baron Kellerberg, the Austrian envoy, a refusal to comply with the request made. War was now inevitable. Victor Emmanuel addressed a stirring proclamation to his army on the 27th April, and two days afterwards another to the people of his own kingdom and to the people of Italy. . . . On the 30th April some French troops arrived at Turin. On the 13th May Napoleon III. disembarked at Genoa. . . . Although the Austrian armies proceeded to cross the Ticino and invade the Piedmontese territory, they failed to make a decisive march on Turin. Had Count Giúlay, the Austrian commander, done so without hesitation, he might well have reached the capital of Piedmont before the French had arrived in sufficient force to enable the little Piedmontese army to arrest the invasion. As it was, the opportunity was lost never to occur again. In the first engagements at Montebello and Palestro [May 20, 30 and 31] the advance rested decidedly with the allies. . . . On the 4th June the French fought the battle of Magenta, which ended, though not without a hard struggle, in the defeat of the Austrians. On the 8th the Emperor Napoleon and King Victor Emmanuel entered Milan, where they were received with a welcome as sincere as it was enthusiastic. The rich Lombard capital hastened to recognise the king as its sovereign. While there he met in person, Garibaldi, who was in command of the volunteer corps, whose members had flocked from all parts of Italy to carry on under his command the war in the mountainous districts of the north against Austria. . . . The allied troops pursued their march onwards towards the River Mincio, upon whose banks two of the fortresses of the famous Quadrilateral are situated. On the 24th June they encountered the Austrian army at Solferino and San Martino. French, Piedmontese, and Austrians, fought with courage and determination. Nor was it until after ten or eleven hours of hard fighting that the allies forced their enemy to retreat and took possession of the positions he had occupied in the morning. While victory thus crowned the efforts of France and Piedmont in battle, events of no little importance were taking place in Italy. Ferdinand II. of Naples died on the 22nd May, just after he had received the news of the successes of the allies at Montebello and Palestro. He was succeeded by his son, Francis II. . . . Count Salmour was at once despatched by the Piedmontese Government . . . with the offer of a full and fair alliance between Turin and Naples. The offer was rejected. Francis determined to follow his father's example of absolutism at home while giving all his influence to Austria. Thus it was that the young Neapolitan king sowed, and as he sowed so he reaped. Leopold, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, had in April refused the proffered alliance of Piedmont. . . . Finally he left Florence and took refuge in the Austrian camp. A provisional Government was formed, which placed the Tuscan forces at the disposal of Victor Emmanuel. This change was effected in a few hours without bloodshed or violence. The Duchess of Parma went away to Switzerland with her young son, Duke Robert. Francis, Duke of Modena betook himself, with what treasures he had time to lay his hands on, to the more congenial atmosphere of the head-quarters of the Austrian army. . . . 'The deputations which hastened from Tuscany, Parma, and Modena, to offer their allegiance to Victor Emmanuel, were received without difficulty. It was agreed that their complete annexation should be deferred until after the conclusion of peace. In the meanwhile the Piedmontese Government was to assume the responsibility of maintaining order and providing for military action. . . . The French and Piedmontese armies had won the battle of Solferino, and driven the enemy across the Mincio; their fleets were off the lagoons of Venice, and were even visible from the lofty Campanile of St. Mark. Italy was throbbing with a movement of national life daily gathering volume and force. Europe was impatiently expecting the next move. It took the unexpected form of an armistice, which the Emperor of the French proposed, on his sole responsibility, to the Emperor Francis Joseph on the 8th July. On the 12th the preliminaries of peace were

SWITZERLAND
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
TYROL
CARINTHIA
HUNGARY
CARNIOLA
SLAVONIA
CROATIA
ISTRIA
DALMATIA
TURKISH EMPIRE
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
PIEDMONT
D. OF PARMA
D. OF MODENA
STATES OF THE CHURCH
GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY
KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES
CORSICA (To France)
SARDINIA
SICILY
Turin
Novara
Milan
Verona
Mantua
Venice
Trieste
Laibach
Agram
Pola
Parma
Modena
Bologna
Rimini
San Marino
Lucca
Pisa
Florence
Ancona
Ragusa
Cattaro
Ajaccio
Rome
Pontecorvo
Benevento
Naples
Salerno
Brindisi
Palermo
Messina
Reggio
Catania
Nice
Genoa
ITALY
FROM 1815 TO 1859.
The possessions of the House of Savoy are indicated by the shading.
The Bourbon Duke of Lucca became Duke of Parma in 1847, the Duchy of Lucca passing to the Grand Duke of Tuscany.
Minor changes in the boundaries of Modena, Lucca and Tuscany occurred in 1844.
0 20 50 100 200 MILES.
11,231 E.
SCALE OF MILES.
The M.N. Co.
Longitude 12° East from 14° Greenwich
AUSTRIAN (ITALY) (Ceded 1866)
KINGDOM OF ITALY
STATES OF THE CHURCH (Ceded 1870)
Tarento
ITALY
IN 1861.
The possessions of the House of Savoy are indicated by the shading.
The lighter shaded districts are the Territories acquired in 1859 and 1860.

signed at Villafranca. Victor Emmanuel was opposed to this act of his ally, but was unable to prevent it. The Italians were bitterly disappointed, and their anger was only too faithfully represented by Cavour himself. He hastened to the headquarters of the king, denounced in vehement language the whole proceeding, advised his majesty not to sign the armistice, not to accept Lombardy [see below], and to withdraw his troops from the Mincio to the Ticino. But Victor Emmanuel, though sympathising with the feelings of Italy and of his Minister, took a wiser and more judicious course than the one thus recommended. He accepted Cavour's resignation and signed the armistice, appending to his signature these words:—J'accepte pour ce qui me concerne.' He reserved his liberty of action for the future and refused to pledge himself to anything more than a cessation of hostilities."—J. W. Probyn, *Italy from 1815 to*

GIUSEPPE GARIBALDI

1890, ch. 9-10.—See also FRANCE: 1852-1870; AUSTRIA: 1856-1859.

ALSO IN: C. Bossoli, *War in Italy.*—C. de Mazade, *Life of Count Cavour, ch.* 2-5.—C. Arrivabene, *Italy under Victor Emmanuel, v.* 1, *ch.* 1-13.—C. Adams, *Great campaigns, pp.* 271-340.—L. Kossuth, *Memories of my exile.*—E. M. Cesaresco, *Italian characters in the epoch of unification.*

1859.—**Compulsory education law.** See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Italy.

1859-1861.—**Treaty of Zurich and its practical negation.—Annexation of Central Italy to Sardinia by plebiscite.—Revolution in Sicily and Naples.—Garibaldi's great campaign of liberation.—Sardinian army in papal states.—New kingdom of Italy proclaimed.**—"The treaty concluded at Zurich in November [1859] between the ambassadors of France, Austria, and Sardinia substantially ratified the preliminaries arranged at Villafranca. Lombardy passed to the king of Sardinia; Venetia was retained by Austria. The rulers of Modena and Parma were to be restored, the papal power again established in the Legations, while the various states of the peninsula, excepting Sardinia and the Two Sicilies, were to form a confederation under the leadership of the Pope. According to the terms of the treaty Lombardy was the only state directly benefited by the war. . . . The people of central Italy showed no inclination to resume the old régime. They maintained their position firmly and consistently, despite the decisions of the Zurich Congress, the advice of the French emperor, and the threatening attitude of Naples and Rome. . . . The year closed without definite action, leaving the provisional governments in control. In fact, matters were simply drifting, and it seemed imperative to take some vigorous measures to terminate so abnormal a condition of affairs. Finally the project of a European congress was suggested. There was but one opinion as to who should represent Italy in such an event. . . . Cavour . . . returned to the head of affairs in January. This event was simultaneous with the removal of M. Walewski at Paris and a change in the policy of the French government. The emperor no longer advised the central Italians to accept the return of their rulers. His influence at Rome was exercised to induce the Pope to allow his subjects in the Legations to have their will. . . . The scheme of a European congress was abandoned. With France at his back to neutralize Austria, Cavour had nothing to fear. . . . He suggested to the emperor that the central Italians be allowed to settle their fate by plebiscite. This method was to a certain extent a craze with the emperor, . . . and Cavour was not surprised at the affirmative reply he received to his proposal. The elections took place in March, and by an overwhelming majority the people of Parma, Modena, Tuscany, and the Legations declared for annexation to Sardinia. Austria protested, but could do no more in the face of England and France. Naples followed the Austrian example, while almost simultaneously with the news of the elections there arrived at Turin the papal excommunication for Victor Emmanuel and his subjects. On the 2d of April the king opened the new parliament and addressed himself to the representatives of 12,000,000 Italians. The natural enthusiasm attending the session was seriously dampened by the royal announcement that, subject to the approval of their citizens and the ratification of parliament, Nice and Savoy were to be returned to France. It was, in fact, the concluding installment of the price arranged at Plombières to be paid for the French troops in the campaign of the previous year. . . . General Garibaldi, who sat in the parliament for Nice, was especially prominent in the angry debates that followed. . . . When the transfer had been ratified he withdrew to a humble retreat in the island of Caprera. . . . But the excitement over the loss of Nice and Savoy was soon diminished by the startling intelligence which arrived of rebellion in the Neapolitan dominions. Naples was mutinous, while in Sicily, Palermo and Messina were in open revolt. Garibaldi's time had come. Leaving Caprera, he made for Piedmont, and hastily organized a band of volunteers to assist in the popular movement. On the night of May 6, with about a thousand enthusiastic spirits, he embarked from the coast near Genoa in two steamers and sailed for Sicily. Cavour in the mean time winked at this extraordinary performance. He dispatched Admiral Persano with a squadron ostensibly to intercept the expedition, but in reality 'to navigate between it and the hostile Neapolitan fleet.' On the 11th Garibaldi landed safely at Marsala under the sleepy guns of a Neapolitan man-of-war. On the 14th he was at Salemi, where he issued the

MEETING OF VICTOR EMMANUEL AND GARIBALDI AT CAIANELLO, OCT. 26, 1860

(After the composition of Pontremoli)

following proclamation: 'Garibaldi, commander-in-chief of the national forces in Sicily, on the invitation of the principal citizens, and on the deliberation of the free communes of the island, considering that in times of war it is necessary that the civil and military powers should be united in one person, assumes in the name of Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy, the Dictatorship in Sicily.'" On the 26th Garibaldi attacked Palermo; on the 6th of June he was in possession of the city and citadel; on the 25th of July Messina was surrendered to him. "Perhaps the excitement at Turin during these days was second only to that which animated the great Sicilian cities. The guns of Bomba's fleet at Palermo were no more active than the diplomatic artillery which the courts of Central Europe trained upon the government at Turin. . . . Cavour's position at this time was a trying, delicate, and from some points of view a questionable one. He had publicly expressed regret for Garibaldi's expedition, while privately he encouraged it. . . . Cavour's desire to see Garibaldi in Calabria was changed, a little later. La Farina was at Palermo in behalf of the Sardinian government, to induce Garibaldi to consent to the immediate annexation of Sicily to the new Italian kingdom. This Garibaldi declined to do, preferring to wait until he could lay the entire Neapolitan realm and Rome as well at the feet of Victor Emmanuel. This altered the aspect of affairs. It was evident that Garibaldi was getting headstrong. It was Cavour's constant solicitude to keep the Italian question in such a shape as to allow no foreign power a pretext for interference. Garibaldi's design against Rome garrisoned by French troops would be almost certain to bring on foreign complications and ruin the cause of Italian unity." On the 19th of August, Garibaldi crossed his army from Sicily to the mainland and advanced on Naples. "On the evening of September 6 the king embarked on a Spanish ship, and leaving his mutinous navy at anchor in the bay, quit forever those beautiful shores which his race had too long defiled. On the morning of September 7 Garibaldi was at Salerno; before night he had reached Naples, and its teeming thousands had run mad. . . . The Neapolitan fleet went over en masse to Garibaldi, and by him was placed under the orders of the Sardinian admiral. The Garibaldian troops came swarming into the city, some by land and others by sea. . . . Francis II. had shut himself up in the fortress of Gaeta with the remnants of his army, holding the line of the Volturno. . . . At Turin the state of unrest continued. Garibaldi's presence at Naples was attended with grave perils. Of course his designs upon Rome formed the principal danger, but his conspicuous inability as an organizer was one of scarcely less gravity. . . . Sardinian troops had become a necessity of the situation. . . . There was no time to lose. There could be no difficulty in finding an excuse to enter papal territory. The inhabitants of Umbria and the Marches, who had never ceased to appeal for annexation to the new kingdom, were suppressed by an army of foreign mercenaries that the Pope had mustered beneath his banner. . . . Cavour had interceded in vain with the Vatican to alter its course toward its disaffected subjects. At last, on September 7, the day Garibaldi entered Naples, he sent the royal ultimatum to Cardinal Antonelli at Rome. . . . On the 11th the unfavorable reply of Antonelli was received, and the same day the Sardinian troops crossed the papal frontier. . . . Every European power except England, which expressed open satisfaction, protested against this action. There was an imposing flight of ambassadors from Turin, and an ominous commotion all along the diplomatic horizon. Cavour had not moved, however, without a secret understanding with Napoleon. . . . The Sardinian army advanced rapidly in two columns. General Fanti seized Perugia and Spoleto, while Cialdini on the east of the Apennines utterly destroyed the main papal army under the French general Lamoricière at Castelfidardo [September 17]. Lamoricière with a few followers gained Ancona, but finding that town covered by the guns of the Sardinian fleet, he was compelled to surrender. 'The pontifical mercenary corps' became a thing of the past, Cavour could turn his whole attention to Naples. He had obtained from parliament an enthusiastic permission to receive, if tendered, the allegiance of the Two Sicilies. The army was ordered across the Neapolitan frontier, and the king left for Ancona to take command. In the mean time on October 1 Garibaldi had inflicted another severe defeat to the royal Neapolitan army on the Volturno. The Sardinian advance was wholly unimpeded. . . . On November 7 the king entered Naples, and on the following day was waited upon by a deputation to announce the result of the election that Garibaldi had previously decreed. 'Sire,' said their spokesman, 'The Neapolitan people, assembled in Comitia, by an immense majority have proclaimed you their king.' . . . Then followed an event so sublime as to be without parallel in these times of selfish ambition. Garibaldi bade farewell to his faithful followers, and, refusing all rewards, passed again to his quiet home in Caprera. . . . The people of Umbria and the Marches followed the lead of Naples in declaring themselves subjects of Victor Emmanuel. Except for the patrimony of St. Peter surrounding the city of Rome and the Austrian province of Venetia, Italy was united under the tricolor. While Garibaldi returned to his humble life, Cavour went to Turin to resume his labors. . . . On the 18th of February, 1861, the first national parliament representing the north and south met at Turin. Five days before, the last stronghold of Francis II. had capitulated, and the enthusiasm ran high. The kingdom of Italy was proclaimed, and the king confirmed as 'Victor Emmanuel II., by the grace of God and the will of the nation King of Italy.' . . . The work was almost done. The scheme that a few years before would have provoked a smile in any diplomatic circle in Europe had been perfected almost to the capstone. But the man who had conceived the plan and carried it through its darkest days was not destined to witness its final consummation. Cavour was giving way. On May 29 he was stricken down with a violent illness." On June 6 he died. "To Mazzini belongs the credit of keeping alive the spirit of patriotism; Garibaldi is entitled to the admiration of the world as the pure patriot who fired men's souls; but Cavour was greater than either, and Mazzini and Garibaldi were but humble instruments in his magnificent plan of Italian regeneration."—H. Murdock, *Reconstruction of Europe, ch.* 13.—See also ITALY, CONSTITUTION OF.—"The constant aim of the great Cavour, who may be called the founder of modern Italian foreign policy, was to make Italy and her problems such a question of international interest as to command the sympathy if not of foreign sovereigns, at least of foreign Governments, and of the people whom they ruled. He laid the basis of the relations of the young kingdom with surrounding States, and in order to reach his object made his voice constantly heard in the comity of nations, allowing no opportunity to pass in order that little Piedmont first, and Italy afterwards, should tangibly assert herself as one of the Powers of Europe. However, after the long-drawn-out struggle for na-

tional unity, Italy's urgent need was peace, to enable her to weld together the diverse States and differing races which she had inherited into a homogeneous whole: to bring them, as far as possible, to the same level of civilization, and to teach them to take advantage of the liberty which at last was theirs. Her first task with regard to those beyond her borders was to convince the world that, her revolutionary days over, she stood for Law and Order, and as a factor in the stability of Europe, and that her statesmen, though new to the exercise of independence, were yet the descendants of a race that has produced rulers and politicians of whose large views and keen intelligence any country might be proud."—F. M. Underwood, *United Italy, pp.* 18-19.

Also in: C. de Mazade, *Life of Count Cavour, ch.* 5-7.—G. Garibaldi, *Autobiography, 3d period, v.* 2.—E. Dicey, *Victor Emmanuel, ch.* 27-34.—E. About, *Roman question.*

1861.—Act instituting Gran Libro, or Great Book of the Public Debt. See Debts, Public: Italy.

1861.—Establishment of Bank of Italy. See Money and banking: Modern: 1806-1910.

VICTOR EMMANUEL II

1862-1866.—Roman and Venetian questions.—Impatience of nation.—Collision of Garibaldi with the government.—Alliance with Prussia.—War with Austria.—Liberation and annexation of Venetia.—"The new ministry was formed by Baron Ricasoli. . . . In the month of July, Russia and Prussia followed the example of England and France, and acknowledged Italian unity. . . . Baron Ricasoli only held office about nine months; not feeling equal to the difficulties he had to encounter, he resigned in March, 1862, and Signor Ratazzi was empowered to form a new ministry. . . . The volunteer troops had become a source of serious embarrassment to the government. . . . It was found disagreeable and dangerous to have two standing armies under separate heads and a separate discipline, and it was proposed to amalgamate the Garibaldians with the royal troops. Endless disagreements arose out of this question. . . . As soon as this question was in a manner accommodated, a more serious one arose. The central provinces lost all patience in waiting so long for a peaceful solution of the Roman question. The leaders of the Young Italy party became more warlike in their language, and excited the peasantry to riotous proceedings, which the government had to put down forcibly, and this disagreeable fact helped to make the Ratazzi ministry unpopular. Garibaldi's name had been used as an incentive to those disturbances, and now the hot-headed general embarked for Sicily, to take the command of a troop who were bound for the Eternal City, resolved to cut with the sword the gordian knot of the Roman question. The government used energetic measures to maintain its dignity, and not allow an irregular warfare to be carried on without its sanction. The times were difficult, no doubt, and the ministry had a hard road to tread. . . . The Garibaldians were already in the field, and having crossed from Sicily, were marching through Calabria with ever-increasing forces and the cry of 'Rome or death' on their lips. Victor Emmanuel had now no choice left him but to put down rebellion by force of arms. General Cialdini's painful duty it was to lead the royal troops on this occasion. He encountered the Garibaldians at Aspromonte, in Calabria, and on their refusing to surrender to the king, a fight ensued in which the volunteers were of course defeated, and their officers arrested. Garibaldi, with a ball in his foot, from the effects of which he has never recovered, was carried a state prisoner to Piedmont. . . . This unhappy episode was a bitter grief to Victor Emmanuel. . . . Aspromonte gave a final blow to the Ratazzi ministry. Never very popular, it was utterly shaken by the reaction in favour of Garibaldi. . . . After a good deal of worry and consultation, the king decided to call Luigi Carlo Farini to office. . . . Unhappily his health obliged him to retire very soon from public life, and he was succeeded by Minghetti. On the whole this first year without Cavour had been a very trying one to Victor Emmanuel. . . . Meantime the Roman question remained in abeyance—to the great detriment of the nation, for it kept Central and Southern Italy in a state of fermentation which the government could not long hold in check. The Bourbon intrigues at Rome, encouraging brigandage in the Two Sicilies, destroyed all security of life and property, and impeded foreigners from visiting the country. The Emperor of the French, occupying the false position of champion of Italian independence and protector of the temporal power of the Pope, would not do anything, nor let the Italian Government do anything, towards settling the momentous question. . . . Victor Emmanuel, who had his eye on Venice all the time, having a fixed impression that if it could be recovered he would find less difficulty in getting rid of the foreign occupation in Rome, now adopted energetic measures to bring about a settlement of this Venetian question, urging the English Government to use its influence with Austria to induce her to accept some compromise and surrender the Italian province peaceably. . . . Meantime the Italian Government continued to invite the French to withdraw their forces from the Roman States, and leave the Pope face to face with his own subjects without the aid of foreign bayonets. This the emperor, fearing to offend the papal party, could not make up his mind to do. But to make the road to Rome easier for the Italians, he proposed a transfer of the capital from Turin to some more southern town, Florence or Naples—he did not care which. The French minister, M. Drouyn de Lhuys, said:—'Of course in the end you will go to Rome. But

THE HOUSE OF SAVOY.

1st Generation.	2d.	3d.	4th.	5th.	6th.	7th.	8th.	9th.	10th.	11th.	12th.	13th.	14th.
HUMBERT II., *Count of Maurienne, Marquis of Italy*, 1072–1103.	AMADEUS III., 1103–1148.	HUMBERT III., 1148–1188, married* Beatrix *of Vienne.*	THOMAS, *Count of Savoy*, 1188–1233.	AMADEUS IV., 1233–1253.	BONIFACE, 1253–1263.	EDWARD, 1323–1329, married Blanche *of Burgundy.*	AMADEUS VI., 1343–1383, married Bona *of Bourbon.*	AMADEUS VII., 1383–1391, married Bona *of Berri.*	AMADEUS VIII., *Duke of Savoy*, 1391–1451, married Mary *of Burgundy.*	LOUIS, 1451–1465, married Anne *of Lusignan.*	AMADEUS IX., 1465–1472, married Iolande *of France.*	PHILIBERT I., 1472–1482.	
				THOMAS II., died 1259, married** Beatrix di Fieschi.	AMADEUS V., *(The Great)*, 1285–1323.	HAMON, 1329–1343.						CHARLES I., 1482–1489.	CHARLES II., 1489–1496.
				PETER, 1263–1268.							PHILIP II., 1496–1497, married 1. Margaret *of Bourbon.*	PHILIBERT II., 1497–1504, married Margaret, (daughter of Emperor Maximilian I.).	
				PHILIP, 1268–1285, married Alice *of Burgundy.*							2. Claudine *of Bresse.*	CHARLES III., 1504–1553, married Beatrix *of Portugal.*	EMANUEL PHILIBERT, 1553–1580, married Margaret *of France.*

4703

15th.	16th.	17th.	18th.	19th.	20th.	21st.	22d.	23d.	24th.	25th.
CHARLES EMANUEL I. 1580–1630, married Catherine *of Spain.*	VICTOR AMADEUS I., 1630–1637, married Christine *of France.*	FRANCIS HYACINTH, 1637–1638.	**VICTOR AMADEUS II.,** 1675–1730, *King of Sicily*, 1713, *King of Sardinia*, 1720, died 1732, married Anna Maria *of Orleans.*	**CHARLES EMANUEL III.,** 1730–1773.	**VICTOR AMADEUS III.,** 1773–1796, married Marie Antoinette *of Spain.*	**CHARLES EMANUEL IV.,** 1796–1802, died 1819.	**CHARLES ALBERT,** 1831–1849, married Theresa *of Tuscany.*	**VICTOR EMANUEL II.,** 1849–1878, *King of Italy*, 1861, married Adelaide *of Austria.*	**HUMBERT I.,** 1878–1900 married Margaret *of Savoy.*	**VICTOR EMANUEL III.,** 1900– married Helen *of Montenegro.*
		CHARLES EMANUEL II., 1638–1675.				**VICTOR EMANUEL I.,** 1802–1821, died 1824.				
	Thomas Francis, *Prince of Carignan.*	Emanuel Philibert, died 1709.	Victor Amadeus, died 1741.	Louis Victor, died 1778.	Victor Amadeus, died 1780.	**CHARLES FELIX,** 1821–1831. Charles Emanuel, died 1800.				

(Continued from above.)

* Third marriage.

** First married to Joanna of Flanders.

it is important that between our evacuation and your going there, such an interval of time and such a series of events should elapse as to prevent people establishing any connection between the two facts. France must not have any responsibility.' . . . The king accepted the conditions, which provided that the French were to evacuate Rome in two years, and fixed on Florence as the residence of the court. . . . On November 18, 1865, the first Parliament was opened in Florence. . . . The quarrel between Austria and Prussia [see GERMANY: 1861-1866] was growing all this time, and Italy proposed an alliance defensive and offensive with the latter power. . . . The treaty was concluded April 8, 1866. When this fact became known, Austria, on the brink of war with Prussia, began to think that she must rid herself in some way of the worry of the Italians on her southern frontier, in order to be free to combat her powerful northern enemy. The cabinet of Vienna did not apply directly to the cabinet at Florence, but to that arbiter of the destinies of nations, Napoleon III., proposing to cede Venetia on condition that the Italian government should detach itself from the Prussian alliance. . . . After an ineffectual attempt to accommodate matters by a congress, war was declared against Austria, on June 20, 1866, and La Marmora, having appointed Ricasoli as his deputy at the head of the council, led the army northwards. . . . Victor Emmanuel appointed his cousin regent, and carried his sons along with him to the seat of war. . . . The forces of Austria were led by the able and experienced commander, the Archduke Albert, who had distinguished himself at Novara. On the ill-omened field of Custozza, where the Italians had been defeated in 1849, the opposing armies met [June 24]; and both being in good condition, well disciplined and brave, there was fought a prolonged and bloody battle, in which the Italians were worsted, but not routed. . . . On July 20 the Italian navy suffered an overwhelming defeat at Lissa in the Adriatic, and these two great misfortunes plunged Victor Emmanuel into the deepest grief. He felt disabled from continuing the war: all the sacrifice of life had been in vain: national unity was as far off as ever. . . . Meantime the Prussian arms were everywhere victorious over Austria, and about ten days after the battle of Custozza it was announced in the Moniteur that Austria had asked the Emperor Napoleon's mediation, offering to cede him Venice, and that he was making over that province to the King of Italy. Italy could not accept it without the consent of her ally Prussia; and while negotiations were going forward on the subject, the brief seven weeks' campaign was brought to a conclusion by the great victory of Sadowa, and on July 26 the preliminaries of peace were signed by the Austrian and Prussian plenipotentiaries. . . . Venice was restored to Italy by the Emperor of France, with the approval of Prussia. There was a sting in the thought that it was not wrung from the talons of the Austrian eagle by the valour of Italian arms, but by the force of diplomacy; still it was a delightful fact that Venice was free, with the tricolour waving on St. Mark's. The Italian soil was delivered from foreign occupation. . . . As soon as the treaty was signed at Vienna, October 2, the Venetian Assemblies unanimously elected Victor Emmanuel with acclamations, and begged for immediate annexation to the Kingdom of Italy. On November 4, in the city of Turin, Victor Emmanuel received the deputation which came to proffer him the homage of the inhabitants of Venetia. . . . On November 7 Victor Emmanuel made a solemn entry into the most beautiful, and, after Rome, the most interesting city of the Italian peninsula. . . . Hot upon the settlement of the Venetian question, came the discussion of that of Rome, which after the evacuation of the French troops [November, 1866] seemed more complicated than ever. The Catholic powers were now anxious to accommodate the quarrel between Italy and the Pope, and they offered to guarantee him his income and his independence if he would reconcile himself to the national will. But Pius IX. was immovable in his determination to oppose it to the last."—G. S. Godkin, *Life of Victor Emmanuel II, v. 2, ch.* 23-25.—See also GERMANY: 1866.

ALSO IN: J. W. Probyn, *Italy from 1815 to 1890, ch.* 11.—G. Garibaldi, *Autobiography, 4th period, v. 2, ch.* 1; *v.* 3, *ch.* 8.

1864-1914.—Red Cross and relief work. See RED CROSS: 1864-1914.

1865-1866.—Commercial treaty with Germany. See TARIFF: 1853-1870.

1866.—Latin union and silver question. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1853-1874; BIMETALISM.

1867-1870.—Settlement of Roman question.—Defeat of Garibaldi at Mentana.—Rome in possession of king of Italy.—Progress made by diplomacy in the settlement of the Roman question "was too slow for Garibaldi. He had once more fallen under the influence of the extreme republicans, and in 1867 he declared that he would delay no longer in planting the republican banner on the Vatican. Between these hot-headed and fanatical republicans on the one side, the Italian ultramontanes on another, and the French Emperor on the third, the position of Victor Emmanuel was anything but enviable. In the autumn of 1867 Garibaldi was suddenly arrested by the Government, but released on condition that he would remain quietly at Caprera. But meanwhile the volunteers under Menotti Garibaldi (the great chief's son) had advanced into the Papal States. The old warrior was burning to be with them. On the 14th of October he effected his escape from Caprera, and managed eventually to join his son in the Romagna. Together they advanced on Rome, and won, after tremendous fighting, the great victory at Monte Rotundo. Meanwhile an army of occupation sent by the Government from Florence had crossed the Roman frontier, and a French force had landed on the coast. Garibaldi's position was already critical, but his resolution was unbroken. 'The Government of Florence,' he said, in a proclamation to the volunteers, 'has invaded the Roman territory, already won by us with precious blood from the enemies of Italy; we ought to receive our brothers in arms with love, and aid them in driving out of Rome the mercenary sustainers of tyranny; but if base deeds, the continuation of the vile convention of September, in mean consort with Jesuitism, shall urge us to lay down our arms in obedience to the order of the 2d December, then will I let the world know that I alone, a Roman general, with full power, elected by the universal suffrage of the only legal Government in Rome, that of the republic, have the right to maintain myself in arms in this the territory subject to my jurisdiction; and then, if any of these my volunteers, champions of liberty and Italian unity, wish to have Rome as the capital of Italy, fulfilling the vote of parliament and the nation, they must not put down their arms until Italy shall have acquired liberty of conscience and worship, built upon the ruin of Jesuitism, and until the soldiers of tyrants shall be banished from our land.' The position taken up by Garibaldi is perfectly intelligible. Rome we must have, if possible, by legal

process, in conjunction with the royal arms; but if they will stand aside, even if they will oppose, none the less Rome must be annexed to Italy. Unfortunately Garibaldi had left out of account the French force despatched by Napoleon III. to defend the Temporal dominions of the Pope, a force which even at this moment was advancing to the attack. The two armies met near the little village of Mentana, ill matched in every respect. The volunteers, numerous indeed but ill disciplined and badly armed, brought together, held together simply by the magic of a name, the French, admirably disciplined, armed with the fatal chassepots, fighting the battle of their ancient Church. The Garibaldians were terribly defeated. Victor Emmanuel grieved bitterly, like a true, warm-hearted father for the fate of his misguided but generous-hearted sons. . . . To the Emperor of the French he wrote an ardent appeal begging him to break with the Clericals and put himself at the head of the Liberal party in Europe, at the same time warning him that the old feeling of gratitude towards the French in Italy had quite disappeared. 'The late events have suffocated every remembrance of gratitude in the heart of Italy. It is no longer in the power of the Government to maintain the alliance with France. The chassepot gun at Mentana has given it a mortal blow.' At the same time the rebels were visited with condign punishment. Garibaldi himself was arrested, but after a brief imprisonment at Varignano was permitted to retire once more to Caprera. A prisoner so big as Garibaldi is always an embarrassment to gaolers. But the last act in the great drama . . . was near at hand. In 1870 the Franco-German War broke out. The contest, involving as it did the most momentous consequences, was as brief as it was decisive. The French, of course, could no longer maintain their position as champions of the Temporal power. Once more, therefore, the King of Italy attempted, with all the earnestness and with all the tenderness at his command, to induce the Pope to come to terms and accept the position, at once dignified and independent, which the Italian Government was anxious to secure to him. . . . But the Pope still unflinchingly adhered to the position he had taken up. . . . A feint of resistance was made, but on the 20th of September [1870] the royal troops entered Rome, and the Tricolour was mounted on the palace of the Capitol. So soon as might be a plebiscite was taken. The numbers are significant—for the King, 40,788, for the Pope, 46. But though the work was thus accomplished in the autumn of 1870, it was not until 2d June 1871 that the King made his triumphal entry into the capital of Italy."—J. A. R. Marriott, *Makers of modern Italy, pp.* 72-76.—See also EUROPE: Modern: Wars of the great powers; PAPACY: 1869-1870; 1870; ROME: Modern city: 1850-1870; 1870-1871.

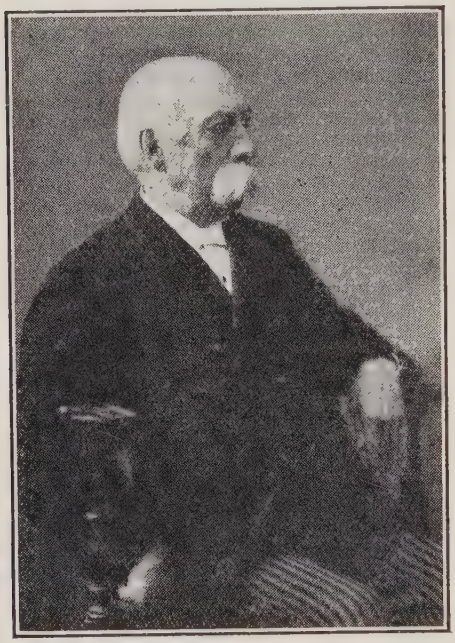
1869-1920.—**Socialistic tendencies.** See SOCIALISM: 1869-1920.

1870.—**Summary and text of the law of the papal guarantees.** See PAPACY: 1870.

1870-1919.—**Emigration to France.** See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: France.

1870-1901.—**Italy as a united nation.—Necessity of cementing unity and building up military and industrial power.—Heritage of misrule.—Period of national weakness. — Wholesome growth of Socialist party as party of reform.—Triple Alliance.—Rebuff at Tunis.—Disastrous Abyssinian projects. — Milanese massacres.** — "Italy now [in 1870] stood before the world as a nation of twenty-five million inhabitants, her frontiers well defined, her needs very evident. Nevertheless, if her national existence was to be more than a name, she must have discipline in self-government, and she must as quickly as possible acquire the tools and methods of the civilization prevailing aong those nations into whose company her victories had raised her. Two thirds of her people lagged behind the Western world not only in material inventions, but in education and civic training. Railroads and telegraphs, the wider application of steam to industries, schools, courts, the police, had all to be provided, and provided quickly. Improvements which England and France had added gradually and paid for gradually, Italy had to organize and pay for in a few years. Hence a levying of heavy taxes, and exorbitant borrowing from the future in the public debt. Not only this, but ancient traditions, the memories of feuds between town and town, had to be obliterated; the people had to be made truly one people, so that Venetians, or Neapolitans, or Sicilians should each feel that they were first of all Italians. National uniformity must supplant provincial peculiarity; there must be one language, one code of laws, one common interest; in a word, the new nation must be Italianized. The ease and rapidity with which the Italians have progressed in all these respects have no parallel in modern times. Though immense the undertaking, they have, in performing it, revealed an adaptability to new conditions, a power of transformation which are among the most remarkable characteristics of their race, and the strongest proofs that ruin will not now engulf them. . . . Italy was recognized as a great power by her neighbors, and she willingly persuaded herself that it was her duty to do what they did. In this civilized age, the first requisite of a great power is a large standing army. . . . A large standing army being the first condition of ranking among the great powers, Italy set about preparing one. . . . Perhaps more than any other European nation she was excusable in desiring to show that her citizens could become soldiers, for she had been taunted time out of mind with her effeminacy, her cowardice. It might be argued, too, that she received a larger dividend in indirect compensation for her capital invested in the army than her neighbors received from theirs. Uniform military service helped to blot out provincial lines and to Italianize all sections; it also furnished rudimentary education to the vast body of illiterate conscripts. These ends might have been reached at far less cost by direct and natural means; but this fact should not lessen the credit due to the Italian military system for furthering them. Tradition, example, national sensitiveness, all conspired in this way to persuade Italy to saddle an immense army on her back."—W. R. Thayer, *Some causes of the Italian crisis* (*Atlantic Monthly, Apr.*, 1894.)—"Thus was created that Third Italy—la terza Italia—for which Mazzini had toiled and suffered, and to which he had looked to crown the work already accomplished for the world by the Rome of the Cæsars and the Rome of the Popes. After the lapse of nearly half a century it may be possible to attempt some estimate of the result achieved, through so many years of battle, conspiracy and effort, by the mighty impulse of *Risorgimento*. Has United Italy proved worthy of the giants who fashioned her, and can she now rebuke Mazzini's bitter cry, 'I thought to call up the soul of Italy, and I see only its corpse'? For thirty years after the taking of Rome the Italian people laboured in the trough of the wave that had carried them to victory. They looked in vain for the prosperity which the patriots had promised them, and an age of industrial revolution brought to the proletariat new

sufferings which their earlier simplicity had spared them. The South remained a cruel drag upon the more progressive North; taxation was heavy and its incidence unjust; year after year—save for a brief interval from 1875 to 1881—a gaping deficit in every Budget swelled the national debt. Capital expenditure of every kind—in railways, in roads, in public buildings—was forced upon the young Kingdom, in order to knit together her diverse populations and to put an end to the mediævalism of the South and Centre. But for many years it seemed as if the taxpayers' millions were condemned to lie unproductive, and were powerless to evoke the latent enterprise and inventive genius of the Italians. Not so easily was the terrible heritage of 350 years of oppression and misrule to be lived down, and if the labourer in Lombardy and the South still remained in a chronic state of semi-starvation; if political corruption fastened on the machine of government and hampered every



FRANCESCO CRISPI

effort to develop the national resources, the cause must be sought in the hard fate which had given Italy to be exploited for so long by alien and selfish races. The genius of the Italians had flowered for a time in the group of great men who had guided their different sections to the common goal, but the effort itself produced exhaustion. It is small wonder that when Cavour's generation had all passed away a race of politicians arose whose only care was to surmount the difficulties of each day, and who were not too fastidious in the means they employed for the purpose. Agostino Depretis, the first Premier produced by the Left or so-called Progressive parties, held office with two brief interruptions from 1876 to 1887, but although he extended the Parliamentary franchise he also invented the system known as *Transformism*, which consisted in buying the votes of this or that Parliamentary group by luring its leaders into the Government. The result was that the normal lines of party division disappeared and the Chamber became the home of an unscrupulous opportunism. Francesco Crispi, who followed Depretis, carried the art of applying Government pressure at the elections to a height never before attempted, and for all his republican antecedents ruled the country with a cynical disregard for its hard-won liberties. The neglect of the politicians of the Left to further the interests of the working classes during this period produced an unhappy cleavage between Government and people, and a militant Socialist party arose on the ruins of the Mazzinian idealists, pledged to fight solely for the material welfare of the workers. Yet it was to the growth of this Socialist party that Italy owed her emergence from the state of perpetual disturbance and rioting, culminating in the Milanese massacres of May, 1898, which had marked her history during the nineties. Much infected in its earlier stages with the anarchism of Bakounine and the French Communards, Italian Socialism became definitely Marxite and less revolutionary in the early eighties, under the leadership of Amdrea Costa and Filippo Turati. As the only living creed that offered hope to the suffering people, it drew to itself the best of the young intellectuals as well as the artisans, and gradually extended its influence over the peasants by accepting the co-operative movement which had already done much to raise the condition of the rural population (1896). Crispi's savage and indiscriminate persecution of Socialists, Republicans and Radicals during his second ministry (1893-96) drew his victims together in the working alliance of the Extreme Left, and it is to the social programme advocated by his party, in season and out of season, that Italy largely owes the saner domestic policy that has followed the opening of the new century. [See also SOCIALISM: 1869-1920.] If the internal history of Italy during these thirty years is little but the chronicle of an unhappy social struggle, the record of her foreign relations shows the same elements of drift and uncertainty, the same failure to attain to a dignified and solid position. The events of 1866-70 had left her with a legacy of ill-feeling towards France as well as Austria, and after the Franco-Prussian War neither the platonic friendship of England nor the growing patronage of Bismarck availed to redress the balance. At the Congress of Berlin [see BERLIN, CONGRESS OF], held to revise the results of the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, Italy failed to secure a revision of the arrangement of 1866, and while Austria received a mandate to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina, Italy found herself unable to raise the question of her frontiers or to claim any compensating advantage in the Balkans. Her statesmen at this period were of mediocre stamp, and the part played by Cavour at the Congress of Paris was not for them. France on the other hand had received the secret approval of the other Powers for her scheme to occupy Tunis, and in 1881 the occupation became an accomplished fact in despite of Italian public opinion. [See TUNIS: 1881-1898.] The deep resentment felt by Italy at this action of her neighbour's found expression in the next year in a definite drawing towards Germany and Austria, and on May 20, 1882, the Government of Depretis signed a secret agreement with the two Empires, which has gone ever since by the name of the Triple Alliance. [See also TRIPLE ALLIANCE; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: c.] In its earliest form the Treaty was simply the adhesion of Italy to the defensive alliance formed between Germany and Austria in 1879, but on its renewal in 1887 a further clause was inserted between Italy and Austria which declared the right of either power to compensation if the other made territorial acquisitions in the Balkans (Clause VII). This was the form

in which the Treaty subsisted down to its denunciation by Italy in May, 1915. Thus was Italy yoked to her two Teutonic neighbours, from one of whom she had received nothing but injury in the past, while from the other she was to receive that gift of 'economic penetration' which was so nearly to prove fatal to her liberty. For a time the alliance gave her a sense of stability and of recognition which made it acceptable in the eyes of the Republican party, by the necessity it involved of abandoning the cause of the 'Irredentists' in the Trentino, Trieste and the little Venetian towns along the Dalmatian coast. The Government of Vienna would brook no encouragement by her ally of the machinations of these disinherited Italians, and the Austrian police frequently requested the assistance of the Italian in hunting out the agitators. Irredentism, which had produced many outbreaks throughout the seventies, and especially in 1879, died down into a sullen undercurrent, and the Austrian Government pursued with impunity its well-known arts of cultural and political persecution against the Italian remnant. Meanwhile the effects of the Triple Alliance showed themselves in another direction in an ever-increasing coldness between Italy and France, and the disastrous tariff war which followed the denunciation of the commercial treaty between them in 1886 brought widespread ruin to the Italian industries affected. [See also TARIFF: 1870-1901.] The rebuff which Italy had sustained in the affair of Tunis led her to seek other opportunities for colonial expansion in more distant parts of Africa. The name of Francesco Crispi—conspirator, demagogue and at length all-powerful dictator—is inseparably bound up with the tragic adventure of Abyssinia, when a young and untried army, ill-provided for tropical warfare, was lashed on by telegrams from home to find its bloody grave at Adowa (March, 1896). The horror of that spring in Italy, when the dispatch of reinforcements produced riots in every part of the country, and peasant-women threw themselves in front of the trains that were to bear their conscripts away, sank deep into the minds of all who beheld it. Crispi fell before the universal cry of rage, and his ambitious design of an Abyssinian protectorate dwindled to the more manageable reality of an 'Erythrean Colony.' [See also ERITREA.] But the profound unrest produced by the campaign found vent in a growing social agitation, blindly, repressed by a reactionary Government, and the Milanese massacres of May, 1898 (the so-called *Fatti di Maggio*), brought to a head the seething animosity between governors and governed. The party of the Extreme Left took up the popular cause, and by its prolonged and violent struggle in the Chamber against the Ministry's demand for extraordinary powers stemmed the tide of reaction, and produced at length a saner atmosphere. King Umberto, too much identified in his later years with the reactionaries, was removed by an anarchist's bullet in July, 1900, and his successor, Victor Emanuel III., realized at once that Italy's only hope lay in a policy of 'Trust the People.' He called the Left once more to power, and with the Ministry of Giovanni Giolitti (Feb., 1901) begins that era of advancing prosperity which continued down to the outbreak of the Great War."—J. P. Trevelyan, *Short history of the Italian people, pp.* 541-545.

1875.—Postal savings banks. See POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS: 1875.

1876.—Use of cannon for armored cruisers. See WARSHIPS: 1861-1892.

1876-1895.—Interest in colonization in Africa. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century: Eastern area; 1884-1899; BELGIAN CONGO: 1876-1890; ERITREA.

1876-1914.—Extent of Italian emigration. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Italian emigration.

1882.—Alliance with Germany and Austria. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Content of the treaties.

1882-1908.—Suffrage reform. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Italy: 1848-1882; 1882-1908.

1887.—Tariff legislation. See TARIFF: 1870-1901.

1887.—Renewal of alliance with Germany and Austria. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Content of the treaties.

1889.—Italian protectorate over Abyssinia acknowledged by Menelik. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

1890.—Child welfare law.—Establishment of council of charity. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1889-1900; CHARITIES: Italy: 1880-1909.

1891.—Commercial treaty with Germany. See TARIFF: 1870-1900.

1891.—Mafia incident.—Lynching of Italians in New Orleans. See LOUISIANA: 1891.

1891.—Second renewal of Triple Alliance. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Content of the treaties.

1894.—Commercial treaty with Germany. See GERMANY: 1892-1894.

1895-1896.—"Abyssinian affair."—International complications in Mediterranean.—Disastrous Italian campaign in Abyssinia.—Hostility of France and Russia to Italy was made acute "by the renewal, on the return of Lord Salisbury to office in 1895, of an agreement between England, Austria and Italy for common action in the Eastern question, originally made in 1887. In virtue of this agreement Italy sent her fleet to the Aegean to support Great Britain at the opening of the Armenian question [see TURKEY: 1894-1895], and the consequence was that France and Russia put pressure on Abyssinia to renew hostilities against Italy. This new campaign Crispi was ill-prepared to meet, as he had detailed a corps d'armée for an expedition to Asia Minor in conjunction with the naval preparations, and the strength of the forces under arms did not enable the minister of war to detach another corps to Erythrea [Eritrea]. To complete the difficulties of the position, a coolness arose between the Emperor of Germany and the government of Crispi, the latter having notified the German government that he should at the proper time denounce the Treaty of the Triple Alliance with the object of providing better security for Italian interests in Africa. The Emperor in reply advised the King of Italy that Crispi was becoming importunate and must be got rid of. This defection probably determined the fall of Crispi. It gave such strength to the opposition at home, that the intrigues of the Court and military circles succeeded in paralyzing all his military plans, and especially in preventing him from superseding Baratieri, now recognized as incompetent for the enlarged operations which were in view. The King refused to consent to the suppression until it became imperative through the increase of the force to a point at which a superior officer was necessitated by the regulations, when Baldissera was appointed to the superior command. But before Baldissera could enter on his command, Baratieri, against the distinct orders of the government, attacked with a force of 14,000 men the impregnable positions near Adowah which Menelek held with 80,000. He was met by the most crushing defeat that Italy has had to undergo in modern times. Out of the total force no less than 6,000 perished. The history of this affair still remains more or less a secret, the court-

martial which followed being rather calculated to bury than expose the facts of the case, but the immediate effect was to induce the ministry to resign without waiting for the assembling of parliament. The magnitude of the disaster made it evident that, considering the Italian temperament and its tendency to panic, the responsibility for it would be visited on the ministry, though it was only responsible in so far as it had submitted to the Royal decision deferring the recall of Baratieri. The King, unwilling to accept the programme of Rudini, gave the formation of the new ministry to General Ricotti, a Senator, Rudini taking the portfolio of home affairs (March, 1896). . . . The scheme of army reorganization proposed by Ricotti, which aimed at improving the efficiency of the force by devoting money rather to the instruction of the rank and file than to the maintenance of superfluous officers, was opposed, . . . the law was defeated in the chamber, and Ricotti gave place to Rudini as President of the Council. The rejection of Ricotti's plan was a triumph for the Franco-Russian party, which had re-assumed the direction of foreign affairs. Africa, under this policy, being excluded from the Italian sphere of action, peace was made with Menelek [October 26, 1896] on terms which practically implied withdrawal from Erythrea to the port of Massowah. This measure satisfied the exigencies of the old Right, while the Radicals were conciliated by the exclusion and proscription of Crispi and by the understanding with France, as well as by the reversal of the repressive policy towards the extreme members of their party. Thus the year 1897 saw Italy reduced to inertia abroad and apathy within."—W. J. Stillman, *Union of Italy, ch.* 15.—The peace made with King Menelek in 1896 ended the Italian claim to a protectorate over Abyssinia, which seems never to have had any basis of right. It started from a treaty known as the Treaty of Uchali (1889), which purported to be no more than an ordinary settlement of friendly relations, commercial and political. But the convention contained a clause which is said to have read in the Amharic (the court and official language of Abyssinia), "the King of Abyssinia may make use of the government of the King of Italy in all matters whereon he may have to treat with other governments." In the Italian version of the treaty, the innocent permissive phrase, "may make use," became, it is said, an obligatory "agrees to make use," &c., and was so communicated to foreign governments, furnishing grounds for a claim of "protection" which the Abyssinians rejected indignantly. Hence the wars which proved disastrous to Italy.—See also ABYSSINIA: 1896-1897.

1898.—Bread riots in the south and revolutionary outbreaks in the north.—"May 1898 will be remembered for a long time in Italy, and one may wish that the eventful month may mark the turning-point in political life of the new kingdom. The revolt was general. . . . The rise in the price of bread, as a consequence of the Hispano-American war, was the immediate, but by no means the only, cause of the uprising which darkened the skies of sunny Italy for several days. The enormous taxation imposed upon a people yet young in its national life, in order to carry out a policy far too big for the financial means of the country; the failure in the attempt to establish a strong colony in the Red Sea; the economic war with France; the scanty help Italy received from her allies in time of need; the political corruption, unchecked when not encouraged by those who stood at the helm of the State; the impotence of the Chambers of Deputies to deal with the evil-doers as the claims of justice and the voice of the people required, all these evils have prepared a propitious ground for the agitators both of the radical and reactionary parties. The Bread Riots began towards the end of April, and in a few days they assumed a very alarming aspect. . . . The destruction of property was wanton and widespread, women careless of their lives leading the men to the assault. . . . There was no organization in the Neapolitan provinces; the riots were absolutely independent of one another, but they were originated by the same cause—misery; they aimed at the same object—a loud protest by means of devastation; they all ended in the same way—viz., after two or three days the soldiers restored order, the dead were buried, and the ringleaders taken to prison to be dealt with by the military court. In the north, at Milan, the uprising was of quite a different character. In the south of Italy it was truly a question of bread and bread alone. In Central Italy it was a question of work, in Lombardy a truly revolutionary movement. . . . The great majority of the population of Milan was . . . conservative and loyal to the King, although not pleased with the doings of the Government. Only a minority, but a very noisy and active minority, . . . [was] against monarchical institutions. . . . The revolutionary party of Milan . . . made no mystery of their political aspirations towards the establishment of a Milanese republic, to be called 'Republica Ambrogiana.' . . . Milan . . . [was] also the headquarters of Socialism and Anarchism. Socialists and Republicans once upon a time were implacable foes. . . . Towards the end of 1895 they entered into partnership against their common enemy—Crispi! Then the Anarchists came in. Decent Republicans and timid Socialists were rather averse to ally themselves with anarchy. . . However, this natural mistrust soon disappeared, and the Anarchists were welcomed into the dual alliance. Still another element was to enter—the clerical party. . . . From the official documents, since published, it appears that about 90 barricades were erected, and some 20 houses ransacked to provide the necessary material to build them. The number of the killed amounted to 72, and that of the seriously wounded to 63. On Monday evening [May 9] order was restored in Milan."—G. D. Vecchia, *Revolt in Italy* (*Contemporary Review, July,* 1898).

1898-1919.—Old age and invalidity insurance. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Italy: 1898-1919.

1899 (May-July).—Represented at first Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899.

1899-1900. — Pledged to support an "open door" policy in China. See CHINA: 1899-1900 (September-February).

1899-1903.—Status of the Bank of Italy. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1806-1910.

1900.—Corrupting influence of the Camorra. See CAMORRA: 1860-1900.

1900-1915.—Naval expenditures. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1900-1915.

1901-1918.—Political and social progress.—Improved status of working classes.—Growth of population. — Industrial enterprise. — German economic domination.—World War.—The accession of Victor Emmanuel III marked the beginning of a new social and political order. The contemporary accounts of liberal writers were hopeful in prognostication, and their anticipations were not wholly unjustified. Those who expected that the new king's reign "would be coincident with a marked improvement in Italy, have so far

been amply justified. Few ventured to hope that his Liberal Ministry under Signors Zanardelli and Giolitti would weather a Parliamentary session. . . . The closing months of the last reign saw the most dangerous constitutional crisis that United Italy has known. A reactionary Government was threatening Parliamentary liberty; the Liberals and Socialists were making a desperate stand, which at all events preserved the Constitution, and perhaps saved Italy from revolution. . . . Outside Parliament Italians have for once a government 'which allows them to breathe and move and speak.' For the first time since Crispi introduced coercion, seven years ago, there is liberty of speech and public meeting. . . . But this is of small account beside the altered attitude of the Government towards labour questions. Hitherto its influence had been always more or less on the side of the employers. Trade Unions were dissolved and sometimes their members arrested; their organisers were imprisoned for 'exciting to class-hatred,' and under the military courts of 1898 it was an offence to plead, however moderately, in defence of the claims of labour. When the agricultural labourers of the lower Po valley struck for a living wage, the Government sent soldiers to reap the crops. Suddenly and radically all this has changed. At last the law is observed, and Trade Unions are allowed the legal sanction which nominally they have had for years. The Government has announced its neutrality in labour disputes, so long as there is no violence or interference with individual liberty. The result has been an epidemic of strikes. . . . Signor Giolitti estimated in the middle of last June that since the beginning of the year there had been 511 strikes, affecting 600,000 workmen (a number almost unparalleled even in England) and resulting in an increase of wages by nearly £2,000,000, a huge sum in poverty-stricken Italy. Probably by now the total of strikers has reached a figure which has never been equalled within a year in any European country. . . . Thanks to the vigorous advocacy of arbitration by the Chambers of Labour, the urban strikes have generally been short."—B. King, *New reign in Italy* (*Contemporary Review, Dec.*, 1901).—"For in spite of high taxation, bad government, and industrial unrest, the patient, hard-working people of the peninsula had contrived even during this period to advance along the path of progress. When the introduction of machinery caused the inevitable crisis in the labour-market a vast movement of emigration set in which sent thousands of Italy's best men to build railways in North America or to develop Brazil and the Argentine Republic, and the mother-country soon benefited from the stream of remittances that flowed back across the Atlantic, and from the return of the emigrants themselves, with larger ideas of social liberty and comfort. Italy's true genius for colonization is shown in these successful communities of Italians across the ocean, rather perhaps than in her Government's attempts to colonize the African coast. And when under Giolitti's long ascendancy the weight of Government persecution was lifted from the working classes, when labour found itself free to organize and even to strike, and wages rose from one end of the peninsula to the other, prosperity took the long-awaited stride. The budgets of Minister Luzzatti (1903-1906) showed surpluses of two to three millions sterling; the state took over the whole railway system from two incompetent companies (1905), and gradually brought the running up to a high level of efficiency; while the steady exploitation of Italy's unrivalled water-power has produced electric installations which bid fair to compensate for the national lack of coal."—J. P. Trevelyan, *Short history of the Italian people, p.* 546.—"The population of the kingdom during the nine years 1910-1918 increased from 34,206,000 to 36,741,000, or if to the latter figures there are added the inhabitants of the 'Terre Redente,' to 38,321,000. The annual increase varied but little from year to year till 1916 when there was, as might be expected, a sudden and marked check in the growth. From 1916 to 1918 the total increase amounted to only 195,000, less than one-half of what was recorded in several of the single years of the preceding period. In 1918 for the first time the number of deaths exceeded that of the births, and that by no less than 400,000, a phenomenon which our statistician attributes to the enormous mortality due to the 'Spanish influenza.' In 1917 the excess of births had been no more than 9,000. A more disquieting symptom for the future, if a rapidly-increasing population is to be regarded as *per se* an advantage, is the steady decrease in the number of marriages recorded, in spite of the increase of the population. These fell off from 269,000 in 1910 to 185,000 in 1915. During the next three years there was a regular slump in the marriage market, till in 1918 the marriages celebrated were only 83,349. . . . In the matter of industrial development the effect of the war was very clearly marked. The total increase of capital invested in Industrials was in 1913 131 million lire, in 1916 235 million, in 1917 1,288 million, in 1918 2,949 million. These increases of capital were partly due to genuine business requirements, but in part were unhealthy and artificial, and due to the limitation of dividends, which companies were allowed to distribute, both during the war and after, to 8 per cent., or to what had been the average distribution during the previous three years. This led to the allotment of bonus shares, and to the issue of new capital on an unjustifiably large scale, as also to unduly large expenditure on enlargements of works carried out in some instances quite uneconomically, so that the shareholders might, by a side-wind, get larger returns than the legal minimum. Of course, a very large proportion of factories produced solely for the Government, and as it was no one's business in particular, or at least no one's direct interest, to scrutinise with severity, the prices paid went up, often out of all reason. The tendency of legislation in this matter has thus been to penalise active ingenious manufacturers, who succeed, to their own advantage and that of the country, to get the best results out of limited capital, as compared to the man who preferred easy routine, or was incapable of doing better. The increases in capital during war have been unevenly distributed among different classes of enterprises. Between 1913 and 1917 Banks increased their capital from 557 million lire to 859 million, Shipping Companies from 164 to 576 million, Private Railways and Tramways from 663 to 1,248 million, Mines from 131 to 326 million, Steel works from 219 to 455 million, Engineering from 235 to 619 million, Electrical Companies, producers of Electricity, from 471 to 843 million. Since 1917 there has been an enormous increase in the capitalisation of public companies, and the newspapers have been full of appeals to the public to subscribe. There has been a marked increase in the use of electrical power of late years, and this was of course stimulated by war requirements."—E. S. Morgan, *Statistical view of the Italian position* (*Anglo-Italian Review, Jan.*, 1921).—"Sixty per cent of the population of Italy

are engaged in agriculture. Though the trend towards industrial pursuits is increasing, agriculture in its varied forms still remains the foundation of the nation's wealth. . . . Great efforts are being made to increase the productivity of the soil by the use of carefully selected fertilizers. The vineyards are now the subject of scientific attention, and greater care is being paid to the quality of the wines. Mechanical implements are being introduced, and in certain regions in the northern districts, more particularly in Emilia, where co-operative methods are much in vogue, the initiative and improvements introduced in dairy-farming and in the making of cheese, butter, etc., have been widely copied abroad. . . . The case of the South is different, the conditions there are still far from satisfactory. The appalling poverty of the people —a man's wages are often not more than 6d. [12 cents] a day—is here the chief incentive to emigration, as a way out of an unbearable situation. Vast estates, absent landlordism, and all the evils of a defective agrarian system, have for so long been the rule, that the progress that is being made has as yet borne but little fruit. . . . As in other fields, the increase in Italian maritime trade has been important. . . . Naples is now the first port of Italy, and has shown the extraordinary increase of nearly 50 per cent in tonnage in the four-year period 1906-10. . . . The great economic development during the past two decades [to 1917] has brought Italy up from the rank of a 'poor' country, to which she was long confined, to that of a nation of ever-increasing wealth and well-being."—W. K. Wallace, *Greater Italy, pp.* 144-145, 148, 150.

"When Italy, only a decade after the achievement of national independence, badgered by Austria, disdained by Great Britain, and fearing an assault on the part of France which threatened her national existence, was isolated in Europe, she besought the friendship of Germany and sought to place herself under German protection. . . . Though by courtesy admitted into the comity of the Great Powers, Italy was at the time in no position to assert her rights. In the twelve years which had elapsed since the House of Savoy had united the disjointed patchwork of Italian States, many of them the most backward and misgoverned in Europe, into a nation, much progress had been made in developing the national strength of the Italian people. Yet Italy remained the poorest and weakest of the Powers, seemingly unqualified, either practically or potentially, to aspire to great expansion. . . . She understood little of the methods of industrial exploitation, so astonishingly perfected by the Germans. Germany was rapidly rising to the industrial leadership of the world and had become the master of modern efficiency in all forms of organisation of industrial and commercial enterprise, which was the foundation of economic expansion. . . . It was thus that Berlin became the headquarters of the Great General Staff of 'Peaceful Penetration.' Plans were here devised to achieve the economic servitude of the world. . . . Bound by the ties of their alliance with Germany, the Italians readily welcomed the Germans. Anxious to learn the methods and means of acquiring an increase in their material well-being, they guilelessly placed their resources at the disposal of their allies for exploitation along German lines. . . . The German invasion was so insidiously carried on that the majority of the Italians did not even realise its existence. Its growth was facilitated by the fact that the leading men of Italy, both in political and commercial spheres, had been brought up to admire Germany and all things German. . . . The hold exerted by Germany over the economic life of Italy soon led to active interference in the political life of the country. . . . It is one of the most curious phenomena of German penetration in Italy that it rallied to its support many sincere and ardent partisans among the upper and more intelligent classes of the country, unsolicited. . . . Italy, during the early weeks of the European War passed through long days of careful searching of heart, and awoke to the full realisation of her plight. She was no longer the master in her own home. The Germans and the pro-Germans held the country bound and gagged. Though Germany was unable to force Italy into a war against her best interests —it has even been suggested that up to the last minute Berlin had assigned to Italy a rôle of most friendly and useful 'neutrality,' as best suited to Pan-German aims—she was able to confuse public opinion and scatter the seeds of distrust and perplexity throughout the peninsula. . . . Though Italy was bound by ties of alliance with Austria, the alliance was regarded openly by the most fervid 'Triplists' as merely as an opportunist arrangement. It had been imposed on Italy in the days of Italy's weakness. The European War had suddenly placed Italy in a position of mastery towards Austria. The national aspirations of the Italian people had long been held in check, and these must now be realised. Applying the German lessons of *Realpolitik* to her own case, Italy must seize this opportunity to satisfy her vital interests. With the bulk of the Austrian forces engaged in a life-and-death struggle against Russia, the moment had arrived for Italy to strike. Here was a stepping-stone to world power. And so the weapons which Germany had placed in Italian hands were to be turned against her. The economic development of the country, which had been of German origin and had been carried on in German interests, had rendered the Italians strong and confident; now the Pan-German doctrines of ruthless aggression which had been so assertively reiterated, were to be made use of to stab Germany to the heart. Such was the tragedy which was to be enacted. . . . The conduct of foreign affairs had been intrusted to Baron Sonnino, a man imbued with German doctrines and a chief protagonist of the Triple Alliance, who now saw clearly that the best interest of Italy demanded that the chains of this alliance be severed. William II thereupon sent his most skilled emissary, Prince Bülow, to Rome. Nevertheless, Italy proceeded with caution. The bitter lessons of 'isolation' had taught her to weigh her policy step by step. A storm of moral conversion was sweeping over the land. Dull rumblings, like those of some great volcano ready to erupt, shook the peninsula. The Germans redoubled their zeal. The pressure of Prince Bülow's 'diplomacy' increased in violence and brutality. Then when he perceived that his efforts were doomed to failure, the Germans made frantic efforts to retain for themselves at least a portion of their former dominance. In this they were in part successful. The rupture of diplomatic relations between Italy and Germany at the outbreak of the Austro-Italian War was preceded by the negotiation of a treaty which was to safeguard German economic interests in Italy. . . . Thus Italy waged war on the ally of Germany for over a year, before the pressure of events from abroad forced her to declare war on Germany. But during that time the process of purification had continued."—W. K. Wallace, *Greater Italy, pp.* 184-187, 189, 193, 194, 197, 201-205.

1901 (August).—Death of Crispi.—One of the greatest statesmen of modern Italy, Francesco Crispi, died on the 12th, after a stormy political career dating from the Sicilian revolution of 1848. An uncompromising supporter of the monarchy which he had assisted to establish, his foreign and domestic policies, combined with an ardent patriotism, contributed to the political education of his countrymen.

1902.—Sugar bounty conference. See SUGAR BOUNTY CONFERENCE.

1902.—Law affecting women and child laborers. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1902-1920.

1902.—Sources of public debt up to date. See DEBTS, PUBLIC: Italy.

1902 (June).—Renewal of Triple Alliance. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Content of the treaties.

1902 (November).—Secret treaty with France. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 55.

1903-1904.—Coercive proceedings against Venezuela concerted with Great Britain and Germany.—Settlement of claims secured.—Hague decisions. See VENEZUELA: 1902-1904.

1903-1905.—Initiation of International Institute of Agriculture under patronage of the king, and its foundation. See AGRICULTURE, INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF.

1903-1920.—Interests around the Mediterranean sea. See MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

1904.—Conciliatory movement between church and state.—Several marked indications of a conciliatory disposition on both sides of the long break in relations between the papacy and the government of the kingdom of Italy appeared in the course of the year. The government introduced a bill for increasing the public salaries of curés. Its diplomatic agents in South America were instructed to give attention to a papal nuncio, who traveled thither on a mission from the Vatican, as though he represented the king. Also, the king conveyed a piece of ground to the pope which enlarged his domain. A cardinal took part in a reception to the king at Bologna and sat at table with the officials. Such amenities between the royal and pontifical courts had not been seen for a generation; they seemed to bear much significance, though the results were comparatively negligible.

1904.—Strikes and disorders.—War on Socialism.—Dissolution of Chamber of Deputies.—Socialist defeat.—Government upheld in elections.—A number of serious strikes, accompanied by scenes of violence and lawlessness, disturbed internal conditions. The agitation was largely the work of the socialist elements and led the government to announce a war upon Socialism and dissolve the Chamber of Deputies on October 17. Elections were fixed for November. The political canvass was more animated than usual, Catholics taking part in it and in the subsequent election voting more numerously than hitherto. This circumstance was due to the action of Pope Pius X, who had issued, in 1903, an encyclical withdrawing the prohibition against Catholics participating in public affairs. The ministry of Giolitti, representing the Liberals and Moderates in politics, between groups of the extreme right and left, secured a strong majority while the Socialist party lost many seats.—See also SOCIALISM: 1899-1908.

1905.—Agreement with the Mullah of Somaliland. See SOMALILAND: Peace with the Mullah.

1905.—Conference of agriculturists in Rome. See AGRICULTURE, INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF: 1905.

1905.—Effect of Russo-Japanese War on Triple Alliance and balance of power. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Effect of Russo-Japanese War.

1905.—Problems in immigration and emigration. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: European problems.

1905 (September).—Earthquake in Calabria.—A terrible earthquake, accompanied by storms and volcanic disturbances, occurred in Calabria on September 8th. "Hundreds of dead were swallowed up, and ruin was spread far and wide in a country already sorely tried by an unfortunate system of land ownership. The public authorities, the provinces and towns of Italy, strained every nerve to soften the misery of the Calabrian population, and the King eagerly hastened to the scene of the disaster. The public mind, however, was embittered by reports that the rich Calabrian landowners had shown great want of consideration for their unhappy tenants, and that the work of restoration was greatly hindered by absurd disputes between civil and military authorities."—*Annual Register*, 1905, *p.* 278.

1905-1906.—Illness and retirement of Premier Giolitti.—Fortis and Sonnino ministries.—Demoralized railway service.—Return of Giolitti to power.—Premier Giolitti was forced by illness to withdraw from office early in the year, and Signor Fortis was commissioned by the king to form a new ministry. He did not succeed, and Signor Tittoni was then requested by the king to take the lead in government with the late colleagues of Giolitti. Tittoni soon resigned, however, and Fortis was again called, late in March, to form a cabinet, which he now found himself able to do. In the following December, however, a reconstruction of the Fortis ministry occurred, the king requiring the premier to retain his office, while the cabinet was partially changed. Throughout the year the government and the country were greatly troubled by a general demoralization in the management and service of the railways. Travel and freight transportation were seriously delayed; accidents were of constant occurrence and strikes, having no result but the public inconvenience, were frequently repeated. The Fortis ministry held its ground against much criticism until February, 1906, when it lost the support of a majority in the Chamber, and gave place to a coalition cabinet formed by Baron Sonnino, which conducted the administration till the following May, when, on a question of the purchase of the Southern railways, it suffered defeat, whereupon Giolitti returned to power, in the face of a threat from the employees of the railways that they would proclaim a general strike if he took up the reins again. The strike did not occur, and a notable access of vigor and activity in the Government appeared.

1906.—Part of Italy at Algeciras conference.—Growth of traditional Anglo-Italian friendship.—"Italy's first effort to emancipate herself from the tutelage hitherto exercised over her foreign policy by the Great European Powers was made at Algeciras in January 1906. True, the tutelage in question was suave and skilfully veiled, especially as far as Germany was concerned, but it none the less militated against Italian interests. Italy was represented at Algeciras by Emilio Visconti-Venosta, formerly minister of Foreign Affairs, a cultivated, far-seeing man, well disposed towards both France and England, who had the interest of Italy and the maintenance of European peace at heart, that peace which Germany had imperilled by refusing to recognise the settlement arrived at with regard to Morocco by France, Great Britain, and Morocco itself. At this conference Visconti-Venosta endeavoured to improve the existing relations between France and Italy,

and to disperse the clouds left on the political horizon by the unfortunate episodes of Aigues-Mortes and Marseilles, where Italian workmen had been attacked, and in some cases killed, by an infuriated French mob. He further strove to bring about a better understanding which should pave the way for the Italian projects in Tripoli and did his utmost for the furtherance of peace. Great Britain had openly stated that she would back up France, and she kept her word. Visconti-Venosta had consequently to play the part of peacemaker. This he did so skilfully that at the close of the conference, when Great Britain and France both expressed their satisfaction and only Germany was discontented with its results, the saying became current that at Algeciras Italy had taken a *tour de valse* with France—a saying which has since become historical. This *tour de valse* brought forth good fruit for Italy by making it plain that her ministers knew their own minds, and that she had definitely chosen a path from which she did not intend to swerve. Moreover, Italy's attitude at Algeciras enlightened France as to Italian feeling and policy, showing her that Italy though a member of the Triple Alliance did not desire to afford Germany an opportunity of attacking France. Naturally the relations between Great Britain and Italy became still more cordial, and yet another link was forged in the traditional Anglo-Italian friendship, and on various subsequent occasions it was England who furthered the interests of Italy, whereas the Central Powers, though nominally her Allies, would have had no scruples in sacrificing them. On the other hand Italy's foreign policy began to tend in a direction contrary to the schemes of Austria in the Balkans and to those of Germany on the southern shores of the Mediterranean and in Asia Minor."—H. Zimmern and A. Agresti, *New Italy, pp.* 57-59.—See also Morocco: 1905-1906.

1906.—**Eruption of Vesuvius.**—"At a meeting of the Geological Society, London, on May 9, [1906] a paper giving a scientific account of the . . . great eruption of Mount Vesuvius was read by Professor Giuseppe de Lorenzo, of the Mineralogical Museum in the Royal University of Naples, a foreign correspondent of the society. . . . Professor de Lorenzo stated that after the great eruption of 1872 Vesuvius lapsed into repose, marked by merely solfataric phenomena, for three years. Fissuring of the cone and slight outpourings of lava began in May, 1905, and continued until April 5, 1906, when the fourth great outburst from the principal crater occurred, accompanied by the formation of deeper and larger fissures in the southeastern wall of the cone, from which a great mass of fluid and scoriaceous lava was erupted. After a pause the maximum outburst took place during the night of April 7 and 8, and blew 3,000 feet into the air scoriæ and lapilli of lava as fragments derived from the wreckage of the cone. The southwesterly wind carried this ash to Ottajano and San Giuseppe, which were buried under three feet of it, and even swept it on to the Adriatic and Montenegro. At this time the lava which reached Torre Annunziato was erupted. The decrescent phase began on April 8, but the collapse of the cone of the principal crater was accompanied by the ejection of steam and dust to a height of from 22,000 to 26,000 feet. On April 9 and 10 the wind was northeast, and the dust was carried over Torre del Greco and as far as Spain; but on April 11 the cloud was again impelled northward. The ash in the earlier eruptions was dark in color and made of materials derived directly from the usual type of leucotephritic magma; but later it became grayer and mixed with weathered elastic material from the cone. The great cone had an almost horizontal rim on April 13, very little higher than Monte Somma, and with a crater possibly exceeding 1,300 feet in diameter; this cone was almost snow white from the deposit of sublimates. Many deaths, Professor de Lorenzo states, were due to asphyxia, but the collapse of roofs weighted with dust was a source of much danger, as was the case at Pompeii in A.D. 79. The lava streams surrounded trees, many of which still stood in the hot lava with their leaves and blossoms apparently uninjured. The sea level during April 7 and 8 was lowered six inches near Pozzuoli, and as much as twelve inches near Portici, and had not returned to its former level on April 13. The maximum activity conformed almost exactly with full moon, and at the time the volcanoes of the Phlegræan Fields and of the islands remained in their normal condition. Professor de Lorenzo . . . [believed] that this eruption of Vesuvius . . . [was] greater than any of those recorded in history with two exceptions—those of A.D. 79, the historic eruption which destroyed Pompeii and Herculaneum, and of 1631, when Torre del Greco was overwhelmed and 4,000 persons perished."—*Scientific notes and news* (*Science, May* 25, 1906).

1906 (December).—**Agreement with Great Britain and France to respect and preserve the independence and territorial integrity of Abyssinia.** See Abyssinia: 1906.

1906-1916.—**Enormous emigration to the United States.** See Immigration and emigration: United States: 1870-1910.

1907.—**Protection of Roman Catholic interest at Constantinople transferred to Italy.—Political problems.—Anti-clericalism.—Strikes and industrial riots.**—Disestablishment of the Church in France (1906) had strained relations between that country and the Vatican, one result being that in January 1907 an agreement was concluded between the Italian foreign office and the Holy See whereby Italy took over the duty of protecting the interests of the Roman Catholic Church at Constantinople, which had hitherto been exercised by France. Foreign affairs attracted considerable attention from the visits to Italy of the German chancellor, Prince Bülow, and of King Edward, while the Italian monarch paid a visit to Greece. Religious troubles and Socialist agitation complicated the internal situation. Violent anti-clerical demonstrations broke out on the occasion of commemorating the punishment of Giordano Bruno (1548-1600) and the death of Carducci the poet. The clerical party gained an electoral triumph at Naples through their active organizations. Labor demonstrations on May 1 were strictly kept in hand by the government, and when the king received Cardinal Lorenzelli at Lucca with royal honors, the Socialists charged the government with yielding to Clericalism. During June and July there were serious strike riots among the agricultural laborers in the provinces of Ferrara and Rovigo. The leghisti (trade unionists) established a reign of terror in this region accompanied by violence. Order was restored after the leaders had been arrested. Agrarian disorders broke out in Apulia in September, and in October a general railway strike at Milan crippled the traffic of Northern Italy. The government, as owner of the lines, took energetic measures; the ringleaders were discharged from the service and partial peace was restored.

1907.—**Second Hague conference.** See Hague conferences: 1907.

1907 (June).—Provision regarding child labor in act regulating the cultivation of rice. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1873-1921.

1908.—Resentment over Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: e.

1908.—Present at maritime conference in London. See LONDON, DECLARATION OF.

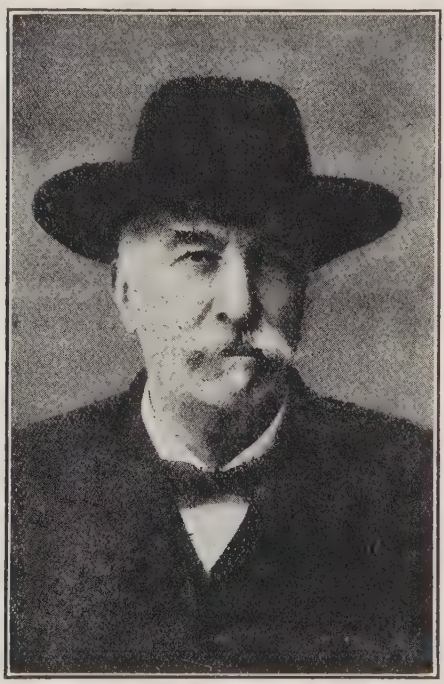
1908-1909.—Earthquakes in Sicily.—Assistance of United States and European countries.—Of all catastrophes of earthquake recorded in history, the one which has seemed most appalling to the European and American world was that which destroyed the cities of Messina and Reggio di Calabre, besides many smaller towns in northeastern Sicily and southern Italy, on both sides of the Straits of Messina, on the early morning of Monday, December 28, 1908. From all directions, by all communities and governments, relief to the stricken cities, for the rescue, feeding and shelter or removal of the survivors, was hastened with the greatest possible speed. War ships from many navies, Italian, French, Russian, British and German, were quickly at the scene, their sailors and marines performing heroic work in discovering and saving many still living people, who had been entombed under mountains of ruin for many days. Even after such burial for thirteen and fourteen days some victims were found alive. By good fortune, when news of the disaster came, a supply ship of the United States Navy was being laden at New York with a million and a half of rations, destined for the fleet of American battleships then voyaging round the world. Orders were given immediately for dispatching it to Messina, with an added shipment of tents, clothing, blankets and medical supplies. Furthermore, from the fleet itself, which was about to enter the Suez Canal, a store ship was hastened forward to Messina for such offerings as it could make. The American Congress appropriated $800,000 for further relief of the Italian need, and a large part of this sum was expended according to the statement made public by the secretary of the navy, January 16: "The Navy Department has arranged for the expenditure of approximately $500,000 in the purchase of building materials, including all articles necessary for the construction of substantial frame houses for the Italian sufferers." With this material a suburb of 1500 detached frame houses, of two or four rooms, were built at Messina; 500 were constructed at Reggio, and the remainder at other towns and villages. The Italian Parliament appropriated 30,000,000 lire ($5,000,000) for immediate relief and for the reconstruction of the ruined cities. To encourage the reconstruction of the ruined places, all new buildings were exempted from taxation for a period of fifteen years. Loans from state and private financial institutions to be made at a rate of interest not exceeding 4 per cent., to be repaid within thirty years in semi-annual instalments, the Government to contribute half of these periodical payments. To the effective help and relief rendered by her Mediterranean squadron, Great Britain added large contributions of money, mainly collected in a "Mansion House Fund" by the Lord Mayor of London. There, and everywhere, the Red Cross Societies were instantly in the field and untiring, receiving and expending immense funds and sending large corps of trained workers to the scene of distress. Generally, the total of deaths from the earthquake, in Sicily and Calabria, was over 77,000. During six months following the great catastrophe, Messina had been so far rebuilt and reoccupied as to have acquired a population of somewhat more than 25,000. To them, on the evening of June 30 and the morning of July 1, 1909, came once more the dread quaking of their unstable portion of the earth. The shocks as described in despatches to the Press "were similar to the fatal disturbances of December, and were accompanied by the same roaring noises. . . . So far as is known, however, only a few people were hurt, and this undoubtedly is due to the fact that the city was only partially rebuilt. Had the walls of all the houses been standing the loss of life would have been heavy."

1909.—Endowed charities.—Free meals and aid to poor school children. See CHARITIES: Italy: 1880-1909; 1909-1921.

1909.—Fighting strength.—Naval construction program. See WAR, PREPARATIONS FOR: 1909: Italian fighting strength; Italian and Austrian programs.

1909-1911.—Efforts of Socialists to increase their power.—Ministry of Luzzatti.—Suffrage question.—Return of Giolitti.—Simplified Franchise Bill.—Attempt to make life insurance a state monopoly.—"In March [1909] Giolitti had presided over a general election for the second time. In autumn, when Parliament met, he resigned, as was his wont. The leader of the Opposition at this time was Sonnino, but his party only numbered about thirty deputies; Giolitti, who was anxious to secure a year's rest, intended to make his majority support the Sonnino Cabinet, but Sonnino, a man of great force of character, was extremely unpopular with the majority, who obliged him to resign in three months. A more pliable man was called to take his place—Luzzatti—who, however, . . . began with two acts of weakness: He included four Radicals in his Cabinet, two as ministers and two as under secretaries of state—and he promised to introduce a measure for the extension of suffrage. . . . The example of Millerand and Briand had turned the heads of a good many Socialists and consequently Socialists, Radicals and even part of the Republican party were extremely pleased to see four Radicals in the Cabinet. . . . The suffrage question was much more complicated. As at this time no one who was unable to read and write could be placed on the register, illiteracy and indifference reduced the number of electors to about three million. The Socialists had for long demanded universal suffrage, but they did not really attach any great importance to it, and demanded it mainly because they knew that the government would not grant it. Giolitti himself had opposed any such measure only a few years previously. By these two concessions Luzzatti had hoped to secure the support of, at all events, the benevolent neutrality of the Extreme Left. In this he succeeded but at the cost of gaining the ill will of the majority. . . . As for the extension of the suffrage, it met with great opposition, owing to the complicated nature of the system proposed by Luzzatti. [See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Italy: 1908-1912.] The majority would gladly have brought about the fall of the Ministry, but Giolitti was not as yet inclined to resume office and this time he succeeded in instilling patience into his followers. The resulting situation was extremely curious. In the Chamber the majority did its utmost to put obstacles in the path of the Radical ministers, who were not men of any special ability; the Extreme Left in its turn opposed the Cabinet ministers who belonged to the majority; while these ministers intrigued against their Radical fellow ministers both in the Cabinet and in the Chamber. Luzzatti en-

deavoured to gain time by making great speeches and promising everything which was asked of him. . . . Giolitti remarked once that Luzzatti lost votes wholesale in order to gain them retail. Dissatisfaction became so general both in country and Parliament that the Luzzatti Cabinet fell in March, 1911, and Giolitti was forced to resume office. He . . . retained in the cabinet the four Radicals appointed by Luzzatti and added two more to their number—a minister and an under secretary of state. The new Radical minister, who was destined to play the most unfortunate part in this ill-fated Cabinet, was Nitti, who was nominated Minister of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry. But if the composition of the new Ministry did not fulfil the expectations of the majority, its program had still more unpleasant surprises in store. As for the extension of the franchise, Giolitti brought in a much simpler bill



© Keystone View Co.

GIOVANNI GIOLITTI

than that suggested by Luzzatti: he proposed to grant manhood suffrage, with the one provision that electors who could not read or write should not be allowed to exercise their rights until they were thirty years of age instead of at twenty-one. He further proposed to make life insurance a State monopoly. . . . The monopoly of life insurance was not in itself a reform of so radical a nature so necessarily to involve such bitter struggles. The measure could have been carried without any great difficulty had it been better prepared. . . . Professor Nitti . . . precipitated a political catastrophe by the carelessness and imprudence with which he prepared the scheme. In a few weeks he launched on the country a scheme which was not only incoherent and inadequate from various points of view, but in its first clause decreed in a few lines a sort of total confiscation without awarding the insurance companies any compensation. According to this clause all life insurance companies were to cease work at once and stated that no compensation could be claimed for the loss entailed by the new law either by the insurance companies, their employes or the insured. Such a high handed abolition by the State of the rights of its subjects, such a calm appropriation of private property for its own purposes was an unheard of thing and only an extremely strong government could possibly have carried such a measure and Giolitti's government was far from being strong. The majority, which disliked the composition of the Cabinet and dreaded the introduction of manhood suffrage, promptly rose in arms against the legal enormities of the bill, which was attacked from every point of view. The protests of those affected gained over parliamentary circles and ere long the question of manhood suffrage was relegated to the background. For a time it was hoped that Giolitti would realize his mistake, withdraw the bill and sacrifice its unlucky author. This time, however, Giolitti persisted in his scheme. He managed to get it approved by the parliamentary commission which examined it and laid it before the Chamber. The situation went from bad to worse. The Chamber was resolved to reject the scheme, but did not know how to set about it. The House had entered its third year of existence and Giolitti was supposed to have the decree of dissolution in his pocket. The Socialists fomented the general irritation by making it plain that they intended to profit by the rupture between Giolitti and his majority to seize the reigns of power. The storm, which had nearly broken four years before, began to lower in the lobbies of the Chamber and the word 'treason' was whispered for the first time. . . . Whilst these whispers were heard in the lobbies, the discussion of the bill dragged on for weeks in the Chamber. No one dared to attack it boldly, and Giolitti showed no intention of yielding and he was only convinced of the impossibility of passing it in its present form by Salandra's forcible speech showing its absurdities and mistakes. By this time June was drawing to an end and Giolitti profited by this fact to ask for a vote approving the general principle of the law, whilst postponing the discussion of its details—i.e., the essential part—till November, after which the House adjourned for the holidays. This affair left the ministry very weak. . . . The hopes raised in April by the 'great ministry' had given place to bitter disappointment. Political circles were more and more absorbed by the scheme for manhood suffrage and the attitude adopted by the Socialists who were now posing as the next heirs to power. The dissatisfied state of public opinion was aggravated by the uncertainty and contradictions of such a paradoxical situation. No one knew whether Giolitti would emerge from it as the triumphant ruler or the hated victim. His enemies were working hard. Just at this juncture the 'Panther' went to Agadir and the Franco-German *pourparlers* on the Morocco question began."—G. Ferrero, *Europe's fateful hour, pp.* 137-142.

1909-1913.—St. Gothard agreement with Switzerland and Germany.—Convention of Berne ratified by Swiss National Council. See SWITZERLAND: 1909-1913.

1910.—Trade union statistics. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1910-1911.—Growth of nationalist feeling.—Demand for change in foreign policy.—"In spite of general scepticism, the Nationalist idea advanced steadily, especially among the younger generation. . . . Paolo Arcari's *Referendum* (a collection of opinions of prominent Italians on

Nationalism) gave evidence of the progress achieved. In December, 1910, a congress of Italian Nationalists was held in Florence, and at that gathering, which was attended by several hundred persons, including numerous well-known names, many aspects of Italian national life were examined and discussed. . . . The various speakers impressed on their hearers the importance of Nationalism as the basis for all political thought and action. The weakness of the country, the contempt which other nations felt for Italy, the unsatisfactory state both of home and foreign politics, and the poverty of a large part of the population, were all traced to the absence of a sane and vigorous patriotism. The strengthening of the army and navy, the development of a military spirit among the people, a radical change of direction in the conduct of the nation's foreign policy, and the ending of the present attitude of subservience to all other Powers great or small, were regarded as the first *desiderata* of the country. The Foreign Office as conducted by Signor Tittoni and the Marquis di San Giuliano received some scathing criticism delivered by Signor De Frenzi with his sledge-hammer style, especially as regards Italy's policy towards Austria and Turkey. Irredentism was dealt with at some length . . . but in a sane and moderate spirit. There was no demand for war with Austria at once, but for a firmer and more dignified policy, so that the 'ally' should be persuaded that the continued persecution of her Italian-speaking subjects might be dangerous, and that Italy's presence in the Alliance was worth something. The Turks, too, who since the revolution of 1908 had become particularly truculent towards the Italians, especially in Tripoli, also came in for rough treatment, and various speakers demanded that the Government should secure adequate protection for Italian citizens and trade in the Ottoman Empire, and that watch should be kept on Tripoli lest others seize it before the moment for Italian occupation arrived. Signor Corradini insisted that there were worse things for a nation than war, and that the occasional necessity for resort to the 'dread arbitrament' must be boldly faced by any nation worthy of the name. The congress proved a success, and the ideas expressed in it which had been 'in the air' for some time were accepted by a considerable number of people. The Nationalist Association was founded then and there and soon gathered numerous adherents; a new weekly paper, *L'Idea Nazionale,* commenced publication on March 1st, 1911 (the anniversary of Adowa), and rapidly became an important organ of public opinion, while several dailies and reviews adopted Nationalist principles or viewed them with sympathy. Italian Nationalism has no resemblance to the parties of the same name in France, Ireland, or elsewhere; indeed, it is not really a party at all, for it gathers in Liberals, Conservatives, Radicals, Clericals, Socialists even, provided they accept the patriotic idea and are anxious to see their country raised to a higher place in the congress of nations even at the cost of some sacrifice. The movement arose as a reaction to the decline of patriotic feeling, and of the ideal that peace must be preserved at any price. . . . The work of propaganda proceeded actively all through the winter and spring of 1911. Every day new branches of the Nationalist Association were opened throughout Italy, courses of lectures were delivered in the chief towns, debates with opponents were held. The Socialists now found themselves confronted no longer by a timid, weak-kneed sceptical bourgeoisie, but by energetic, intelligent young men, who were game for anything and who, when attacked by the gangs of hooligans egged on by the Socialist leaders, not only defended themselves, but gave far more than they received. This movement progressed side by side with a Monarchist revival, and at several by-elections and municipal elections, notably in Florence, there were surprising collapses of the so-called 'popular' parties. The *Idea Nazionale* conducted a vigorous campaign against every form of political corruption as well as against the foreign policy of the Government. Giulio De Frenzi, whose brilliant eloquence always attracted large audiences, was one of the most active propagandists, and so were Goffredo Bellonci, a student of political economy and a cultured journalist and *littérateur,* Enrico Corradini, less eloquent than De Frenzi, but fired with the enthusiasm of an apostle, Professor Scipio Sighele, the philosopher of the movement, Maurizio Maraviglia, Commander Limo, formerly of the Italian navy, Colonel Barone, a retired army officer and a student of military questions, and many others. Numbers of the most prominent men in Italy, belonging to all classes of society and all professions, joined the movement—lawyers, doctors, business men, landowners, professors and school teachers, artists, officers, Government officials, engineers, men of letters, &c. Parliamentary men at first fought rather shy of Nationalism as being too much outside the groove of orthodox politics. But a few joined at once, and subsequently others followed. . . . Many people who do not call themselves Nationalists, and, in fact, repudiate the name, have adopted Nationalist views with enthusiasm. In May a congress of Italians resident abroad was held in Rome, and although most of the questions discussed were of an economic and legal character, the political note was conspicuous, and the Nationalists took an active part in the debates. The vote of censure passed unanimously on the Foreign Minister for his vacillating policy towards Turkey whereby all hope of promoting Italian trade in the Levant was precluded, was peculiarly significant inasmuch as the assembly had been organised under the auspices of the Foreign Office, many of whose officials were present on that occasion."—Ignotus, *Italian nationalism and the war with Turkey* (*Fortnightly Review, Dec.,* 1911).

1910-1914.—Emigration to South America. See LATIN AMERICA: 1910-1914; IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Argentina: 1914-1922.

1911.—Moroccan crisis.—Agadir incident the overture to Tripolitan War.—"On July 1, the German gunboat *Panther* appeared off Agadir. [See GERMANY: 1911: Morocco crisis.] For a third time within the brief space of five years a European war was threatened by the 'mailed-fist' policy of the Central Empires. . . . The Moroccan question, which had been one of the most thorny problems in international politics, was now tending towards a solution, and it was evident that the establishment of a French protectorate over Morocco would not be long delayed. [See MOROCCO: 1911-1914.] Suddenly Italy remembered the engagements entered into by France and Great Britain regarding Italian rights in Tripoli. In the dismal, confused twilight of Italian public opinion . . . there flared forth a flame which now burned brightly. . . . To assert the strength and vigour of Italy as a nation, to arouse the Italians to a sense of their position as a World Power, was the chief aim of the nationalist propaganda which was now carried on actively throughout Italy. It was not until 1911 that the new movement came out openly with a definite, political

programme, and ardently advocated the Tripolitan enterprise. . . . Thus in 1902 M. Delcassé, at the time French Minister for Foreign Affairs, was able to declare: 'In exchange for assurance given by France, not to interfere in Tripolitana, Italy has promised to do nothing which could obstruct French policy in Morocco.' From this time onward Tripoli and Morocco were linked together in the minds of the Italians, so that it was inevitable that when the Moroccan question should come up for settlement, Italy would press for a solution of the Tripolitan affair. . . . From 1902 onward, Italy showed that she meant to be faithful to her agreement with France respecting Morocco, and in pursuance of this policy, at the Algeciras Conference (1906), the Italian delegate voted with France against his ally, Germany, proving conclusively that Italy would not permit the Triple Alliance to stand in the path of her vital interests in the Mediterranean. . . . When the French column marched on Fez, and Germany despatched the *Panther* to Agadir . . . the Italians were spurred to action. For not only did the liquidation of Moroccan affairs point logically to a solution of the pending Tripolitan question, but in responsible quarters in Italy it was widely believed that if Italy did not occupy Tripoli, Germany would do so."—W. K. Wallace, *Greater Italy, pp.* 110-111, 112, 116-117.

1911.—Trial of Camorrists for Cuocolo murder in Viterbo. See CAMORRA: 1906-1912.

1911.—Claim against Haiti. See HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1911-1916.

1911-1913.—War with Turkey.—New Ottoman régime.—Turkish persecution of Italians in Tripoli.—Italy's need of colonial outlet in Tripoli.—Libyan campaign.—Peace with Turkey.—Reactions to the war in Italy.—Passage of suffrage and life insurance bills.—"Italy's relations with Turkey were rapidly approaching a crisis. The new Ottoman *régime,* while it was proving no better than the old in the matter of corruption, inefficiency, and persecution of the subject-races, had one new feature—an outburst of rabid chauvinism and of hatred for all foreigners, but especially for Italians, whom the Young Turks regarded as the weakest of nations. . . . In Tripoli, above all, where Italy's reversionary interest had been sanctioned by agreements with England and France, the position of Italian citizens and firms was rendered well-nigh intolerable. Turkish persecution reached such a point that two Italians, the monk, Father Giustino, and the merchant, Gastone Terreni, were assassinated at the instigation and with the complicity of the authorities, without any redress being obtained. The Nationalists since the beginning of their propaganda had agitated for a firmer attitude towards Turkey, insisting on the opening of Tripoli to Italian enterprise. Italy was being hemmed in on all sides by France in Algeria and Tunisia, and by England in Egypt; Tripolitaine alone remained as a possible outlet for her eventual expansion. The Turkish Government did nothing for the development of that province, but it was determined that no one else should do anything for it, and thwarted the efforts of every Italian enterprise, the Banco di Roma alone succeeding by ceaseless activity and untiring patience in creating important undertakings in the African vilayet. Had events pursued their normal course Italy would probably have been content to develop her commercial interests in Tripolitaine to the advantage of its inhabitants as well as of her own, waiting for the time when in due course the country should fall to her share. But the persistent hostility of the Turkish authorities was bringing matters to a head, and while the Italian Government apparently refused to regard the state of affairs as serious, the Nationalists continued to demand the assertion of Italy's interest in Tripoli. . . . Still the Government, from fear of international complications and of alienating its Socialist supporters, who, of course, opposed all idea of territorial expansion, refused to do anything. Then the Franco-German Morocco bombshells burst, and Agadir [1911] made the Italian people realise that the question of Tripoli called for immediate solution. The whole of the rest of Mediterranean Africa was about to be partitioned among the Powers, and Tripoli would certainly not be left untouched if Italy failed to make good her claims. . . . The nation realised that it was a case of now or never, and everyone felt that the folly of Tunis must not be repeated. At the same time the Turks, convinced that Italy would never fight, continued in their overbearing attitude, and placed increasing obstacles in the way of Italian enterprise in all parts of the Empire while ostentatiously favouring other foreign undertakings. . . . The Premier [Giolitti] at last saw the country was practically unanimous on the question of Tripoli, and although personally averse to all adventures in the field of foreign affairs which interfered with his political action at home, he realised that unless he faced the situation boldly his prestige was gone. On the 20th of September the expedition to Tripoli was decided. Hastily and secretly military preparations were made, and the Note concerning the sending of Turkish reinforcements or arms to Tripoli was issued. Then followed the *Derna* incident [the Turkish steamer *Derna,* under the German flag, landed arms in Tripoli], then the ultimatum, and finally the declaration of war. The Socialist leaders, who saw in this awakening of a national conscience and of a militant Imperialist spirit a serious menace to their own predominance, were in a state of frenzy, and they attempted to organise a general strike as a protest against the Government. But the movement fizzled out miserably, and only an insignificant number of workmen struck. On the other hand, the declaration of war was greeted by an outburst of popular enthusiasm such as no one believed possible in the Italy of to-day. The departure or passage of the troops on their way to Tripoli gave occasion for scenes of the most intense patriotic excitement. . . . The heart of the whole nation was in the enterprise. Even many prominent Socialists, casting the shackles of party fealty to the winds, declared themselves in favour of the Government's African policy and accepted the occupation of Tripoli as a necessity for the country, while the clericals were even more enthusiastic. But there was hardly a trace of anti-Turkish feeling; it was simply that the people, rejoiced at having awakened from the long nightmare of political apathy and international servility . . . and risen to a dawn of higher ideals of national dignity. Italy had at last asserted herself. The extraordinary efficiency, speed, and secrecy with which the expedition was organised, shipped across the Mediterranean, and landed in Africa, the discipline, *moral,* and gallantry which both soldiers and sailors displayed, were a revelation to everybody and gave the Italians new confidence in their military forces, and made them feel that they could hold up their heads before all the world unashamed. A new Italy was born—the Italy of the Italian nation."—Ignotus, *Italian nationalism and the war with Turkey*

Maps prepared specially for the NEW LARNED
under direction of the editors and publishers.

(*Fortnightly Review, Dec.,* 1911).—The Libyan campaign was carried through to a successful end despite the stubborn Turkish defence. At the beginning of the conflict 1,600 sailors were landed under the command of Rear-Admiral Umberto Cagni; military efficiency had been attained since the Abyssinian war and there was no bad news from the front which could be turned to account by the Socialists. The nation remained deaf to their protests, and the war in Tripoli was carried out with full consent of the people, concluding with the Treaty of Lausanne in 1912, by which Turkey recognized Italy's claims to Tripoli and Cyrenaica.—See also TRIPOLI: 1911-1913; TURKEY: 1911-1912.

ALSO IN: W. K. McClure, *Italy in North Africa.*

1911-1920.—Strength of labor movement. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1911-1920.

1912.—Giolitti's program for electoral reform.—Universal Suffrage Bill passed. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Italy: 1908-1912.

1912-1914.—On eve of the World War.—Renewal of Triple Alliance.—Political confusion and depression.—Power of Socialists.—Revolutionary riots at Ancona.—Despite the fact that the war with Turkey had placed Italy in a difficult position with her German and Austrian allies, the Triple Alliance was not permitted to lapse, for that agreement, "with the commercial treaties that perhaps made it most valuable to Italian feeling, was renewed in December 1912 for a fresh term of five years, but it is not inconsistent with that to say that the ties which bind Italy to her allies have since 1911 been seriously relaxed. The Italian attack on the Turks, the chosen clients of the German Powers, was a distinct affront to them: in the Agadir crisis Italy definitely cast her weight against the German scheme for acquisitions in Morocco itself: the Austrian veto against any attack on the Turks from the Adriatic hampered the Italian operations in 1911, and was naturally contrasted with the friendly attitude of Great Britain, who made all communication between Constantinople and Tripoli through Egypt impossible. The strenuous efforts of the Kaiser to improve the relations of his allies did something, but in any case very strong reasons compelled the Marquis di San Giuliano to accept a renewal of the Alliance, in spite of severe criticism. [See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Content of treaties.] . . . Neither from France nor from Great Britain could any great readiness be expected to accept a war with the Sultan, the head of Islam and the faith which millions of their subjects professed. The German Powers could at least use their influence with the Young Turks to secure a Turkish evacuation of Tripoli and to get for Italy rights of occupation in the Aegean Islands. But it was no doubt the prospect of imminent warfare in the Balkans which chiefly induced the Italian Court to seek an understanding with Austria. With Great Britain, Italy was on friendly terms in every sphere, with France a clear agreement was come to (October 1912) in regard to Morocco and Libya, but both Great Britain and France were the allies of Russia, the protector of the Balkan Slavs, and it was the vision of a great advance by Slavs or Greeks to the Adriatic which filled Italy with misgivings. In October 1912 Count Berchtold and the Marquis di San Giuliano agreed to maintain, so far as possible, the *status quo* in the Balkans—Italy, it would seem, promising to help Austria in preventing a Servian advance in Albania, while Austria undertook to check Greek pretensions in the north of Epirus or on the vital harbour of Valona. The overwhelming success of the Balkan League [against the Turks] between October and December 1912 no doubt surprised Italian diplomacy, as it did all Europe. To a great extent acceptance of the accomplished fact was forced on the Triple Alliance, for it was impossible to refuse the demands of four peoples in arms and intoxicated with victory. . . . But when in December Austria mobilized to force the Servians to leave Albania alone, and early in 1913 advanced the scheme of an independent Albanian principality, Italy felt bound to join her. The Montenegrins were all this winter besieging Scutari, and hoped to annex it; if that was more tolerable to Italy than to Austria, the Servian claims on Alessio, Durazzo, and S. Giovanni di Medua were most distasteful. Not that Italian feeling was opposed to the Serb aspirations; on the contrary, it is likely that Italy would look with kindliness on a union of Servia and Montenegro, which would form a powerful bulwark against Austria. But Italy could never tolerate any other Power in Albania. Hence her opposition to the Serbs; hence, also, her objections to single Austrian action against Montenegro at Scutari, and her preference for a concerted effort by all the Powers to settle the Albanian question."—K. Feiling, *Italian policy since 1870* (*Oxford Pamphlets,* 1914, *pp.* 14-16).—See also ALBANIA: 1908-1914; BALKAN STATES: 1913.—While Italy was trying to adjust the complications in her foreign relations with the dubious help of the Triple Alliance, the government was struggling with a general uneasiness in internal affairs. "The confusion which prevailed during the general elections of 1913 will never be forgotten. In one district the minister supported the Socialist candidate against the Clerical; in another the Clerical against the Socialist; the very same Prefect who in one constituency supported the Radical candidate opposed him violently in the neighbouring one. These contradictions were specially marked in the large towns, where the government policy varied according to the street and district. Influential deputies belonging to Giolitti's personal party were of course supported against every party. . . . The result of the elections was disastrous. Out of five million electors, one million voted for the Socialists, who had eighty seats in the new Chamber as against forty in the preceding one. They gained this large number of votes—more especially in the country districts—because they had had the courage to protest against the Tripoli campaign, and would probably have gained still more, had they conducted their anti-war campaign with more boldness and intelligence."—G. Ferrero, *Europe's fateful hour, pp.* 147-148.—Soon after the elections a sensational charge was made by Count Gentiloni, president of the Unione elettorale cattolica, to the effect that 228 of the constitutional members owed their election to clerical support, obtained by undertaking to oppose all legislative measures hostile to Catholic interests.

1913.—Code of criminal proceedings as affecting child criminals. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1902-1920.

1914.—Position of Italy in Triple Alliance.—Austro-Italian diplomatic amenities.—Change of cabinet.—"The international events of the first few months of 1914 assuredly did not seem likely to announce the successful developments of Italian policy which we have seen accomplished. Those observers who saw the European war approaching with rapid strides remarked, not without an-

xiety, the renewal of intimacy which appeared in the relations between Italy and Austria. The incidents of Trieste and the rivalry of the two Powers in Albania seemed to have left no traces. Austria and Italy had never seemed so harmoniously disposed. Toward the end of 1913 they had both made a comminatory application to Athens in order to fix the date by which Greece was to evacuate the territory in the Epirus which the Italian Government and the Austro-Hungarian monarchy intended to incorporate with Albania. Even close to the outbreak of the war, in April 1914, the Marquis di San Giuliano and Count Berchtold met at Abbazia and spent several days together there. On the 19th of April the news agencies despatched the following news: 'The Marquis di San Giuliano has sent, from Nabresina, a telegram to Count Berchtold, in which he thanks him in the most cordial manner for the pleasant days which they spent together at Abbazia. Count Berchtold has replied by a telegram in which he expresses, in phrases full of cordiality, the great pleasure which the visit of the Marquis di San Giuliano has afforded him.' At the same time a message was despatched from Rome: 'The newspapers in general, while observing a certain reserve as regards the results of the interview at Abbazia, which referred to the internal policy of Austria in respect of the Italians of the Empire, appear to be convinced that it will reinforce and extend the common activity of the Triple Alliance in the international domain.' Finally, Herr Bethmann-Hollweg addressed the following telegram from Corfu, where he was in attendance on Wilhelm II, to the Marquis di San Giuliano: 'Pray accept my best thanks for the friendly telegram which you and Count Berchtold have just sent me. In warmly congratulating you upon the happy results of your conversations at Abbazia, I can but concur in the feelings of satisfaction which you are experiencing, and it is a real pleasure to renew, on this occasion, the expression of my sincerest friendship.' Rarely had the Triple Alliance appeared so compact, so solid. However, those who —like our [the French] Ambassador, M. Camille Barrère—did not despair of seeing Italy follow a different direction in the event of a European war, had reason for their opinion, for they were aware of the complexity of interests which Italian politics has to face, the equilibrium, often difficult, which her very position forces her to maintain, and the circumstantial character of the decision which she is called upon to form. If there were unknown factors which might affect the position which Italy would assume in the event of a European war, one point might yet be regarded as settled, that Italy would not blindly or passively follow an aggression determined and directed by Germany. In default of other indications, one might have felt certain of this from the care which Bismarck expended in creating (for example, in the Tunisian affair) a situation which he believed would bring France into direct conflict with Italy. This seemed to him the only means of making the Triple Alliance operate as a single body, and procure for Germany, as a matter of absolute certainty, the assistance of Italy in the event of a war with France. This case excepted, Bismarck foresaw that Italy would refuse to enter an offensive war declared by the German Empire. On this point he was to leave warnings of remarkable lucidity to his successors."—J. Bainville, *Italy and the war* (tr. by B. Miall), *pp.* 177-180.—"On March 10 [1914] Signor Giolitti, the premier, announced in Parliament that he had placed his resignation in the hands of the King and that his Majesty had accepted it. He was succeeded by Signor Salandra, who introduced his cabinet on March 20. The new premier had retained the services of the Marquis di San Giuliano as foreign minister, but he died after a short illness and was succeeded at the Foreign Office by Baron Sidney Sonnino in October. In May an irredentist demonstration of students broke out in Rome and other towns. The government dealt firmly with the disorders and on May 6 Salandra closed the University of Rome. Then came the Austro-Serbian crisis. Italy being a partner with Germany and Austria-Hungary in the Triple Alliance, it was generally believed that the Italians would unhesitatingly throw in their lot with that of their allies. Of course, the German government did not take into proper account the attitude of Italy as a member of the Triple Alliance. That Italy was decidedly lukewarm toward her allies was known, of course, but too much attention was yet paid to the utterance of Signor Crispi, Italian premier at the time when the Triple Alliance was made [1883]: 'Weakened in the East, with the freedom of the seas in detrimental circumscription, restless internally, without friends, and without sufficient armament, Italy is compelled to care for its safety.' Italy did that for the next thirty years under the aegis of the Triple Alliance. But times will change, and other days will give to the best of treaties a meaning they did not have when entered into. In M. Barrère the French had an Ambassador at Rome who was just the man to wear down the antipathies that were held in common by the two peoples. Italy was the only weak spot where the Triple Alliance could be attacked as an agreement between the signatories, and Barrère was the man to do it. For years and years the occupant of the Palazzo Farnese labored away, often in the face of great obstacles, very often in the fetters of indiscreet conduct on the part of the men at home who did not fully know the plans of the government, Admiral Bienaimé, for instance, who on one occasion was sure that he could sink the Italian navy in exactly 40 minutes. For a while it seemed that the old hatred of the Italian for Austria-Hungary would be superseded by something better. In Vienna they hoped that *Italia irredenta* would be forgotten. . . . M. Barrère, mindful of the fact that nations are biological phenomena, labored on patiently and was later joined by the efficient Rennell Rodd, the British Ambassador at Rome. . . . Thus it happened that the Italian government disagreed with the contention of Vienna and Berlin, that the War between the Triple Entente and the Central Powers was to be looked upon as a war of defense in the case of the latter. Nor can it be said that the general aspect of its inauguration substantiated that assertion. Serbia could not attack Austria-Hungary and thus make operative the terms of the Triple Alliance Treaty and did not do that, of course."—G. A. Schreiner, *Craft sinister, pp.* 264-265.—"When the war broke out, the entire force of the Consulta, from the Minister almost down to the youngest under-secretary and functionary, had been reared in the dogma that the Triple Alliance was Italy's Ark of Safety, and had held until recently that her sound foreign policy was absolutely and irrevocably bound up therewith. This view was especially supported by two elements in Italy: one among the Business class of the North, the other among the 'Blacks,' or Vatican supporters among the Noble class in Rome. Against this was the feeling of hostility to Austria-Hungary which was

deeply implanted in the hearts of the People. To the westward Italy's foreign policy was confined almost exclusively to maintain advantageous relations with France and England. Spain came in for an occasional bit of attention as an old, historic Power that had had close relations with Italy; as more recently interested in the problem of the Mediterranean, and as a pious supporter of the Vatican. Toward America the attitude was one of well-nigh complete indifference. . . . The guiding principle of the Italian Government was that which Article VII of the Treaty of the Triple Alliance laid down: the restraining of Austrian extension in the Balkans in a way to impair the equilibrium between her and Italy as accepted in the treaty. That of Austria was the holding of Italy in the condition existing at the date of the Treaty, while she herself had a freer hand to extend her power. This aim is shown unmistakably by the official records."—T. N. Page, *Italy and the World War, pp.* 142, 151.—See also World War: 1914: XII. Neutral nations; 1915: IV. Italy: a.

1914.—Austro-Serbian crisis.—Trend of public opinion.—Declaration of neutrality.—Conflicting policies.—Secret treaty revealed.—On July 26 the French ambassador reported to Paris: "I observe that the greater part of Italian public opinion is hostile to Austria in this serious business." On August 2 Italy declared her neutrality. "Whether she should go farther was a difficult question. It is one thing to be estranged from your allies, and quite another thing to go to war against them. To begin with, she was jealous of her honour. . . . Italy was in a very delicate position. Her treasury was not overflowing, her debt was large, her taxation high; and though the training of her army was excellent, its equipment was not perfect. . . . The immediate occasion for hostile action was still wanting, and the chance of its appearance was lessened by Germany's strenuous courtship, which culminated in the dispatch of the former chancellor, Prince Buelow, as ambassador to Rome. Since Italy was one of the few means of entry for foreign supplies into Austria and Germany, considerable sections of her population were benefited by her neutrality. On the other hand, if she delayed too long, and the Allies were victorious, she could not expect to have much share in the division of spoils. Italy, as the youngest of the Great Powers, was bound to consider the matter on business lines, and it was inevitable that her real interest should be slow in revealing itself. So she contented herself with preserving an armed and watchful neutrality. . . . The extreme Clericals and the extreme Socialists, being united in the bonds of anti-nationalism, were in favour of neutrality at all costs. At the other end of the line the Nationalists, Republicans, moderate Socialists, and smaller oddments like the Futurists, favoured an immediate breach with Germany, and they probably carried the bulk of the people with them. The centre party, the Liberals, who were the party in office, adopted the policy of neutrality for the time being, and they had the support of the majority of the commercial and professional classes. But all the elements in Italian life which we are accustomed to rate high, the idealists, the inheritors of the Mazzini tradition, were arrayed against German pretentions. Many old 'red shirts' volunteered for the French and British service, and more than one descendant or kinsman of Garibaldi was to give his life for the Allies' cause."—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war, v.* 3, *pp.* 131-133.—It was not until after the end of the World War that the existence of a secret treaty, concluded between France and Italy in 1902, was revealed to the public. See World War: Diplomatic background: 55.

1914.—Death of the pope.—Election of Benedict XV.—Pope Pius X, who had ascended the papal chair in 1903, died on August 20, 1914. At the ensuing conclave, on September 3, a successor was chosen in the person of Cardinal Giacomo della Chiesa, who assumed the title of Benedict XV.

1914.—Preparation for war.—Military coup in Albania.—"From the moment of the outbreak of the War, Italy set to work in her own way to prepare for eventualities. She could not escape being drawn into the sweep of the vast convulsion, and this her Statesmen well knew, as did every one who knew her people, her situation, and her history. . . . She was substantially denuded of everything necessary for any step that might require her taking the field. It was subsequently charged against the Government, when she finally entered the War, that it had failed to realize the necessity of providing duly for the dread decision she was called on to make. . . . While wheat, steel, coal, and all other articles of prime necessity might undoubtedly have been bought more cheaply than ten months later, Italy was not then in a position to acquire them, and had she undertaken to acquire them in the quantity in which she subsequently was called on to do, she would soon have found herself obliged to declare immediately for what purpose she was accumulating such stores. This would have meant a complete change in her policy, even had she been in a condition financially and politically to enable her to make such disclosure. But she was not in this condition. She could no more have done the other than she could have openly mobilized her forces. What she did was to change her War Minister, who was held somewhat responsible for her state of depletion, and set quietly and deliberately to work to provide for future contingencies. She raised an internal loan of some $200,000,000 from her own people, and arranged shortly afterward for another voluntary subscription loan. Her industrials were induced quietly to enlarge and adapt their plants to possible needs; agents and missions were sent abroad to study, investigate, and report; her financiers were called in to confer, all so quietly as to create an air of mystery not wholly uncongenial to Italian policy. And gradually her available men were called out—not by classes nor for mobilization, but by categories of different sections, and ostensibly only for training, while other categories of other classes were released—until such confusion existed in the public mind that few among the uninitiated could tell how many men were under arms or where they were. Suffice it to say that when, ten months later, Italy entered the War, she had forces sufficient on her Austrian frontier to make a successful Offensive on a front extending for some 800 kilometres."—T. N. Page, *Italy and the World War, pp.* 180-182.—Three months after the war began, but seven months before she herself declared war on Austria, Italy committed an act which, in a time of European peace, would have precipitated something like an international crisis; she landed Italian marines at Valona in Albania on the eastern side of the Adriatic. In the presence of desperate battles going on in Flanders and Poland, the act at the time was almost unnoticed, though it was recognized as promising another complication for future settlement.—See also World War: 1914: III. Balkans: e.

1914.—Baron Sonnino's diplomatic duel with Austria and Germany.—"It is a singular thing that the Marquis di San Giuliano's successor (Sonnino) came to the Consulta with a character and a temperament very different from his, but with ideas which passed as being very much more backward. Baron Sonnino had the reputation of being a 'Triplicist' when he assumed the direction of foreign affairs. . . . During the illness of the Marquis di San Giuliano [foreign minister], and for some time after his death [in October, 1914], Signor Salandra had temporarily taken charge of foreign affairs. At one moment it was believed that he would assume this charge in a permanent fashion. Whatever temptation he may have felt, whatever suggestions may have been made to him (for Signor Salandra's star was already beginning to rise), the President of the Council preferred to retain the portfolio of the Interior. In the meantime events were growing ripe. The European war was spreading to the East, owing to the numerous provocations which the Germanised Young Turkey was inflicting upon the Triple Entente, and Italy saw herself forced to consider the question of safeguarding her interests in the Eastern Mediterranean, where she has so many projects respecting the future. Public opinion displayed an increasingly strong tendency in favour of preparing Italy for all eventualities. In the heart of the Government itself there were certain divergences of view, for early in November 1914 Signor Salandra sent in his resignation to the King. Victor Emmanuel III, after a few conversations with the leaders of the Parliamentary groups, again entrusted Signor Salandra with the formation of a Cabinet. In this new combination, which was soon put in hand, it was immediately remarked that General Zupelli, a determined supporter of army reinforcement, remained at the Ministry of War, while Signor Rubini, whose opposition to military expenditure was a secret to no one, abandoned the Ministry of Finance, where Signor Carcano replaced him. As for Signor Salandra, he finally chose the portfolio of the Interior. Finally Baron Sonnino was summoned to the Consulta. . . . It is curious to remember now, after the event, that Baron Sonnino's appointment to the Consulta first of all disappointed the Nationalist elements and the deputies of the Left, who were already partisans of an energetic policy of intervention against Austria and Germany, and were alarmed by his reputation as a 'Triplicist.' Baron Sonnino let them talk. He allowed himself to be regarded as a sphinx. During the whole of November he watched events, studying the European problem from the Italian point of view. On the 9th of December, by means of the telegram to the Duca d' Avarna with which the *Green Book* commences, he led Italian politics into a new path, by demanding of Austria that she should respect Article VII of the treaty of the Triple Alliance, an article which foresaw the possibility that Austro-Hungary might disturb the equilibrium of the Balkans, and which justified Italy in demanding compensation for herself. From that moment Italy was moving toward a rupture and war. The die was cast."—J. Bainville, *Italy and the war* (tr. by B. Maill), *pp.* 191-193.

1914.—Austrian plan to attack Serbia in 1913 revealed.—On December 5, speaking before the Chamber of Deputies on the declaration of neutrality, former premier Giolitti, said: "Inasmuch as I hold it necessary that Italy's loyal observance of international treaties shall be considered as being above any possibility of dispute . . . I feel it my duty to recall a precedent, which proves that the interpretation placed by the Government on the Treaty of the Triple Alliance is the correct interpretation, and was admitted as correct in identical circumstances by the Allied Powers. During the Balkan War, on the 9th August, 1913, about a year before the present war broke out, during my absence from Rome, I received from my hon. colleague, Signor di San Giuliano, the following telegram:—'Austria has communicated to us and to Germany her intention of taking action against Serbia, and defines such action as defensive, hoping to bring into operation the *casus foederis* of the Triple Alliance, which, on the contrary, I believe to be inapplicable. . . . I am endeavouring to arrange for a combined effort with Germany to prevent such action on the part of Austria, but it may become necessary to state clearly that we do not consider such action, if it should be taken, as defensive, and that, therefore, we do not consider that the *casus foederis* arises. Please telegraph to me at Rome if you approve.'

"I replied:—'If Austria intervenes against Serbia it is clear that a *casus foederis* cannot be established. It is a step which she is taking on her own account, since there is no question of defence, inasmuch as no one is thinking of attacking her. It is necessary that a declaration to this effect should be made to Austria in the most formal manner, and we must hope for action on the part of Germany to dissuade Austria from this most perilous adventure.' This course was taken, and our interpretation was upheld and recognised as proper, since our action in no way disturbed our relations with the two Allied Powers. The declaration of neutrality made by the present Government conforms therefore in all respects to the precedents of Italian policy, and conforms also to an interpretation of the Treaty of Alliance which has been already accepted by the Allies. I wish to recall this, because I think it right that in the eyes of all Europe it should appear that Italy has remained completely loyal to the observance of her pledges. . . . I should like now to make a very short statement in explanation of my vote on this question. I approve the Government's programme of an armed and vigilant neutrality for the guardianship of the vital interests of Italy. The Honourable President of the Council said truly that the vast upheaval becomes greater every day, and that it is given to none to foresee the end. The immense military and financial resources which the belligerent Powers have at their disposal exclude the possibility of an early termination of the conflict. As long as the necessity does not arise for us to come down into the arena to preserve our own vital interests, we ought all loyally to observe neturality, since it is only by such loyal observance that we can preserve intact that great source of strength which is freedom of action. In this conflict, which is without precedent in history, the political life of Italy may be at stake. The greatest prudence is therefore incumbent on all; and it is incumbent above all, not only on the Government and on Parliament, but also on that great force, the Press, to keep a single eye to the great interests of Italy and to remember only that they are Italians. In conclusion, I hope from the bottom of my heart that the men who at this supreme moment have the responsibility of Government may deserve the full gratitude of the country."—*The Times* (London), *Documentary history of the war, v.* 2, *pp.* 294-296.

1914.—Pan-German plan of expansion. See PAN-GERMANISM: Pan-German League and its branches.

1914.—General strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1914.

1914.—Colonies in Africa. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914.

1914-1918.—Direct and indirect taxation during World War. See TAXATION: World War.

1914-1918.—German propaganda. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship: d, 1.

1914-1921.—Effects of World War on shipping. See COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1914-1921.

1915.—Severe earthquakes in the Abruzzi.—"Attention was soon diverted, however, from political questions by one of the most shocking catastrophes that had ever occurred in the history of the nation. Shortly before 8 o'clock on the morning of January 13 there occurred a violent earthquake which totally destroyed the two towns of Avezzano and Sora [in the Abruzzi] and did great damage in other parts of the country. The centre of the earthquake was at Avezzano, a town of about 11,000 inhabitants; and it was estimated that 96 per cent. of the population of the town were killed. The towns and villages in the neighbourhood of the earthquake were seized with panic, and refugees crowded the roads to Rome. In Rome itself eighty houses were damaged and the shock was felt also at Naples, Caserta, Bologna, and Ancona. Cese was completely destroyed and many other villages in the neighbourhood, while almost the whole population was buried in their ruins. King Victor Emmanuel paid visits to the ruins of Avezzano and Sora, while Queen Helena, who had recently given birth to a daughter, organised special trains from Rome, loaded with food, clothes, and medicines. During the night of the 18th three further shocks were felt in the province of Cosenza, Calabria; and some slight damage was done to the village of Luzzi. On the 27th a shock was felt in the province of Benevento, and in both cases great panic ensued. It was subsequently estimated from statistics gathered in the district of the earthquake that the total number of lives lost amounted to 24,200. With the exception of a few hundred the dead belonged to the Avezzano district."—*Annual Register*, 1915, *p.* 205.

1915.—Treaty of London.—Definition of boundaries.—Jugo-Slav complications.—It was not until December, 1917, that the terms under which Italy consented to enter the war on the side of the Allies became known to the world, when the secret Treaty of London, concluded on April 26, 1915, was published by Trotzky, then Russian foreign minister. Signed by Sir Edward Grey and the ambassadors in London of France, Italy and Russia, the treaty stipulated the new boundaries which Italy was to receive at the conclusion of the war. (See also LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF; ADRIATIC QUESTION: Treaty of London.) This rectification of frontier had long been a matter of serious concern to the Italian kingdom. "Holding at once the northern heights above Italy and the Istrian and Dalmatian coasts across the Adriatic, with their long internal waterway, ports and harbors, Austria was strategically in a position to command Italy's border from the Swiss line half-way to the southern outlet of the Adriatic. The conformation of Italy obliged her, in view of the Italians, to control the Adriatic, at least, to the extent of maintaining therein a power superior to that of any other state or combination of states."—T. N. Page, *Italy and the World War, p.* 55.—"Stretching southward from the southern foothills of the Alps is the alluvial plain of the Piedmont. . . . Almost all of the Austro-Italian frontier lies in the difficult country of the Alps. . . . No appreciable advance into Austria is possible except over difficult mountainous country. That portion of the international boundary lying in the Alps is located in a position which, from the standpoint of military strategy, is highly unfavorable to Italy. It lies close to the southern edge of the mountains, near the Piedmont plain. Austria has the advantage of possessing most of the rough country as a bulwark against Italian aggression, but may herself sweep down upon the Italian plain with a minimum of difficulty."—D. W. Johnson, *Topography and strategy in the war, pp.* 122-123.—Closely bound up with the frontier question was Italy's complicated situation with regard to the Southern Slavs. Italian opinion had been apt to consider Jugo-Slav nationalism as merely an Austrian manœuvre; and the fear of Italian hostility and the extent of her ambitions had made Croats and Slovenes hesitate wholly to renounce the possibility of enlisting Austrian support against apprehended aggression. Italy had long been "in a situation of difficulty. France had established an entente with Russia, and Russia was tending to take a greater interest in a Pan-Slav movement which would extend her influence across to the Adriatic, and might traverse Italy's interests in that direction as much as Austria. The Southern Slavs of Serbia and the Turkish provinces were as unamenable to Italian influences as the Magyars themselves or the Austrian Germans, and in their relations with the Albanians had shown themselves as hostile to Italian interests as the former. Italy found herself obliged to preserve the equilibrium which had come about in the Balkans, and to do this—to lend her influence toward maintaining the status quo. . . . Against the Irredentists of the Italian Provinces Austria pitted the Tyrolese to the westward and, to the eastward, around the Adriatic, the Croats and other Jugo-Slavs, who, however they may have disliked Austria, were always ready to oppose the Italians. . . . There were many conflicts between the Italian Irredentists and the Jugo-Slavs in the long struggle for the redemption of the Irredentist Provinces."—T. N. Page, *Italy and the World War, pp.* 79, 111-112.—In May, 1915, the Jugo-Slav Committee in London issued a manifesto defining the territories inhabited by their race and declaring that "To perpetuate the disunion of these territories by leaving so many under Austro-Hungarian rule, *or to transfer even portions of them to another alien rule,* would be a flagrant violation of our ethnographical, geographical, and economic unity, and to this our people would unquestionably oppose an energetic and justifiable resistance."

1915.—Giolitti's policy of caution.—D'Annunzio turns the scales for war.—"Even out of power—he had voluntarily retired some months before the war—Signor Giolitti was still regarded as the most influential personality in all Italy. The statesman who had entered upon the Tripoli campaign, had given his country universal suffrage, and had ruled over Parliament, where his powerful hand had merged the parties, and allowed only one majority to survive—the Giolittian majority—if this powerful statesman spoke, was it not more than probable that he would find a hearing? If he showed a desire to return to power, was it possible that power would not

immediately be restored to him? In short, had he not delegated the government to Signor Salandra as to a lieutenant whom he proposed to replace when the burden should become too heavy, should demand the return of the old pilot? And again, it was Piedmont, and not only commercial, industrial, and financial Piedmont, but military and loyalist Piedmont, which Signor Giolitti represented and in which he was master; and Piedmont, the heart of the monarchy, seemed to come with him to Rome, to present itself before Parliament and in the Royal Palace. Taking all the elements of the situation into account, this move of Signor Giolitti's, whose doubts as to the best attitude to be observed by his country were well known, might have seemed capable of putting a stop to its intervention. . . . Signor Giolitti saw the situation as a positive thinker, an economist who does not care for a gamble, avoids risk, and considers that a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush, especially when to get the two one must suffer all the uncertainties of a war, risk precious lives, and pay the expenses of a campaign. . . . On the 12th of May Signor Gabriele d'Annunzio arrived in Rome by an evening train. The city was already overexcited by the rumours of the last few days, and the reports which were current in all directions concerning the 'neutralist intrigues' and the 'Parliamentary conspiracy.' The Romans were all for the war and for Signor Salandra. The presence of Signor Giolitti in Rome alarmed and irritated them. In vain did Signor Giolitti, in a public letter to the *Tribuna,* assert that it had never entered his mind to overthrow the Ministry, and that he had confined himself to responding to a summons from the King and the President of the Council himself, with whom he had to discuss the general situation. In this connection there is no reason to doubt Signor Giolitti's loyalty. Unhappily for him he had friends and a clientèle, and he also found partisans for this occasion who were far less moderate and circumspect, and who compromised him gratuitously. [See also WORLD WAR: 1915: IV. Italy: a.] . . . However, the same phenomenon carried Gabriele d'Annunzio to the head of the crowd which favoured intervention. That a subtle artist in literature, a scholarly poet, a writer of a refined æstheticism, inaccessible to the vulgar, should have become a tribune, an agitator of the masses, is one of the most remarkable characteristics of this troubled period, and one that will be remembered by history. Italy is, in the modern world, one of those privileged lands where these metamorphoses still remain possible, where literature mingles with life, where all are accessible to lyrical feeling, where it is near the surface in all. . . . On the 12th of May, the first night of his arrival in Rome, 150,000 people had come to welcome him. From the balcony of the Hôtel Regina—facing the palace of the Queen-Mother, who, from one of its windows, witnessed the spectacle—Signor d'Annunzio delivered a speech comparable to the speeches delivered at the Quarto and in Genoa; a sonorous harangue, in which Nationalism was nourished by classic poetry and history, in which memories of the *Risorgimento* and the famous sayings of the Garibaldian leaders and warriors were mingled with lines from Dante. Signor d'Annunzio's first speech to the Romans had but one subject: patriotism. It was by the force of events that his following speeches took on more violent touches, and the accents of civil war."—J. Bainville, *Italy and the war* (tr. by B. Miall), *pp.* 204-210.—In one of his speeches he exclaimed, "We will no longer be a museum of antiquities, a kind of hostelry, a pleasure-resort under a sky painted over with Prussian blue for the benefit of international honeymooners!" Grandsons of Garibaldi added their appeals to enthusiastic audiences.

1915.—Giolitti's diplomacy.—Reasons for war.—Austria's violations of the Triple Alliance.—Break up of the alliance. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IV. Italy: a; TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Break up of the Triple Alliance.

1915.—Italy declares war on Austria-Hungary.—The diplomatic negotiations between Italy, Austria-Hungary and Germany had dragged on from early December 1914 until April 8, 1915, when Baron Sonnino definitely formulated the demands of Italy as the price of neutrality throughout the war. The terms were refused by Vienna on April 16. Ten days later a secret treaty was signed in London between Italy, France, Great Britain and Russia, by which Italy undertook to enter the war on the Allied side. Sonnino formally denounced the Triple Alliance on May 3. Signor Giolitti's return resulted in a political crisis, and Premier Salandra tendered his resignation on May 13; on the 16th it was announced that the king had refused to accept the resignation. Giolitti left Rome and on the 20th the government, by overwhelming majorities in both chambers, secured extraordinary powers. Mobilization was ordered on the 22nd, and on May 23, Italy declared war on Austria-Hungary.—See also AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1915.

1915.—Land and sea power. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IV. Italy: b; IX. Naval operations: b; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 19; 34.

1915.—World War: Austrian strategic program.—Opening of Cadorna's campaign against the Austrians.—First military movements. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IV. Italy: c; d.

1915.—World War: Aerial and naval operations.—Sinking of the Ancona. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IX. Naval operations: b; X. War in the air; U.S.A.: 1915 (December).

1915.—Occupation of northern Epirus.—Expulsion of Greeks. See EPIRUS: 1912-1919.

1915-1916.—War declared against Germany, and Turkey.—Premier's statement relative to Italy's position.—"The rumors of an entente arrived at between Italy and the Allies fell on soil already well prepared to receive them and bore rich fruit in sundry directions. It emancipated the People from the fear that the Government might be overreached by Austria and Germany and be drawn into some arrangement which would bind Italy and debar her from availing herself of any future situation to take her stand with the forces of Liberty, and thus prevent her maintaining a position as one of the great powers, which would have been a deadly blow to her national pride and in a measure to her national consciousness. . . . It was not until August 23, 1916, that war with Germany was declared, and just before this event a Convention was agreed on by which the property and persons of unoffending civilians on both sides were to be respected. On August 21 War was declared by Italy against Turkey, which had been acting for a good while in a manner that testified her hostility to Italy and her people. . . . There was a feeling among certain elements in Italy who had been reared in touch with the Triple Alliance that Italy had been placed in an equivocal position by the Government's departure from its declared Neutrality and by its Declaration of War. This idea was sedulously fostered by the influential pro-German

and pro-Austrian elements, also by the Peace Socialist party, known as the Official Socialists, which numbered in the Chamber a not numerous, but able minority. . . . The silence of the Government on the subject, whether due to pride or diplomacy, left the implication of their enemies for the most part unchallenged, and the consequences were very unhappy. Even when the *Green Book* was laid before the Country at the historic Session of the Chamber of May 20, the very eve of the Declaration of War, the Documents which it contained began only with the 9th of December, 1914, and the foes of Italy still insisted that their charge was not refuted. So considerable was this feeling in Italy that eventually the Government deemed it advisable to make an exposition of Italy's precise position in relation to the step taken by her in entering the war. And on the 2d of June, 1915, less than ten days after Italy's Declaration of War against Austria-Hungary, Premier Salandra made a formal address at the Campidoglio (the Capitol) in which he set forth her precise position. . . . He quoted from the despatch sent by the Italian Government to the Italian Ambassador at Vienna on July 26, 1914, reporting the warning given to the German Ambassador at Rome (von Flotow) that Italy held that Austria had no right to take such a step as she was taking (against Serbia) without previous accord with her allies. Austria, in fact, declared the Italian Premier, by the terms of her notes and the demands made therein, which indeed were of little value against the Pan-Serb peril, but were most offensive to Serbia and indirectly to Russia, clearly demonstrated her wish to provoke war, and Italy notified her that because of this and because of the defensive and conservative character of the Treaty of the Triple Alliance she felt under no obligation to aid Austria in the event of her getting into a war with Russia, because any European war which might ensue would be the consequence of Austria's own act of provocation and aggression. This was, he stated, followed up by a plain notification to Germany and Austria on the 27th and 28th of July (1914) that unless Italy should obtain the recession of the Italian provinces, held by Austria, and adequate compensation, the Triple Alliance would be irreparably swept away. 'Impartial History,' declared the Premier, 'will say that Austria, having found Italy hostile in July [? August] 1913, and in October of the same year to her plans of aggression against Serbia, attempted last summer in agreement with Germany, the method of surprise and of the *fait accompli*.' . . . In proof of this, he quoted the declaration of Count Berchtold made on the 31st of July, 1914, to the Italian Ambassador that if mediation had been exercised 'it would not have been able to interrupt the hostilities already initiated with Serbia.' And to this he added the statement of the Austrian Ambassador, Merey, made on the 30th of July to the Italian Minister for Foreign Affairs, Marquis di San Giuliano, sustaining Austria's position, declaring that Austria could give no pledges in regard to not acquiring territory to the damage of Serbia, because she could not foresee whether in the course of the war she would not be obliged against her will to seize Serbian territory, which would, added the Italian Premier, have reduced Serbia to the condition of a vassal State, an act which he showed would, in turn, have eventually brought Italy into a similar condition. . . . Having shown Austria's attitude of hostility to Italy in the critical moments of her war with Turkey . . . the Italian Premier took up and discussed the charges made by the Emperors of Austria and Germany that Italy looked with lascivious eyes on the patrimony of the former's House, and the charge of the Chancellor, von Bethmann-Hollweg, that he was endeavoring to obtain concessions from Austria to purchase Italy's fidelity. The Italian Premier declared that the objects of Italy in discussing these concessions were three: First, the defense of the Italian race, which he declared Italy's first duty; second, to obtain and secure a defensible frontier in substitution of that imposed on Italy in 1866, which left the gates and the shores of Italy wide open to her adversaries; third, a strategic position in the Adriatic less unsafe, less unhappy than Italy possessed, the effects of which were made clear by this war. . . . This speech made a profound impression in Italy. It relieved those who had felt that Italy had placed herself in an equivocal position before the world and it inspired the hope that the world would now understand the sound basis of her action."—T. N. Page, *Italy and the World War, pp.* 208, 215-221.

1915-1918.—Organization of industry during World War.—Work of women.—"The difficulties that had to be overcome were greater than those of almost any other nation. Italy had to learn from actual experience, as well as had the Allies, that almost every phase of the operation of this war surpassed all previous calculations. This was especially true with regard to cannon and ammunition. . . . But to provide for the experiences of war, Italy did not possess the vast industrial organization of Great Britain or the powerful one of France, to say nothing of the enormous industries possessed today by the United States. Her industries were in a formative state, especially those connected with Metallurgy, which were essential for the conduct of the war. She had to overcome grave difficulties, such as the want of coal and steel. At the outbreak of hostilities Italy imported steel, machinery and metals from other countries and it was from Germany that she imported the larger quantity. . . . During the period of neutrality the gravity of the problem gradually unfolded itself, and Italy took heed of her own industries, having understood from this moment that no campaign could be undertaken unless supported by direct home production. But only on the declaration of war in May, 1915, when bitter experience began to demonstrate it inexorably, did Italy understand what a vast war machine was required to conquer an enemy not only extraordinarily well equipped but also situated in such favorable natural positions as to overwhelm almost any effort. Every previous calculation seemed enormously inferior to the need; but the problem had to be faced. Some Italian industries had to be multiplied; others had to be created. Machinery for the new tasks had to be supplied; labor increased, educated, and organized; coal and steel distributed carefully. But these last became daily more difficult to obtain, owing to the high freightage demanded and the want of vessels. What had become a problem of transformation and multiplication in England and France, where industrial essentials already existed, and where all that was needed was to increase the output in determined quantities, in Italy was a problem of contrivance. . . . Industrial mobilization was proclaimed in August, 1915, under the control of the Under Secretary for Arms and Munitions. This was necessary to regulate, control and co-ordinate all existing activities and to create new ones. Through this, and for

the first time in the history of the nation, Italy, forced by the demands of war, attempted to regulate her industries. . . . The difficulties to be solved contained a number of peculiar problems, each of which was of great importance and very difficult of solution. . . . The Bureau of Industrial Mobilization had to organize production, and thus provide for the increase in the manufacture of machines as well as ascertain the powers of production of the mineral industries. It was necessary to augment the production of steel, which was, previous to the war, about one-tenth part of that produced in Great Britain and the sixth of that in Russia. . . . Controlled establishments, that is to say, private industries engaged in the production of war material, were without delay connected with the military ones through the Industrial Mobilization Committee. And besides this well organized and disciplined group, other minor establishments sprang up for the production of munitions, especially for the output of projectiles, which were also under the same control. . . . At the close of the year, 1915, one noted a considerable increase in both men and munitions. The industrial army numbered 200,000 men and the controlled establishments increased to about 300. But as the need of arming for a long and difficult war was made manifest, the efforts made during the winter season and the first six months of 1916 were such that the controlled establishments leaped up to 800 and were supported by a proportionate increase of workers, who soon amounted to about 300,000. . . . At the close of 1916 the results were such as to assure the most absolute confidence. The controlled establishments numbered 1000 and the industrial army 500,000, which included some 70,000 women. . . . In the spring of 1916 the output of machine guns was already eight times more than that of the first months of the same year while seven times as many trench bombs, five times as many rifles and three times as many cannon were manufactured. . . . But most of all was Italy's supreme force directed to the production of aeroplanes. Whereas, at the opening of the war, the aviation industry hardly existed, during the third year of the war, ninety establishments were given over to this branch. . . . With these industrial efforts one must not forget the work achieved by the state railways, which embrace the largest network of lines in Europe under any single control. . . . Within the first twenty-two months, the war statistics show that 11,000,000 soldiers and officers, 1,000,000 quadrupeds, 3 million wagons of necessary material, with a monthly maximum that reached 900,000 men and 180,000 trucks or wagons, were handled. On several lines daily traffic showed more than 100 trains; on some days as many as 120; and at the stations, where traffic was at its greatest, no less than 300, 320 and even 350 trains were totalled. To this must be added the collection of trucks to form the sanitary trains, which were two-thirds more than was considered necessary in time of peace, for the composition of armoured trains on coast defense service, for the refrigerating cars of frozen meats, of which, within a comparatively short time, no less than 100,000 tons were sent up. With all this, the state railways supported the increase in the transport of coal and of materials required for Italy's industries, guaranteeing also a proper division of food stuffs, especially cereals. It also took that portion of the traffic which, before the war, was borne by the Adriatic Navigation Company, and it reduced, without serious inconvenience, the passenger service. As a matter of fact, the proceeds of the traffic in the first portion of the war (1915-1916) amounted to 758,657,788 lire of which 221,589,088 lire were for military transport, with an increase of 183,000,000 over the preceding. And it increased in the following period (1917-1918); so that the average monthly turn-over was some 90,000,000 as compared with 48,000,000 in 1913-1914."—S. A. Cotillo, *Italy during the World War, pp.* 82-91.—"To the women of Italy, the war brought a tremendous task for which they were totally unprepared. Throughout history their lives had been, as a rule, sheltered, for the necessity of work different from that of the care of the home had hardly ever presented itself. During the war they were suddenly thrown into work in factories and offices, as well as in hospitals and asylums. . . . It is only to those who know how the Italian women hated to assume the duties and privileges of the other sex that there can come a fair realization of the wonder that it has been. . . . Among the Allied nations, Italy in normal times has always been the one least given to employing women in the industrial field. For this reason it is remarkable that in May, 1917, the number of Italian women taking the place of men in war work amounted to 120,000 and grew steadily during the war The number of women wage-earners grew from the 2,500,000 of pre-war days to 5,000,000. Women in large numbers were employed as street sweepers, street-car conductors and railroad ticket agents, though the greatest work contributed by women was along the lines of agricultural, munition work and nursing. In Italy, where the women of the peasantry have always given a great deal of help to agriculture, it was, perhaps, not surprising that the burden of farming fell entirely upon the women and that they became the food producers of the nation. From 1916 to 1918, the women had to do most of the work of the fields, and it was a stupendous task. In Lombardy they saved the silk worm industry. In the South, the results of their efforts gave to Puglia a better harvest in 1916-1917 than had been reaped in the preceding year. Woman's contribution to the munition industry during the war was most marked. The number of women employed in the munition factories grew from 1,760 in 1914 to over 300,000 in 1918. Their work was reported as efficient, accurate and reliable. . . . The War Department was able to substitute women for many soldiers employed in writing, cooking [baking] and laundry, . . . and in clothing stores. . . . Knitting and needle work became . . . general and was pursued with . . . zeal. . . . Actual work rooms were established everywhere, taking contracts for army furnishings and employing thousands of wives and relatives of the fighting men. . . . Another valuable movement initiated by the women was the organizing of the telephone girls, whose work had become superfluous, and employing them for the making of garments. . . . The problem of giving civil and material assistance to the families of soldiers was mainly solved by the Government through assigning the making of military clothing to the . . . women whose brothers or husbands were fighting at the front. The direction of these workshops was under volunteer workers. It meant the handling of enormous business and a financial management of millions, but the women who took such responsibilities discharged their duties well. Half a million working women were given employment. In the war zone a great quantity of women found employment in the army laundries, while in the mountain territory women were found very efficient

and satisfactory agents in keeping the roads clear from snow and in carrying loads of war materials and food to the soldiers up in the mountains. In the rear lines at the front many thousands of women were employed to transport wire rolls or sacks of concrete for trenches as well as wood for the barracks. . . . The Italian Red Cross women also contributed their services as nurses, as managers of the rest houses and canteens for the soldiers going to the front and coming back, which originated in Milan. The movement for the establishment of Casa del Soldato throughout Italy was also greatly helped by the women. For instance, the Casa del Soldato in Genoa was founded and maintained exclusively by the women's association, 'Pro Patria.' The material assistance and comfort which they offered to the soldiers was very properly supplemented and completed by another woman-devised and woman-managed institution—the 'Ufficio Notizie Militari,' a Bureau of Information for the interchange and distribution of news from the soldiers to their families, and vice versa."—*Ibid., pp.* 74-78.—See also Y.M.C.A.: World War activities: 1914-1919: Work in France and Italy.

1916.—Resignation of Salandra.—Boselli ministry.—"While Italy was in the throes of the greatest battle of her war, with the Austrians pushing onward, another crisis arose within her boundaries which was precipitated by this event. The discontent with the Salandra Government had steadily grown during the spring months, though it was kept in check by a desire not to appear disunited in face of the enemy. When the Chamber reopened on June 6, it was evident that unless M. Salandra departed radically from his attitude of aloofness he would soon be in open conflict with the Chamber, which would lead to his downfall. The Chamber was in a restless frame of mind. The Government had maintained absolute silence regarding the military situation in the Trentino, and insisted on pursuing routine business. The Chamber bowed to the demand and passed financial bills in rapid succession without discussion. Thereupon M. Salandra, in demanding a vote of confidence on June 10, made [the following reference to the defensive positions of the Trentino and the Austrian offensive:] . . . 'We must manfully recognise that had the positions been better prepared and better defended, these positions would have at least held out longer.' Here was an open criticism of the Italian Higher Command which, though it was not directed against General Cadorna personally, but rather against General Brusati, spoken by the head of the Government in so grave a moment, could only be interpreted as an accusation. It was evident that M. Salandra was sincere when he spoke, and that he did not wish to give the country mere sentimental bombast, but it was also patent that he was tired of the struggle with a recalcitrant Parliament, and that if he had to fall it would be by his own hand rather than by that of another. As was inevitable, the Government motion for a vote of confidence was defeated; two days later M. Salandra announced his resignation. The men who had compassed his overthrow did so actuated by the most diverse motives; the Official Socialists and Giolittians because he had led the country into war; the Interventionists because he had not prosecuted the war with sufficient vigour. The King, who for a year had been living uninterruptedly at the front and had personally visited all the zones and sectors of his long and varied battleline, was obliged to return to select a new Premier. Though M. Salandra had by his lack of *souplesse* alienated the sympathy of many, he, nevertheless, was still strong in the country, and the King was unwilling that he should not remain at his post at the head of a larger, more representative Ministry. But apparently M. Salandra wished to retire. The Interventionists loudly clamoured for a National Ministry which would take firm hold of the business of waging war with greater zeal and energy. After due consultations M. Boselli, the dean of Italian Deputies, was intrusted with the formation of a 'National Cabinet.' It was a difficult task. It was held desirable to have Baron Sonnino remain at the Foreign Office, but he was unwilling to do so unless M. Salandra also remained in the Cabinet. Baron Sonnino's objections were finally overcome, and after some delays, on June 18, the composition of the National Ministry was announced. The new Ministry had been increased in size from 13 to 19 members, in order to include in so far as possible the representatives of all Parliamentary groups. Here for the first time we find a Catholic and a Republican with a portfolio in the same Cabinet, which also included a Socialist, M. Bissolati, the leader of the Interventionists. The Salandra Ministry thus came to an end, and the new National Ministry took up the reins of power."—W. K. Wallace, *Greater Italy, pp.* 293-296.—See also World War: 1916: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: e.

1916.—World War: Capture of Col di Lana.—Austrian offensive and its failure.—Fall of Gorizia.—Invasion of southern Albania.—Hard winter. See World War: 1916: IV. Austro-Italian front: a, to d, 1; Albania: 1915-1917.

1916.—Allied economic conference at Paris.—Text of resolution. See Tariff: 1916; World War: 1916: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: a.

1916.—World War: Naval warfare in the Adriatic. See World War: 1917: IX. Naval operations: b, 2.

1916.—Relief of Serbian and Montenegrin refugees. See World War: 1916: V. Balkan theater: a.

1916.—Italian contingents along the Salonika front. See World War: 1916: V. Balkan theater: b, 1.

1916.—Recognition of Grand Sherif of Mecca as king of the Hejaz.—Arabia's part in World War. See Arabia: 1916 (June).

1916 (December).—Peace proposals from Vienna. See World War: 1917: XI. Efforts toward peace: f.

1917.—Attitude towards Russian peace formula.—Caporetto disaster.—Fall of Boselli cabinet.—Orlando, premier.—The peace formula of "No annexations and no indemnities" proposed by the Russian revolutionary provisional government struck no responsive chord in Italy, for that country had specifically entered the war with the object of settling the "Italia Irredenta" question. For this aspiration thousands of Italians had laid down their lives. A group of radical members of the Lower House were sent to Petrograd early in the summer to convince the provisional government of the justice of Italian claims. As the party consisted only of pro-war advocates and did not include representatives of the Official Socialist Party, they failed in their objective, the Russian Socialists criticizing the mission as not being representative of Italian democracy. Foreign minister Sonnino declared on June 20 that the Russian peace formula was unsatisfactory "if separated from positive conceptions of the

liberty and independence of nations, and the annulment of the results of past aggressions. . . . On October 24th Italy was overtaken by the first of that series of military disasters which destroyed, successively, an Italian, a British, and a French army; in each case resulted in far-swinging advance on the part of the enemy, and placed the whole military establishment of the nation assailed in gravest jeopardy. Two years after the great disaster of Caporetto an Italian military commission reported that there had been three causes for the collapse of the Italian Second Army. These causes were: first, the failure of Cadorna and his subordinate generals to provide necessary reserves and adequate second and third positions; second, the successful progress of enemy and socialistic propaganda in the Italian army, and third, the new German tactics."—F. H. Simonds, *History of the World War, v. 4, p. 271.*—Public dissatisfaction over the Caporetto disaster and food scarcity produced a cabinet crisis in October; a vote of confidence in the government was defeated by 314 voices to 96 and a new ministry under Vittorio Orlando replaced the Boselli cabinet. On December 22 the new premier denounced the Socialist-Bolshevik peace program and gained a vote of confidence by 345 to 50.—See also WORLD WAR: 1917: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: f; IV. Austro-Italian front: d; d, 3.

1917.—World War: War in Julian Alps.—Austro-Hungarian and German invasion.—Their penetration into Venetia. See WORLD WAR: 1917: I. Summary: b, 8; b, 9.

1917.—World War: Operations on the Austro-Italian front.—Defense in Trentino and Isonzo regions against Austrian attack.—Counter offensive in Trentino and Piave district.—British contingents in Italy.—Isonzo Caporetto offensive.—Reasons for defeat.—Intensive fighting on the Piave and Asiago fronts. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: a, to e.

1917.—World War: Operations of fleet in the Adriatic.—Aid rendered to Serbians. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IX. Naval operations: b

1917.—Relations with Mexico. See MEXICO: 1917-1918.

1917.—National Board for the Protection and Assistance of War Invalids. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: World War and education: Reëducation.

1917 (April-May).—Mission to the United States. See U. S. A.: 1917 (April-May).

1917 (July).—Independence of Albania under Italian protection proclaimed by General Ferrero. See ALBANIA: 1915-1917.

1917 (August).—Note of Pope Benedict to all belligerents asking for termination of war. See WORLD WAR: 1917: XI. Efforts toward peace: g.

1917 (November).—Rapallo conference. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: d, 5.

1917-1918.—Educational system.—Scuole popolare. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General: Italy.

1918.—World War: Summary of operations on Austro-Italian front.—Austrian offensive in the north.—Italian counter attack.—Battle of Vittorio Veneto.—Campaign in Albania. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: a; b; b, 4; c; Balkan theater: a; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1918.

1918.—World War: Naval operations.—Penetration to Pola. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: b.

1918.—Represented at Interallied Labor Conference. See LABOR PARTIES: 1868-1919.

1918.—Represented at London and Paris scientific conferences. See INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

1918.—Minimum wage legislation. See LABOR REMUNERATION: 1894-1922.

1918.—Intervention in Siberia. See SIBERIA: 1917-1919.

1918.—Condition of Italy at end of World War.—Aftermath of Caporetto defeat.—Orlando ministry.—Socialist opposition to the war.—Food shortage.—Victory.—Post-bellum problems.—"The great calamity of Caporetto, on October 27, 1917, took the world by surprise. Everyone outside of Italy marvelled how it was that this rout should almost overwhelm her so soon after we had received bulletins announcing her brilliant advance. . . . [At] the time she entered the war . . . there was a considerable peace party made up of business men who did not wish to have their prosperity interrupted by war. There were also pacifists . . . [with] a secret preference for Germany. The socialists, who in Italy, as well as in other Entente lands and in the United States, were actually under German control, whether they admitted it or not, added many recruits to the Anti-War League. Many Clericals sided with the Teutons as a matter of course, for Austria was the chief Catholic nation in Europe. . . . It was believed in Italy that the Pope had been promised by both the German and the Austrian Kaisers that they would restore his temporal power at the end of the war. The Ultramontane Diet of Bavaria openly announced that this was one of the aims of the war. . . . [German propaganda] . . . went so far as to concoct a fake copy of the *Secolo* newspaper of Milan in which among genuine news it published . . . that the French had turned against the Italians, had captured Turin, and were besieging Milan; also that the Austrians yearned for peace and wished to fraternize with their Italian brothers. And in fact when the Austrians advanced on the fatal morning of October 27th, [1917] they threw up their hands and shouted 'Kamerad!' The Italians laid down their weapons and advanced to meet the Austrians, and then the Germans, who had been screened behind the Austrians, rushed forward, opened fire, and the panic began. . . . The gradual diminishing of rations [had] caused a slackening of determination and morale. . . . You can judge how near the Italian soldiers were to starvation when you know that for awhile before Caporetto some of the troops were reduced to seven dried chestnuts apiece for their morning ration. More even than for themselves they worried over the destitution of their wives and children from whom they had infrequent or no news."—W. R. Thayer, *Volleys from a non-combatant, pp.* 197-199.—Orlando "soon found his powers, as exceptional as they were, taxed to the utmost, as the knowledge of the extent of the disaster became known throughout the country. Fortunately for him and for Italy, it was the very completeness of the disaster that brought the remedy. Although after the first shock of the collapse on the Isonzo had passed, dissensions began again among Parliamentary elements, they were kept for the most part within closed doors. Externally a solid front was shown and the people grew more and more resolute. It was the people of Italy who in this cataclysm saved Italy. Responding to the King's appeal to their patriotism, they united in one solid mass of fervid patriotism, resolved to do and to suffer all for Italy."—T. N. Page, *Italy and the World War, p.* 320.—"The situation in the spring of 1918 was anything but favorable. . . . Italy had passed

through a cold and hungry winter, and now the massive attacks of Ludendorff were smashing through the lines in France and Belgium. . . . The official Socialist party had refused to vote for a declaration of war or to assist the conduct of military operations in any manner. Some of the most notable leaders of the Socialists had broken off from the party and had formed a separate organization known as the Social Democratic party. But on the whole the strength of the organization remained unimpaired and it constituted a powerful nucleus of opposition to war during the entire period. Italian Socialism furthermore was not built on highly organized unions of labor, which under the industrial conditions in Italy did not exist on a large scale, but found much of its strength in the rural regions where the peasants were bitterly opposed to the large land holdings of the proprietors and were taken with the cry of 'The land for the peasants.' The traditional hostility between the church and the state in Italy did not improve the situation, so far as the solidarity of the national effort was concerned. The political leader of Italy, Giolitti, who was said to control two-thirds of Parliament, was bitterly hostile to war, and did everything in his power to prevent it. . . . The combination of Giolittians, Socialists powerful in rural as in urban districts, and underground business interests, was a powerful one, and made itself felt in weakening the war will of Italy. This powerful combination worked upon a much weakened people. No nation made greater sacrifices in the European war than did Italy. Not a rich state, and meeting its financial obligations with difficulty in times of peace, the extra war burden was carried by the Italians only with the very greatest difficulty. Not having coal nor steel nor oil, from the outbreak of the war Italy suffered the lack of these vital necessities of modern industry and of modern war. On the other hand, their exports of fancy cotton and silk goods, fruits, wines and art products were largely cut off, partly through failure in production, partly through lack of a market, and partly from lack of shipping facilities. The result of these combined forces was a tremendous economic pressure upon Italy to end the war. Continuance was made possible only by heroic sacrifices in which every man, woman and child participated. In a very literal sense the Italian people all took part in the war. Not only were five million men mobilized, but many others were drawn into war industries, leaving the ordinary work to be performed by old men, boys and women. The shortage of coal was made good by endurance of cold. The shortage of food was made good by hunger. Adding to all this the wide extent of German influence, the Italian catastrophe in October [1917] and the grave reverse of the Allies in March [1918], it is easy to see that the Italian situation was perilous in the extreme. The Central Powers confidently expected Italy to go the way of Russia, before the end of 1918, as a result of military defeat and internal disintegration."—C. E. Merriam, *American publicity in Italy* (*American Political Science Review, Nov.*, 1919).—"The Army had to be supplied, even if the civic population suffered; and at times, in cities like Naples and Messina and Palermo, the supplies of food were actually exhausted. The grain ships coming to their relief were sunk on sundry occasions almost in sight of port. Towards the end of January (21) Premier Orlando and Signor Crespi were compelled to go to Paris, like Jacob's Sons to Egypt, to get Bread, and to England to get Coal. . . . There was now beginning to be a feeling among the Allies that no complete and crushing victory was likely to come. . . . But the world was longing for Peace, and certainly it could not sustain much longer the strain and drain of a war that was exhausting it to the point of sheer destruction. . . . The situation in Italy was growing more distressing as means grew more scant. . . . And to make the situation more difficult there was a feeling prevalent that notwithstanding the sacrifices undergone by the Italian People, Italy and her part were undervalued by her Allies. . . . The long vigil on the Piave was wearing on the Italian troops. . . . Tremendous efforts were made by the enemy throughout all this period to shake Italy's morale. The destruction of Italian cities was a part of Austria's regular plan. . . . When the [German] second, or June offensive, occurred in France . . . the Austrians in concert with them made a move to break the Italian defence on the Piave. . . . Accordingly Austria made imposing preparations for an offensive to begin the middle of June, and on June 15, after a tremendous bombardment on the Italian positions along her entire front, seventy Divisions of Austrians were sent forward to push through to Italy's heart. . . . It looked serious enough for a while. . . . But there was no break in Italy's morale now. . . . For the third time Italy was saved, and for the last time an Austrian offensive, planned and prepared with all the military skill at her service, came to naught and ended in disaster. . . . But the next time an offensive was opened on the Piave it was Italy's offensive, and it ended on November 4 in shattered Austria's appeal for an armistice. . . . Thus was accomplished the dream of Patriots: the redemption of the Unredeemed regions of Italy; the liberation of the remnants of the subjugated children of Italy. . . . With the capture of the Irredentist regions and the destruction of the Austrian armies new duties and burdens devolved on Italy. She found herself facing problems which had come so suddenly and so unexpectedly that no time had been given her to prepare for meeting them efficiently. . . . All government had vanished in these regions save the military rule of the occupying Italian forces. All food supplies had been exhausted, or were on the point of being so. . . . The supplying of the wants of the vast number of prisoners—both captured Austrians and released Italians returning home, presented one of the most serious of all the difficulties encountered. . . . Unhappily, Italy found herself in this crisis completely absorbed in the problems of meeting the extraordinary conditions within her own now extended borders. . . . Among the difficulties . . . were both economical and political problems of far-reaching import. She had no coal, little grain, and little of other articles of prime necessity. . . . She had to face the problem of demobilization and the incidental problem of giving her demobilized soldiers occupation and bread; she had to convert her munition-factories into factories for articles of Peace. She had to organize, administer, and support the newly redeemed regions, and rebuild and administer the overrun provinces. And she had to secure and organize and administer the regions beyond the Adriatic which she claimed under the Pact of London and the Armistice—regions where, mainly, her right was seriously questioned."—T. N. Page, *Italy and the World War, pp.* 330-332, 336-338, 346-348, 381, 387, 388, 392.—See also World War: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XII. Reconstruction: c; Europe: Modern: Far-reaching effects of the World War.

1918.—Costs of World War.—Property losses.

—Loss by German submarine warfare. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Costs of war: a; b, 3, ii; b, 4; 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: c; 1918: IX. Naval operations: i, 3.

1918 (January).—Speech of Lloyd George stating British war aims. See WORLD WAR: X. Statement of war aims: a.

1918 (January).—Count von Hertling's reply to Lloyd George and President Wilson regarding a war settlement. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: d.

1918 (February).—Count von Hertling's speech replying to Wilson's Fourteen Points. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: f.

1918 (April).—Relations with Jugo-Slavs.—Torre-Trumbitch agreement.—Pact of Rome. See ADRIATIC QUESTION: Torre-Trumbitch agreement; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1917-1918.

1918 (August).—Represented at Inter-allied conference on enemy propaganda. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship: d, 2.

1918 (September).—Peace proposal of Austria-Hungary. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: k.

1918 (September-November).—Armistices with Bulgaria, Turkey, Austria-Hungary, and Germany. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: c; d; e; f; 1918: XI. End of the war: a, 4; 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: c, 15; d.

1918 (October).—Fiume's declaration of adhesion to Italy.—Occupation of city. See FIUME: 1915-1918.

1918-1919.—Italy at Peace conference.—Territorial claims.—Nitti ministry.—Italy's claims to a rectification of her frontiers on the north-west, and to assignments of territory which would make the Adriatic an "Italian lake," were the most puzzling of the demands presented by the great powers before the Peace conference. "There followed a long series of negotiations, in the course of which Italy reduced her demands in Dalmatia and among the east-coast islands, but sought at the same time to maintain in its essential integrity the system of three bridge-heads on the Balkan shore, and to pave the way for the early annexation of Fiume. Little progress was made with Orlando and Sonnino, and after their retirement the *Giornale d'Italia* correctly stated that this Italian delegation, in consenting to discuss the so-called 'Tardieu project' (one of many compromise suggestions), 'had not allowed itself to be caught in any actual and substantial concessions. And, in fact, if that scheme, together with the amendments which . . . [the United States] delegates had ready, had been approved, we should have achieved all the claims of the London Pact, with the exception of a strip of the Dalmatian hinterland and of a few islands of no military importance; and in addition would have created at Fiume a situation genuinely Italian and susceptible of certain transformation in time into annexation to Italy.' It would not be profitable to trace the history of the negotiations, which dragged out over many long months, although in a more friendly spirit in view of the conciliatory spirit of the new Nitti government. Attention soon centered on the Fiume region, the most important and dangerous of the three bridge-heads, and the one over which the Italians were most insistent on gaining control."—D. W. Johnson, *Fiume and the Adriatic problem* (E. M. House and C. Seymour, ed., *What really happened at Paris, pp.* 132-133).—See also FIUME: 1919: Claims of Italians, etc.—"The Orlando-Sonnino Ministry, which had contributed so much to bring the war to a triumphant close, was overthrown in the general (Fiume) commotion. A new ministry under the able leadership of Signor Nitti took its place, only to follow its predecessor after an earnest and patriotic attempt to steer the country through the tempestuous seas that threatened to overwhelm it."—T. N. Page, *Italy and the World War, p.* 402.

1918-1921.—Effects of World War on foreign trade.—Readjustment from war to peace conditions. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XII. Reconstruction: c; COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1914-1921.

1918-1922.—Relief work of American relief administration. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: American relief administration.

1919.—Movement for shorter hours of labor. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1913-1919.

1919.—Trade union statistics. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1919.—Represented at conference for international union of academies. See INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES: Conference called by French Academy.

1919.—Internal affairs during post-bellum unrest.—Delicacy of foreign negotiations.—Ratification of peace.—Creation of Popular party.—Economic pressure.—Hopeful prospects in the east.—Peasant uprising.—"While the crowds in the streets were expressing their enthusiasm over the d'Annunzio coup at Fiume, the King and Signor Nitti, President of the Council and Minister of the Interior, were doing their best to maintain the proper relations between the Consulta and the Chancelleries of London, Paris, and Washington, and to prevent the populace, army, and political parties from committing some overt act which might prejudice those relations, if it did not, indeed, produce a revolution. After Signor Tittoni, Foreign Minister and head of the Italian Peace Delegation, had outlined his policy in the Chamber of Deputies on the night of Sept. 27, and the Chamber in closing its sessions had given the Government a vote of confidence amounting to 208 to 140, the Minister, in communication with the associated Chancelleries, began to seek for a formula which should end the Fiume impasse. A measure which had greatly tended toward strengthening the vote of the Government was the calling of the Crown Council by the King on Sept. 25 at the Quirinal Palace—an extraordinary procedure which had not been resorted to since the days of the Resorgimento. The council consisted of the national, civil, political, and military leaders, and ex-Premiers, supposed to represent every ramification of the body politic. Then, with Parliament inoperative until the elections of Nov. 16 should provide a new Chamber to meet in December, and with a policy supposed to be based upon the advice received from the Crown Council, the Nitti Government began operations on its own responsibility, and on Oct. 6, as an expression of good-will toward the associated Chancelleries and the Peace Conference, the King issued a decree approving the German and Austrian treaties, thus practically ratifying those documents and leaving to the new Parliament the sole duty of acting on the decree. This decree, which *per se* re-established peace between Italy and the Teutons, contained two articles, the first authorizing the Government to execute the treaties fully and the second requiring that the decree be presented to Parliament for conversion into law. . . . The foregoing measures restored the tranquillity of the

crowds in the principal cities, and the Deputies, almost in a body, left Rome to consult the local Prefects and to prepare their constituencies for the coming election. In this election for the first time an organized Catholic party . . . [was to] take part, voting for Catholic candidates. The decree of Pius IX. in 1870 strictly enforced by his successor, Leo XIII, prohibiting Catholics from being either electors or the elected, was modified under Pius X so that Catholics were allowed to vote for non-Catholic candidates who pledged themselves to refrain from legislation condemned by the Vatican. Last January [1919] Pope Benedict XV removed the entire inhibition, and a poiltical party was formed under the name of the Partito Popolare Italiano, or the Italian Popular Party. Like the Socialist Party, this new organization depends upon recruits from the masses—the former among the workers of the towns and the latter among the peasants. Each of these parties has a well-defined program, with common aspirations on certain points which Signor Nitti has attempted to consolidate. Aside from these two parties, which hold the balance of suffrage, if not of legislation, there are the factions of the various political leaders calling themselves Democrats, Liberals, Conservatives, or Radicals, but differing in the main as they support or oppose the present Government. Then there is the Republican Party, which, like the Socialists and the Catholics, also has a well-defined national program. It preserves the traditions of Garibaldi, Mazzini, and Minghetti, and its best known member is the former Minister Barzilai."—*New York Times Current History, Nov.*, 1919, *pp.* 274-275.—The manifesto of the Italian Popular party "was directed to 'All free and strong men who at this solemn moment feel it their duty to work for the supreme benefit of their country without prejudice or preconception, so that united they may help to realise the ideals of justice and freedom.' . . . While the representatives of the victorious nations are engaged upon preparing a just and lasting Peace, political sections everywhere are bound to do what in them lies towards the reinforcement of those principles which will keep far from us the prospect of war, set the nations on a firm foundation, and make of social justice a real thing."—E. Corradini, *Parliament in Rome* (*Nineteenth Century and After, Jan.*, 1920).—"Owing to the political crisis few comprehensive measures were taken to mitigate the economic pressure. A scheme for a forced loan touching everybody who possessed capital exceeding $4,000 calculated at par was prepared by a special commission of financiers, bankers, and Senators, but its execution was indefinitely postponed on account of opposition, not from the people but from certain big financial interests. The nation's war debt was officially announced to be $20,000,000,000, which was over 200 times the pre-war public debt. Both grain and coal were being sold by the Government at below their real cost. The slow recovery of Italian industries for export, partly due to the labor troubles and partly to the shutting off of certain foreign markets which had learned to subsist without Italian commodities during the war, kept up the adverse rate of exchange, which continued to show a depreciation of 93 per cent. in the case of the dollar as compared with the rates before the war, and 60 per cent. in the case of the pound sterling. The price of bread rose from 75 to 85 centimes per kilo. On the other hand, the bill passed in August for the immediate electrification of the railways throughout Italy was rapidly put into execution. The conversion of Italy's water energy —harnessing the white horse, as it is called— will give the country over 5,000,000 electrical horse power, an energy equal to working all the railways and all the industries of the peninsula. The attempt to attract foreign capital was continued by the principal banking companies extending their institutions to North and South America. The Banca Italiana Disconto established the Banca Italo-Caucasica Disconto with a capital of 40,000,000 lire with its main officer in Rome and projected agencies for the Near East. Indeed, Italy began to look toward the East more than toward the West—to secure the coal output of the Heracles region in Asia Minor, which formerly netted 1,150,000 tons annually to the German concessionaires, and the oil from the Caucasus. On Oct. 10 and 13 a rising of peasants was reported in Rome from Caltanisetta, the central province of Sicily. Four thousand people were involved and thirty deaths were recorded before the troops managed to secure order. The uprisings were an attempt to gain possession of the historic sulphur mines near Riesi and were otherwise due to the objection of the populace to having their district policed by the military from the Italian peninsula."—*New York Times Current History, Nov.*, 1919, *pp.* 275-276.—See also EUROPE: Modern: Economic aftermath.

1919.—Significance of post-bellum elections.—Triumph of Socialist and Catholic parties.—The first elections since 1913 were held on November 16. Four organized parties participated in the contest—the Popular party (Catholics), the Socialists, the Republicans, and the "Combatants" or National Renovationists, the last-named being a new party with a radical program of drastic measures against war profiteers and large, unearned fortunes, proposals for agrarian reconstruction, and disarmament. These later developed into the Fascisti. A new electoral reform act had been passed during August, embodying the principles of the French *scrutin de liste* and proportional representation, one deputy to every 71,000 of the population according to the census of 1911. The country was divided into fifty-four large electoral districts, subdivided into 548 electoral colleges or districts. Some three thousand candidates presented themselves for the 508 vacancies; the result of the election showed a remarkable victory for the Socialist and Catholic parties. In 1913 the Socialists had 77 deputies; in 1919 they elected 156; the Catholic deputies numbered twenty-four in 1913; in 1919 the number rose to 101; the Constituionalists (Liberals) suffered heavy losses. From 318 in 1913 their number now fell to 161. The Democrats, who held 70 seats in 1913, retained only twenty-three; the Republicans fell from sixteen (in 1913) to nine; the Independent Socialists secured eight seats, and the Combatants captured thirty-four. Of the 156 Socialist deputies, 85 were elected from northern Italy, 60 from central Italy, 11 from southern Italy and none from Sicily or Sardinia. Of the 101 Catholic deputies, 52 were elected from northern, 25 from central, and 11 from southern Italy; seven came from the islands. According to these figures, 73 per cent. of the total representation of the industrial north was either Socialist or Catholic. "In Italy . . . the Official Socialists include men of different tendencies, ranging from the very temperate to the most violent, from those who have been called Reformists (Evolutionists) to those who call themselves Communists, and latterly even Bolshevists. It is not easy nowadays to thread the mazes of Socialist politics

in Italy, nor indeed in other countries, and it is natural that in treating the subject foreigners should make mistakes. In the elections of 1919 the Socialist formulas were: Opposition to the middle class, who had been for the war; the reaffirmation of Socialism, and solidarity with the Russia of the Soviets. They were supported more or less openly by the Government, with Nitti at its head, and drew strength from the suffering and destruction caused by the war, from the disillusion that followed on the victory, and the rancour against the Allies, who were looked upon as ungrateful for the great sacrifice and the immense contribution made by Italy to the Entente cause. Their triumph exceeded all expectation, and if in South Italy they had had the same proportion of votes as in the North, their majority would have brought them into power."—A. Zerboglio, *Filippo Turati* (*Anglo-Italian Review, Apr.*, 1921).—See also SOCIALISM: 1869-1920.

1919.—Represented at Paris peace conference. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work.

1919.—Problem of Italy's frontiers. See ADRIATIC QUESTION: Problem of Italy's new frontiers; ALPS: Frontiers of Italy.

1919.—Claims to Fiume at Paris peace conference.—Allied objections.—Attitude of President Wilson.—Jugo-Slav contention.—Orlando's withdrawal from peace conference.—Conflict with French troops.—Seizure of Fiume by D'Annunzio. See FIUME: 1919: Claims of Italians and Jugo-Slavs, to 1919-1921; ADRIATIC QUESTION: Friction between Italy and Jugo-Slavia.

1919 (January).—Decree concerning National Institution for ex-soldiers.—"An Italian decree of 16th January 1919, No. 55, regulates the formation of a National Institution of ex-Soldiers. This Institution, founded by article 5 of the decree of 10th December 1917, No. 1970, deals with three distinct forms of organization: agricultural, social and financial. As regards agriculture the Institution must acquire landed property, improve same by reclamation works, and settle it. Further, the Institution has the power to acquire lands, and to obtain the transference in its favour of lands belonging to the State, the provinces, communes and charitable institutions, it can expropriate lands belonging to private people which seem suited to important crops."—*International Yearbook of Agricultural Legislation, v.* 9, *p.* lii, 1919.

1919 (June).—Treaty of Versailles. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1919 (June).—Desire for free Poland.—Treaty of Allies with Poland. See POLAND: 1919 (June); 1919 (June 28).

1919 (September).—Decree empowering prefects to authorize temporary occupation of lands by agricultural associations. See FOOD REGULATION: 1918-1920.

1919 (September).—Treaty of St. Germain ending war with Austria.—Territorial gains (Part III: Section 1). See ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF.

1919 (November).—Treaty of Neuilly with Bulgaria. See NEUILLY, TREATY OF.

1919-1920.—Arbitration boards for industrial disputes. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Italy.

1919-1920.—Housing problem. See HOUSING: Italy.

1919-1921.—Allied policy with regard to Albania at Peace conference.—President Wilson's objections.—Italian conflict with Albania.—Valona turned over to Albania.—Agreement with Albania signed at Tirana. See BALKAN STATES: 1921: Albania; ALBANIA: 1919.

1920. — Social revolution. — Metallurgical strike.—Wide social implications of the strike. —Italian revolution and Russian Soviet revolution.—Employers forced to accept syndicalist program and workers' participation in management of industry.—Political program of Socialists.—"The National Labor Convention at Milan, representing about 1,200,000 members of the various unions, guilds, chambers and syndicates which go to make up Italy's General Confederation of Labor, cast a ballot on Sept. 12 [1920] which represented 650,000 votes against Sovietism and 450,000 votes for Sovietism. On the following day the representatives of labor, combined with the representatives of the official Socialist Party, cast a vote of 591,000 to 245 for the syndicalization and not the sovietization of Italian industry, and by subsequent resolutions voted that the movement should be confined for the present to those metallurgic plants which were already sequestrated and being operated by the workers according to the Soviet plan, and presented as a politico-economic measure to Parliament, the calling of which was actively urged. The workers in question were, moreover, ordered to break off all negotiations with their former employers, and on no account to surrender the plants. . . . Thus a movement which, in its inception, was a flagrant violation of the laws of private property, but all along had been declared by the Italian Government and its representatives abroad to be merely 'a new form of struggle between capital and labor' with 'the character of an economic struggle, inasmuch as it is developing without resort to violence and without bloodshed'—to quote the Italian Ambassador at Washington—became a politico-economic revolution, although limited in area, demanding that Parliament ratify the illegality which the Government had already condoned by inaction. The region where this extraordinary 'economic' experiment was being tried in order to present an accomplished fact to Parliament lies in the valley of the Po. It is the great metallurgic centre of the country. During the war it provided the nation with its material means of combat and was the ultimate objective of every Austro-German offensive. Among the world-famous foundries and factories situated there are the Ansaldo, Fiat, Italia, Gnome, Mont Denis, Bianchi and the Subalpini. They utilize 1,000,000 horse power and employ more than half a million workers. Their products enter into nearly every Italian industry—particularly that of agriculture, which is the chief of all—while their by-products sustain the small manufacturers and artisans throughout the Peninsula. By Sept. 12 all these plants had been invaded by the workers, sequestrated by them and operated by them, so far as lack of raw materials, technical skill, money and business executives would permit; they were being run under established Soviets and with red flags flying over the buildings. The Government had already declared its neutrality. The Socialists had advised the workers to refrain from all violence unless an attempt were made to drive them from the plants, and the directorates of the plants representing the owners, having in vain appealed to the Government to restore to them their property, had ended in an attempt to negotiate with the workers. Meanwhile, the Soviet movement had spread to other branches, including the chemical and textile industries and to quarries. The workers have asserted that the

movement of sequestration was precipitated by the intention of the directorates to inaugurate a lockout. Both the Government and the workers have declared that the reason for this lockout was 'a shortage of raw materials, lack of coal and the high cost of labor.' The directorates have explained that the lockout was to anticipate a general strike, which the Government had confessed to them it dare not face. . . . There are only two regularly organized parties in Parliament, which . . . [were] now invited to legislate on the subject—the Socialist Party with 156 Deputies and the Popular or Catholic Party with 101, all out of a total of 508. The Socialists hold no portfolios in the Cabinet; the Popular Party holds two: the Treasury with Filippo Meda and Agriculture with Giuseppe Mecheli. The Minister of Labor is Arturo Labriola, who calls himself a Reformist Socialist, but who has no connection with the official Socialist organization, which controls the 156 seats and at the head of which is Lodovico d'Aragona. The Socialist Party through its organ, the *Avanti* of Milan, and through the speeches of d'Aragona had condemned the Soviet movement as inviting anarchy and threatening to destroy the great social and economic fabric which the Socialists had been so earnestly building up. This condemnation was principally due to the reports they had received from their mission in Russia. But within the official Socialist Party was a large element which believed in a Soviet régime. It was they, forming the Syndicate of Metal Workers, who were enabled to invoke direct action in the metallurgic region then prevailing over the Federation of Metal Workers, who believed in an absorption of the industries by legislative methods. It was the federation's program, therefore, on which Parliament would be asked to act and not that of the Syndicate, although the Soviets established by the Syndicate would be continued as an illustrative experiment calculated to demonstrate the full control of industries by the workers. . . . When the Giolitti Government came in last June, after a long period marked by attempts on the part of the Nitti Government to rule by Ministerial decrees owing to the impossibility to legislate on account of the strong and organized Socialist opposition, the official Socialist press ceased its propaganda for a political revolution and continued to argue only for an industrial revolution. In this way its demonstrative strikes enjoyed a certain immunity from the Government, particularly if conducted without violence, while the strikes inspired by the political revolutionists and the anarchists under Enrico Malatesta continued to be put down with a strong but gradually weakening hand. As a quid pro quo for non-political activity, the Socialist Deputies managed to secure the passage of a law confiscating war profits, although it was pointed out by the representatives of the great industries in the Chamber that such a law, if enforced, would deprive many industries of their capital, which was represented to a large extent by the so-called war profits. This was the complicated situation which representatives of the General Confederation of Labor and the official Socialists, on Sept. 13, demanded that the Government place before Parliament. The said Government was still neutral toward the violation of the rights of private property, as indulged in by a Soviet régime over a limited, yet most vital, region of Italian industry."—*New York Times Current History, Oct.*, 1920, *pp.* 65-67.—"On Sept. 15 Premier Giolitti invited representatives of the employers and workers to meet him at Turin. The negotiations begun there were continued in Rome. The matters adjusted were merely the usual questions which bring about rupture between employer and employed—time, wages, bonuses, &c. The matter of loss and criminality occasioned by the illegal occupation of the plants was to be adjusted by a joint commission of employers and employes. But if the former were obliged to accept the *sine qua non* of syndicalism as a basis of readjustment, the employes were obliged to accept that of the evacuation of the plants for the same reason. The employers, however, qualified their acceptance of syndicalism by allowing the workers participation but not predominance in the management of their concerns. The Confederation of Employers, meeting in Milan, ratified the action of their representatives at Turin and Rome. By Sept. 26 a referendum of the metal workers had registered 127,904 votes in favor of supporting the labor leaders' decision to evacuate the plants and 44,531 votes against that action. . . . So much for the purely economic phase of the labor question in general and the metallurgic question in particular. There remained the political phase, which for some time was darkened by the possibility that the Socialists might accept the dictates of Lenin and the Third International. Two circumstances, added to the common sense of Italian Socialists, turned the tide against the dictator of Soviet Russia: The report of the Italian Socialist Mission sent to Moscow and the order from Lenin to the Italian Council of the Third International to expel the moderates, Deputies Turati, Treves, Modigliani and d'Aragona, from the party. . . . The part of the Lenin ukase which particularly aroused the resentment of Italian Moderate Socialists read: 'Events in Italy must open the eyes of even the most obstinate. Turati, Modigliani and d'Aragona are guilty of sabotage against the revolution in Italy at the moment when it begins to ripen.' Thus the Socialist meeting at Reggio Emilia, in the first fortnight of October, offered a tangible sign of the emancipation of Italian socialism from Russian Sovietism, as well as from immediate revolutionary elements, although local Socialist groups still demanded an industrial revolution and Enrico Malatesta still went up and down the Peninsula preaching anarchy and inciting havoc. However, it was believed that the disagreement between the Maximalists and the Socialists was only in form and transitory. Their aim remained the same, namely, to take over the reins of government, the former by violent measures, the latter gradually and pacifically. Both, however, agreed on one point—no collaboration with the bourgeoisie. . . . A series of resolutions adopted by the Moderate Socialists at Reggio Emilia on Oct. 12 did not condemn the 'use of violence or illegal means in class struggles,' but states that these measures should be adopted 'only as the last step against the blind resistance of the bourgeoisie, having for their object the breaking up of social conditions incompatible with new economic progress and new methods of production. . . . The general terms of Premier Giolitti's program were said to be contained in a statement he made to the Corriere della Sera: 'It was no longer applicable at this hour that a single man should command and that some thousands of other men must obey without exercising the least control (*controllo*) over his actions. On the contrary, it is necessary to place the workers in such a condition that they contribute to the carrying on of the works in such a manner that it gives them a sense of co-responsibility. It is only by a concession of

this kind that the workers can uplift and improve themselves.' The Popular or Catholic Party, which has two Cabinet portfolios, and whose personnel is principally made up of peasants, issued a manifesto declaring for co-operation between employer and employed, collaboration between workers and experts in the same union, and the safeguarding of 'legitimate private ownership.' It also demanded a State-controlled inquiry into the present position of industry and an inquiry with a view to agrarian reforms."—*Ibid., Nov.*, 1920, *pp.* 258-260.—See also LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922; SOCIALISM: 1869-1920.

1920.—**Agreement with France for mutual care of poor in adjacent territory.** See CHARITIES: France: 1920.

1920.—**Member of International Health Bureau.** See PUBLIC HEALTH: League of Nations.

1920.—**Relations with the Vatican.** See PAPACY: 1920.

1920.—**Plan for an arbitration court.** See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: 1919-1920.

1920.—**Question of extension of frontiers of African colonies.** See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1918-1920: Italy, etc.

1920 (April).—**Represented at San Remo Conference.** See SAN REMO CONFERENCE.

1920 (June).—**Treaty of Trianon with Hungary.** See TRIANON, TREATY OF.

1920 (July).—**Question of German armament and reparations at Spa Conference.** See SPA, CONFERENCE OF.

1920 (August).—**Treaty of Sêvres.—Member in Commission of the Straits for Control of Dardanelles (Part III: Political clauses: The Straits).** See SÈVRES, TREATY OF.

1920 (November).—**Treaty of Rapallo.** See RAPALLO, TREATY OF (1920); ADRIATIC QUESTION: Friction between Italy and Jugo-Slavia; FIUME: 1919-1921

1920-1921.—**Trade relations with Russia.** See RUSSIA: 1920-1921: Difficulties of establishing peace with Allies.

1920-1921.—**Agrarian revolution.—Coöperative movement.—Crown lands.**—"Of the converging movements making for a new Italian society, the most fundamental is that of the revolution in the ownership and cultivation of the land. Because of the startling nature of the industrial revolt, because of the orderly occupation and successful operation of the metallurgical works by the workers, and because of the effect of this astounding achievement upon a civilisation largely centred in industrial production, the Italian agrarian revolt has had comparatively little attention. . . . Yet because of the fact that Italy is an agricultural country, her people chiefly dependent upon the cultivation of the soil, the revolt of the agricultural workers is even more significant than the revolt begun by the workers in the factories. . . . The revolt has had many phases. . . . In no two regions . . . has the revolt had exactly the same manifestations and aims. . . . In Sicily, where the revolt has been most conclusive, Prezzolini points out that 'one-sixth of the island is owned by 173 persons in a population of four millions; one-third is owned by 787 persons.' The agricultural workers, numbering 725,000, possess practically nothing. The great landowners live away from their lands. . . . They rent their lands to a class of publicans called *Gabellotti*. The *Gabellotto* advances money to the peasant for the year's crops; or frequently he re-rents to others, who in their turn sublet, so that the peasant has to pay three or four middlemen. 'The *Gabellotto* is the financier of the agrarian management of the proprietor. . . He cannot rob the master and he can rob the peasant, and out of the advance payment which he gives to the peasant, he takes from thirty to fifty per cent. as interest. . . . The revolt in Southern Italy is a direct issue of the war. The Italian peasant, unlike the workers of England, quite naïvely took the Government at its word. . . . The Government had promised to provide for the peasants, who constituted the major part of the armies. To provide for the peasant meant to give land—there was no other way of providing for him. Nor does he seem ever to have questioned the will and the power of the Government to keep its promise. So, on being demobilised, and acting according to his interpretation of the Government's good pleasure, he simply took the land of the feudal owners, moved on to it and went to work. And it so happened that the Government *was* pleased—and made no pretence of being displeased—at having its hand thus forced by these childlike citizens. Nor was the Church less pleased than the Government. Indeed, the Catholics were the very first, writes Prezzolini, to incite the peasant to take the lands; and, in many instances, the invasions were led by priests or monks. . . . Moreover, the revolt had, particularly in Southern Italy, no political character or purpose; it was absolutely economic, with a tinge of early Christian idealism. But in Central and Northern Italy, the agrarian movement is older, and its manifestations are not the same as those depicted by Prezzolini in his account of Southern Italy [except in Campagna where the revolt was political]. . . . But in Lombardy, especially in regions comprehended by the great rice plantations, also in like regions on the Venetian mainland, and more especially in Romagna, the present agrarian movement began, roughly speaking, five to ten years before the War. Years before the revolt, co-operative agriculture had been carried on in the North—particularly in those provinces where the contadini had come under the influence of the Socialist Party. And it is due to the Socialist propaganda that the agrarian movements of Northern and Central Italy have generally taken on a political character, and that they have often adopted the communist programme."—G. D. Herron, *Revival of Italy, pp.* 66-68, 70-71.—"Feeling that they could not oppose this movement by force, the authorities decided to give it a sort of official recognition in the case of lands capable of improvement and to encourage the formation of peasant co-operative societies, in the hope of guiding it into more controllable channels, and so avoiding loss of production. . . . [The government encouraged concessions of state] land on lease to co-operative societies of agricultural workers by private treaty, thus avoiding the speculation of the open market. This is in a sense an extension and application in another sphere of the principles which produced such excellent results in the case of the labour co-operative societies for public works. . . . Since the war voluntary transfer by sale of estates to actual farmers has become frequent. Owing to the great demand, and the attachment of the workers to the land, prices rose very much. In order to encourage such transfers the Catholic co-operative societies purchase the land themselves with a view to dividing it up and reselling to their individual members. . . . The characteristic feature of the Italian system, . . . is that the co-operative society has the sole management of the estate. The compulsory transfer of landed property was effected almost entirely on this system. Various De-

crees were issued appointing special committees to authorise provisionally the occupation of land by the peasants, and subsequently to ratify the final transfer, provided that the land was capable of improvement and the peasants in a position to guarantee satisfactory management. The total area of land assigned by the authorities to agricultural societies in consequence of occupation by the peasants is, I think, about 50,000 hectares. Approximately another 50,000 hectares have been assigned to the National Soldiers' Aid Society, an organisation created since the war, with a capital of 300,000,000 lire, to assist ex-Service men in various ways, among others by land settlement. The Society is legally authorised to demand the assignment to itself, on payment of ground rent, of any property of public bodies and charitable institutions. The Crown has made large grants of land to the Society; most of its land, however, consists of private estates acquired by free sale or expropriated 'when considerable improvements in cultivation appear possible.' The chief task of the Society is to carry out improvements . . . which will increase the value of the estate and then to hand it over—as stated in its rules—preferably to agricultural co-operative societies consisting mainly of ex-Service men."—M. Ruini, *Italian co-operative movement* (*International Labour Review, Jan.*, 1922).—"The crown properties of Italy are larger than those of any country, since the House of Savoy inherited the properties of the rulers of the eleven states into which Italy was divided before the Kingdom became united. During the war the King gave over his splendid royal palace at Caserta, the Castel Mascali di Piedmont, for the use of his soldiers. His intention now [1921] is that the vast lands which he possessed, virtually in every region of Italy, shall go to the peasants who fought in the war, while his palaces, castles and other buildings shall be utilized for philanthropic purposes. In addition the King has expressed a wish that his private patrimony be taxed like that of any other citizen. Thus, the King's civil list, amounting to about $3,000,000 yearly, will be done away with or greatly diminished, as the monarch used it entirely to administer the crown properties or for charitable purposes."—S. A. Cotillo, *Italy during the World War, pp.* 138-139.—See also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Italy: 1213-1921; CO-OPERATION: Italy; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Italy.

1920-1922.—**Fascisti.—Their activities.**—"Because of the practical breakdown of social organisation, . . . the Fascisti arose. The roots of the movement reach back to the national revival succeeding the disaster of Caporetto and culminating on the Piave. It was the young men of that revival, again rising spontaneously throughout Italy, that constituted themselves into the Fasci. Their originating purpose was the ending of a social disorganization of nearly two years' duration. And it is a curious phenomenon of the movement that its chief should be Benito Mussolini, a former Socialist editor and leader, who separated himself from the Socialist Party because of his advocacy of Italy's participation in the war. The Fascisti groups, but loosely held together, varying according to the characteristics of their respective regions, at first consisted largely of young men of the upper middle classes, though some were of the nobility. The major groups were composed of students, ex-officers, and demobilised Arditi; but now there are among them an increasing number of workers, and of the sons of peasants and smaller shopkeepers. Indeed, in some cases, groups of Socialists and workmen—such as the Socialist League of Ferrara, and a band of railway workers of Florence—have passed over entirely to the Fascisti. Doubtful elements are among them, . . . whence they are in some degree compromised by men who are more or less advanturers. But, all in all, they are young men, says Prezzolini, 'daring and disposed to let their heads be broken, or to break the heads of their adversaries.' And the most amazing fact of their movement is their exercise of a power out of all proportion to their numbers. Relatively small bands of Fascisti have reduced large communities to submission—sometimes communities that were overwhelmingly of the revolutionary Socialist faith. Yet the Fascisti must not be taken for mere reactionaries. They stand to a certain degree for social reforms, and they indeed rival the Communists in the bitterness of their feeling against war-profiteers. Also the agrarian revolution, returning the lands to the peasants as it does, receives from the Fascisti an urgent advocacy. And recently they have forcibly brought down the cost of living, almost throughout the whole of Italy, by means almost as humorous as they were startling and efficacious. But, of course, it was against the Bolshevist propaganda the Fascisti arose, and against this propaganda it still [1922] proceeds, purposing no less than its complete suppression—or else conversion. Thus, degree by degree, they have practically destroyed the earlier Bolshevist manifestations, and possibilities throughout Italy, rendering a real service to their country in a time of portentous crisis."—G. D. Herron, *Revival of Italy, pp.* 79-81.—"Those who look deeply into the Italian crisis have to consider the spiritual movement which is its cause. Superficially considered, Nationalism and Fascism are only two systems of defense against the Socialist advance. . . . The economic crisis which followed the war; the conviction which spread throughout Italy that the Allies at the Peace Conference had sacrificed Italian interests to their imperialistic avidity, and had betrayed Italy in her expectations and her rights; the desire for peace and work; all these gave the Socialist party a strong impetus. And the Socialist party took advantage of this situation to send to the House a large number of representatives and to intensify its revolutionary action in the country, until in the summer of 1920 it made a true Bolshevik attempt. This attempt failed, not because of the slight resistance which the government made, but through the spontaneous reaction of the people. It was then revealed that the power of the Socialist party was fictitious. . . . In 1920 the Socialist party had 250,000 members; to-day it has only 70,000. Should the day come when Fascism begins to wane, it will nevertheless have given a mortal blow to the revolutionary movement."—L. Vitetti, *Italy's political crisis* (*American Review of Reviews, Oct.*, 1922).

1920-1923.—**War debt.—Reconstruction.**—"Italy's war debt of $16,000,000,000 is being met with fortitude and stoicism. The indications of the rapid recovery of Italy's financial condition are indeed gratifying. The Treasury Department of the Italian Government reports for the fiscal year 1919 a yield from imports and taxes of 7,217,000,000 lire, exceeding the amount estimated by more than one-third, and also exceeding the revenue of the previous fiscal year by nearly if not quite one-quarter. . . . The financial statement presented by the Italian Ministry of Treasury in the Chamber of Deputies, shows the deficit of 12,000,000,000 lire for the fiscal year 1920-1921

and the estimated deficit for the present fiscal year of 5,000,000,000, will be reduced to 3,000,000,000 for the fiscal year 1922-1923. This remarkable result should be taken in just consideration for the fact that their budget includes all the expenses deriving from the war, taking also transitory expenses, like reconstruction of invaded and liberated territory and of the Merchant Marine, partially destroyed during the war. For the next financial year is already anticipated a reduction on current expenses for more than 1,000,000,000 lire, following thus the policy of thrift adopted by the Italian Government; in such a way it is possible to effect a further reduction in the deficit."—S. A. Cotillo, *Italy during the World War, pp.* 148-149.

1921.—Colonial possessions. See AFRICA: Map; BRITISH EMPIRE: Map of the world.

1921 (January-March).—Fascisti and Socialists.—"Just as the economic situation, including the seizure of the factories by the workers early last Autumn, was misinterpreted abroad, so now the same thing is happening in regard to the clashes, many of them far from bloodless, which have been taking place between the Communists and the Fascisti, or militant Nationalists. . . . The most tragic conflict took place at Trieste, where a hundred Communists on Jan. 27 took possession of the business and printing plant of the Socialist paper *Il Lavoratore,* forced out the workers, turned the sheet into a Communist organ, and terrorized the neighborhood with their Red Guard, until, on Feb. 11, the Fascisti, mostly ex-soldiers, rushed the place and left the three-story palace a heap of ruins. The causes of these conflicts were as follows: At the Socialist congresses of Imola, Reggio Emilia and Florence the disciples of Lenin had attempted to throw the party toward the Third International. The crisis came in the middle of January at the Leghorn Congress, where . . . a large majority voted against the Third International, with the expulsion of the Communists from the party. Then the Communists reorganized on the basis of the Third International, the first rule of which is a revolution by force. They began to execute this rule, with the aid of certain labor unions, by calling general strikes, destroying property, and attacking officials. . . . It should not be imagined from the sensational accounts of the conflicts that the country is on the verge of revolution—on the contrary, the Nationalist element is growing stronger every day and the revolutionary element weaker. The majority of the people are working hard and doing what they can to pull the country together again, while agitators are too busy in protecting themselves from the Fascisti and fighting among themselves to be as dangerous as they might otherwise be—as dangerous as they appeared to be last Fall."—*New York Times Current History, Mar.,* 1921, *pp.* 414-415.—"Debates in the Chamber on the bread subsidy and the Government bill for checking up the 'controllo' of the big businesses by the workers continued with gains for Signor Giolitti, the Premier, in the first, and a growing opposition organized and led by his predecessor, Signor Nitti, in the second. There was a project to reduce but not to abolish the bread subsidy, by having two grades of bread, one for the rich and one for the poor, as even the Socialists realized that to continue the subsidy at its present figure would mean national ruin. . . . In the politico-labor field, the resolutions of the Federation of Labor, adopted at the Leghorn Congress condemning communism and unnecessary strikes, went far toward pacifying the smaller industries not to be affected by the "controllo." The riots between the Communists and the Fascisti centred in the towns of Tuscany. There, however, early in March, the Communists were reported to have been frightened into obeying the laws, and so the Fascisti marched the streets in vain. In the southern Province of Bari, though, the peasants attempted to do what the metallurgic workers did last Autumn. They seized farms instead of plants. This caused a rising of the Fascisti in the rural districts which was with difficulty put down by the carabinieri."—*Ibid., Apr.,* 1921, *p.* 183.—"The government made no serious effort to check the Fascisti movement. Indeed, it would have been difficult to repress the Fascisti without at the same time taking the Socialists in hand. To deal with both movements at once would have necessitated the proclamation of martial law. From this drastic measure Mr. Giolitti shrank. . . . His policy was to let the movement wear itself out. . . . He dissolved Parliament. . . . His first thought was to crush the Socialists by giving a free hand to the Fascisti. . . . And his second thought—which requires a still more delicate touch to execute—is to come to an understanding with the much-chastened Socialists, transform them into elements of order, and use them for a legal repression of the Fascisti."—G. Ferrero, *Hundred years of Italian life* (*New York Times Current History, Sept.,* 1921).

1921 (February-March).—Near East conference at London.—Secret pact with Turkey. See TURKEY: 1921 (March-April): Secret treaties.

1921 (May).—First elections under universal suffrage.—The elections to the 26th Legislature of Italy took place May 15. The crisis had come to test whether the government should continue to abdicate to political theorists and fanatics, or give heed to the demonstrations of the middle-class majority and ask for a new set of lawmakers. By the new electoral law of December 1920 universal suffrage for men and women 21 years of age was to be tried for the first time in Italy. The results of the elections, which were carried out without much disturbance, showed the following distribution of seats: Constitutionalists or Liberal Democrats, 275; Socialists, 122; Catholics (Popolari), 107; Communists, 16; Republicans, 7; Germans, 4; Slavs, 4: total 535. The new constituencies created in the territory acquired from Austria-Hungary added twenty-seven deputies to the former number of 508. It is apparent that whatever may have been the political or social affiliations of the parties which met at the polls, the voters, however classed, represented movements superior to all parties; the one led by the Fascismo for the perpetuation of democratic government, the other led by the Socialists for the destruction of that government and the establishment of a new form in which the proletariat should dominate at communist dictation. The Fascisti reaffirmed the necessity for Italy's entering the war in 1915; they favored the labor movement, so far as it did not clash with the interests of production and national necessaries; and, finally, they wanted Italy to free herself both from Leninism (Bolshevism) and from the thraldom of being dependent on other States for raw materials. As a result of their punitive conflicts with the communists on the eve of the election, provincial Prefects had been obliged to remove five Soviet mayors; three had resigned, and over 200 buildings used for treasonable intercourse had been destroyed.

1921 (August).—Invited to the conference on limitation of armaments. See U. S. A.: 1921 (July-August).

1921 (November).—Represented at Portorosa conference. See PORTOROSA CONFERENCE.

1921-1922 (June-February).—Resignation of Giolitti.—Bonomi premier.—Commercial agreement with Soviet Russia.—The new parliament assembled on June 11, when the King's speech was received with much enthusiasm. On the 27th Giolitti's cabinet resigned after obtaining a majority of only thirty-four votes. Signor Ivanoe Bonomi became premier and the Marchese Della Torretta succeeded Count Sforza as foreign minister. "The new premier, in outlining his program before the Chamber, declared that Italy would scrupulously respect her foreign engagements and that the Treaty of Rapallo would be observed to the letter. . . . He also promised the disarmament of all citizens not legally authorized to bear arms. . . . Although the new ministry received an overwhelming vote of confidence on July 23, it gradually lost its grip. A number of factors contributed to its downfall. In the first place, discontent was expressed because of the failure of the Italian delegation at Washington to have Italy included in the Four-Power Pacific Treaty. Secondly, the government's course toward the failure of the Bank of Discount (Banca di Sconto). This institution, one of the largest in Italy, suffered such heavy losses that it suspended payments on December 29. The government at once took steps to protect the bank's creditors, granted a limited moratorium and considered remedial measures for aiding those industries dependent upon the bank. On January 4, however, it was announced that a liquidating court had decreed the sequestration of the private fortunes of the directors of the bank. A third important cause was its alleged pro-Catholic bias. Anti-Catholic groups expressed considerable dissatisfaction on account of the half-masting of flags on public buildings and the sending of a delegation, headed by Minister of Agriculture Mauri, to the Vatican to convey condolences on the occasion of the death of Pope Benedict XV on January 22. On the other hand, Catholic groups were alienated by the failure of the government to have a eulogy of the late Pope read from the tribune of the Chamber as had been promised. Most important of all, perhaps, was the inability of the government to restore order and put an end to the revolutionary outbreaks on the part of Communists and Fascisti alike. The resignation of Premier Bonomi was announced on February 2. After a series of conferences with several ex-premiers, including Orlando, Giolitti and Nitti, and a futile attempt on the part of Orlando to form a coalition cabinet, the King on February 9 [1922] summoned Premier Bonomi, whose resignation he had not yet accepted, to present himself again before Parliament for a vote of confidence. Lack of confidence was expressed on February 17 by a vote of 295 to 107, the Catholic party and the Reformists alone supporting the ministry; both the Right and the Fascisti voted solidly against it. After a delay of two weeks Signor Luigi Facta, ranked as a pro-Giolitti man, succeeded in forming a new cabinet."—*Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, *Supplement*, *pp.* 107-108.—"During the whole of 1921 Italy was kept in a state of agitation by the conflicts between the Fascisti and the extremists. Anarchist outrages were not wanting, conspicuous among them being the throwing of a bomb at the Diana Theatre, Milan (March 23) by which twenty people were killed and 100 injured." —*Annual Register*, 1921, *p.* 170.—A commercial agreement with Soviet Russia was concluded December 26, containing reciprocal clauses regarding import and export, use of ports by shipping, abstention from propaganda, removal of trade barriers, repatriation of Italian nationals from Russia, postal and telegraph communications, avoidance of blockade and boycott, etc. A separate agreement provided for the Italian Red Cross to establish food and medical stations in the famine area of South Russia, to which undertaking the Italian government contributed 6,000,000 lire. The full text of the commercial agreement was published in *New York Times Current History, Mar.*, 1922, p. 1034.

1921-1922 (August-May).—Finance and reconstruction.—Vital statistics.—Fascisti and Communists in conflict.—"By a decree of August 23 the United States dollar, and not the English pound, will in the future be the Italian standard of international payments. The cost of replacing the war ruin wrought in the Asiago and Trentino regions has been placed at 3,000,000,000 lire [francs] at the present rate of exchange. Over 130,000 homes were destroyed; of these 50,000 have been rebuilt. It is estimated that it will require two years to complete the task. According to figures given out by the government Statistics Bureau on April 14 [1922], Italy's population on December 1 totaled 38,835,174 including 1,564,691 persons in the redeemed provinces. The increase over the census of 1911, excluding the redeemed populations, amounted to 7.5 per cent. The bitter struggle waged between the Fascisti and Communists throughout the greater part of . . . [1921] subsided somewhat during the first weeks of the Bonomi ministry. The last months of 1921, however, witnessed a recrudescence of violence. In November the Fascisti definitely constituted themselves a political party, extremely national in spirit and principle and pledged to uphold middle-class ideals. In domestic affairs they advocate liberty of contract, coöperation between capital and labor, the establishment of a stabilized class of peasant proprietors, the suppression of the free commune, the centralization of power, and war upon communism. In international affairs they stand for an aggressive foreign policy, the seizure of the eastern shores of the Adriatic, the annexation of Fiume, the Italianization of the annexed areas, and the consistent pursuit of an imperialistic policy in the Mediterranean to benefit the agrarian and commercial interests of the mother country. A new organization, the Arditi del Popolo, composed of extreme Socialists, Communists and radical Catholics, and pledged to violent reprisals against the Fascisti, has grown rapidly in numbers and in power. In addressing Parliament on March 17 [1922] Premier Facta announced that the government would restore order impartially between the two warring factions. It was unjust, he declared, to allow a part of the citizenry to disturb the rights of the rest. On the same day it was announced that one thousand Fascisti had been arrested and that disorderly Communist elements were being apprehended. Despite these efforts on the part of the government, trouble still continued between the two factions. As the result of serious street fighting in Rome on May 24, twenty-one persons were wounded. During the following week members of both organizations were killed or wounded in Genoa, Bologna, Trieste, Alessandria and Parma. Permits to carry guns were withdrawn in both the city and province of Rome and in Florence. In the latter city 65,000 Fascisti assembled during the last of May; wire communication with the outside world was cut off, and surrounding villages, controlled by Socialists and Communists, were bombed or burned and Socialist or Communist mayors everywhere forced

to resign. During June the country seemed to be drifting rapidly toward even more widespread civil war."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, *Supplement*, *pp.* 109, 110.

1921-1922 (December-February).—**At Washington conference on limitation of armaments.** See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

1922.—**Longshoremen's strike.** See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1920-1922: Industrial disturbances.

1922 (January).—**Represented at Cannes conference.** See CANNES CONFERENCE.

1922 (February).—**Treaty with Belgium, China, England, France, Japan and the United States regarding affairs in China.** See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

1922 (Februry 6).—**Treaty with France, England, Japan and the United States limiting naval armament.—In respect to use of submarines and poison gases in warfare.** See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

1922 (March).—**Troops ordered into Fiume with a view to executing terms of Rapallo Treaty.** See FIUME: 1922.

1922 (March-September).—**Relations with Greece.—Search of vessels.—Fears growth of Greek power in eastern Mediterranean.** See GREECE: 1922 (January-March); 1922 (August-September).

1922 (April-May).—**Represented at Genoa conference.** See GENOA CONFERENCE (1922).

1922 (June-July).—**Represented at Allied Economic conference at The Hague.** See HAGUE (ALLIED) CONFERENCE (1922).

1922 (June-August).—**Financial and economic problems.—Cabinet reconstruction.—Spread of Fascismo.—Mussolini's statement of Fascista program.**—During June it was reported that a special agreement was being negotiated with Great Britain regarding Italy's position in the Mediterranean. The government was also said to be especially anxious to arrange for Italian emigration to British colonies, in view of the recent restrictions on immigration in the United States. The condition of the national finances was far from promising; the war had saddled the country with heavy burdens. On July 6 a budget deficit of 4,000,000,000 lire for 1922-1923 was forecast. In addition, some half-a-million men—mostly ex-soldiers—were out of employment; remedial measures were taken in the shape of public works involving an enormous outlay. On July 8 the lower chamber elected the four ex-premiers, Giolitti, Orlando, Nitti and Bonomi, to be members of the Foreign Affairs Committee. Meanwhile, the Facta cabinet was severely shaken by the sporadic disturbances of the Fascisti; a charge of failing to pacify the country resulted in an adverse vote expressing lack of confidence in the government on July 20. Two former premiers attempted but failed to form a new cabinet and on August 1 premier Facta stepped back into office with a reconstructed coalition cabinet. Fascisti violence continued unabated with many deaths and wounded. In July they took Viterbo, Cremona and Alatri; in Cremona they wrecked the Bolshevist headquarters, a communist printing plant and the houses of two Socialist deputies. The government sent 500 troops who, however, were unable to stem the tide of Fascismo. The activities of that movement in Ravenna provoked a strike of all the labor unions in Rome, which began on August 1 and lasted only three days, thanks to government intervention. Many cities were terrorized by the Fascisti; they stormed the municipal building of Milan, occupied Ancona and broke a strike there in progress. Battles were fought in the streets; in Genoa a conflict occurred between them and the communist faction, Arditi del Popolo. Taddei, the minister of the interior, extended military law to six provinces, Genoa, Milan, Parma, Ancona, Leghorn and Brescia. On August 8 Mussolini "instructed the Secretary General of the organization to order by telegraph the demobilization of the Fascisti throughout Italy. A manifesto declared that the Fascisti had won on every front, and that they had protected the workers' legitimate interests, abolished the general strike for ever, and defeated subversive elements. It urged all Fascisti to prepare 'for the greater battle which will crown our work.'"—*New York Times Current History, Sept.*, 1922, *p.* 1086.—"Toward the middle of August some 12,000 workmen of the Port of Genoa . . . after ousting the Socialist officials there, joined the ultra-Nationalists, and 2,000 more at Sarana asked for membership. The longest step in this direction, however, and one considered of great political importance, was taken by the Syndicate of Italian Railwaymen, which decided on Aug. 21 to abandon its alliance with labor and socialism in favor of a Nationalist orientation. While the Socialists and Communists raged, the Fascisti encouraged the new movement, and Signor Mussolini . . . promised a complete change of the organization's attitude toward the Labor Confederation if it abandoned the Socialist Party. In line with the Fascista occupation of the Port of Genoa, the embattled super-patriots stormed and occupied the Port of Naples late in August, under the leadership of Captain Padovani. A number of ships in the harbor were also seized. Numerous clashes with the police occurred. In consequence of this situation, the Government on Aug. 22 ordered a complete military occupation of the port. Another manifestation of Fascista aggressiveness was given on Sept. 1, when 4,000 of these partisans assembled from various points and seized the town of Terni, forty-nine miles northeast of Rome, by scaling the city wall. Having forced entrance, they compelled the manager of the steel works there to reopen the shops, which had been closed for two months owing to a wage dispute."—*Ibid, Oct.*, 1922, *p.* 160.—On August 27 Mussolini declared at Levanto that the Fascisti must form "the aristocracy of the Italian workers." Their program, he said, was a very simple one. "We wish to govern Italy. When the hour comes, the Fascisti will spring up as one man for the last and decisive battle, the goal of which is Rome. But we do not wish to occupy the Italian city, with its priests, its antiquities and its ministries. By Rome we mean the capital of the nation, which must become a beacon of the Mediterranean, which must be guided by us as the vanguard of civilization for the greatness and prosperity of Italy and for the peace of Europe."

1922 (August-September).—**Austria favors economic union with Italy.**—The desperate situation of Austria, hovering on the verge of bankruptcy and lacking elementary necessaries of life, formed the subject of a conference at Verona on August 24 between an Austrian delegation headed by Chancellor Seipel, and the Italian Foreign Minister Schanzer. Unable to struggle by herself from the meshes of economic ruin into which the war had led her, Austria needed the support of a stronger nation. Three alternatives presented themselves—(1) a union with Germany, absolutely prohibited by the Allies in the Treaty of Versailles; (2) union with the Little Entente—Ru-

mania, Jugo-Slavia and Czecho-Slovakia, resolutely opposed by Italy to the point of threatening to make such a step a *casus belli;* or (3) a union with the Italian kingdom. Two of the three avenues being thus closed to them, the Austrians favored entering into a customs and economic union with Italy. Signor Schanzer declared that the scheme would have to be submitted to the decision of the League of Nations. Early in September the League appointed a committee to formulate a plan for Austrian relief.

1922 (October-December).—Mussolini, Fascista leader.—Fall of Facta government.—Fascismo sweeps the country.—King Victor Emmanuel refuses to sanction military law.—Mussolini premier.—Strong Fascista government.—"Only three years ago Italy was in a state of chaos, she was heading straight for revolution, and there seemed to be no power on earth that could stop her. What must be borne well in mind, however, is that all these excesses, all these murders, all these intimidations, all this talk of revolution, were the work of a slender minority in the country. A few resolute revolutionaries were imposing their will upon the great mass of the population by violence. . . . Bad as this state of affairs was, it was rendered even worse by the inaction of the Government. Cabinet after Cabinet went to power and calmly stood by while the revolutjonaries burned, murdered and pillaged, occupied factories and seized estates, trampled upon the national flag and hoisted the red flag in its stead. During all this period, in which energetic action was imperative, the Government did nothing but yield to each and every new Socialist and Communist demand. Gradually the conviction gained strength that it was useless to look to the Government for relief; that if right was to triumph the ordinary citizen must take the law into his own hands. . . . The Communists were masters of Italy. Amid the darkness of impending revolution there was one ray of light. This ray of light was represented by Signor Benito Mussolini and his newspaper *Il Popolo d'Italia.* [The son of a blacksmith], Signor Mussolini, before the war, was himself a Socialist. . . . When the war broke out, however, he said, 'I am a Socialist, but before being a Socialist I am an Italian. I am against war, but now that my country is at war I know that it is better to win than to lose.' He enlisted in the Italian army and fought with bravery and distinction. When peace was declared, he remained aghast at the abyss toward which the preaching of revolution was dragging his country. . . . With great danger to his life he began to preach the gospel of patriotism. . . . Gradually his teachings bore fruit; the healthy and sane elements in the country rallied round him and acclaimed him as their leader. Eventually he felt strong enough to stem—with deeds, rather than words—the advancing tide of Bolshevism. Helped by only about 150 fearless men, the first Fascisti, he descended into the streets and, arms in hand, fought the subversives wherever he could find them."—A. Cortesi, *Tide that swept Italy's Fascisti to power* (*New York Times Current History, Jan.,* 1923, *p.* 568).—Having succeeded in crushing the Socialist and "Red" propaganda, the Fascisti proceeded upon the task of Italianizing the Trentino provinces acquired from Austria. Several thousands of their number marched into Trent and Bolzano early in October and occupied those cities. They closed up the German schools, dissolved the local police and demanded the resignation of the royal high commissioner of the Trentino for neglect of duty. The depleted ranks of the Socialists opened a congress in Rome on October 2 to frame their future policy. But their hold upon the public was gone; a reaction had set in and many Socialists went over to the Fascisti. On October 23, some 90,000 Fascisti, of whom 40,000 were on a military footing, paraded before Mussolini through the streets of Naples. The demonstration was orderly enough. The Fascisti opened a three days' congress in the city on the 24th, at which Mussolini declared that, in furtherance of their plan to rule Italy, the Fascisti must hold the portfolios of foreign affairs, war, navy, labor and public works. On the 26th Mussolini called together all the military leaders of the organization and simultaneously ordered all the military sections of the Fascisti to hold in readiness the

BENITO MUSSOLINI

800,000 workers who had joined their ranks, in order to coöperate at an opportune moment with the military sections. On his departure from Naples Mussolini exclaimed, "I take a solemn oath that either the government of the country must be given peacefully to the Fascisti or we will take it by force." The Facta ministry resigned on the 26th, though it continued to exercise administrative functions for two days longer. On the 27th Facta invited Mussolini (then in Milan) to come to Rome to discuss the possibility of an agreement between the government and the Fascisti. The invitation does not appear to have been accepted.

On the 28th the cabinet issued the following proclamation: "Seditious movements having manifested themselves in certain provinces in Italy, having as their object the interruption of the normal functions of the state's powers and calculated to plunge the country into grave trouble, the government has as far as possible tried every

means of conciliation in the hope of re-establishing peace and reaching a peaceful solution of the crisis. In the face of such insurrectionary attempts, it is the duty of the retiring Government, by all means, at whatever cost, to maintain law and order, and this duty it will carry out to the full in order to safeguard the citizens and free constitutional institutions. It is the Government's expectation that the citizens will remain calm and have confidence in the measures taken for their safety. Long live Italy! Long live the King!" The cabinet first decided to issue a proclamation declaring a state of siege in all the provinces. Martial law was actually declared, but was rescinded later in the day; the King had refused to sanction such a drastic step. The Facta cabinet finally abdicated the same afternoon. Meanwhile, reports were coming into the capital that the Fascisti were taking possession of several of the chief cities of Northern and Central Italy and deposing the authorities almost without any resistance being offered. Excitement ran high; Giolitti, Orlando and Salandra were all mentioned as possible successors to Facta, though from a constitutional point of view the premiership should fall upon the leader of the party which had provoked the crisis, and that man was Mussolini. "All possible combinations seemed hopeless in view of the dominating personality of Mussolini and his large and well organized battalions, which had virtually seized the whole of Italy. Seeing no other alternative, King Victor Emmanuel bowed to the power and dynamic will of the Fascisti and sent an invitation to Mussolini to come to Rome and form his own Ministry. . . . On receiving the invitation, Mussolini went from Milan to Lake Garda, where he consulted Gabriele d'Annunzio, and subsequently left Milan for Rome on a special train placed at his disposal by the King. . . . The next scene of this political and national drama was enacted with the arrival of Mussolini at Rome on Oct. 30. [The military having torn up some sections of railway lines to prevent the Fascisti from entraining to the capital], the Fascisti leader was met at Civita Vecchia by the King's private motor car, in which he proceeded to Rome. His progress was slow because of the thousands of Fascisti soldiers marching to Rome, encumbering the roads and constantly stopping the leader's car to greet him with acclamations. On arriving in the Eternal City, Mussolini, wearing a soiled black shirt and bearing obvious traces of his long journey . . . went to the Quirinal Palace and was immediately ushered into the King's presence. A half hour's earnest conversation ensued, interrupted at frequent intervals by the frenzied cheers of a huge throng which had gathered under the windows of the palace. . . . After the interview Mussolini drove to his hotel. Several thousands in the square before the hotel were kept in check by Fascisti and Government police. Mussolini appeared at a window and addressed the people in loud, clear accents, saying: 'Today Italy has not only a Cabinet, but a Government, a strong Government, such as she has needed for many years past, but never obtained.' A stormy scene of unrestrained jubilation followed."—*Italy's bloodless revolution* (*New York Times Current History, Dec.*, 1922, *p.* 390).—Within a few hours the composition of the new cabinet was announced. The little group of twenty-five Fascisti in the Chamber could not furnish a cabinet among themselves, hence two chief heroes of the World War, General Diaz and Admiral Thaon di Revel, accepted the portfolios of War and Navy. Mussolini took for himself the Interior and Foreign offices. There were but four other Fascisti in the cabinet, or five altogether, the remainder being Nationalists, one Democrat and one Roman Catholic. On October 31 the Fascisti forces were ordered to demobilize and return to their homes. Fifty trains were required to convey them. The Chamber of Deputies met on November 16, when Mussolini, in his initial address, threw down the gauntlet to that body and indicated in unmistakable terms that he was not there to ask favors but to receive them. He outlined the government's proposals for internal reforms and its foreign policy. Though the Fascisti deputies numbered only thirty-one out of over 500, Mussolini exhibited no apologetic tone as was the custom of his predecessors when operating with coalition forces. To use his own word, he simply "exacted" a vote of confidence. On November 25, voting 225 to 90, the Italian Chamber granted Mussolini and his cabinet full power to adopt any bureaucratic or financial reforms desired up to December 31, 1923. A Fascisti branch was organized in Paris on November 30, under the direction of Nicola Bonservizi, delegate of the Central Committee of the Fascisti Party, the avowed aim being to unite Italians for the defence of Italian interests and to spread Italian art, science and culture by intensive propaganda. Early in December Mussolini's newspaper in Milan published an obviously inspired warning to the press of Italy in general and that of Rome in particular that the government would muzzle the newspapers if they continued to publish misleading and false news. "The triumphant progress of Fascismo was recorded in the Milan municipal elections on Dec. 11, when the so-called reconstructionists won a complete victory over the Socialists, Maximalists and Communists by 85,000 to 65,000 votes; and in an uninterrupted series of Fascisti victories in the provinces of Ferrara, Modena, Forli, Venetia and Umbria, in many instances capturing every seat on Municipal Councils. In the interest of good public order the City of Alessandria performed a municipal feat declared to have been without parallel in abolishing in less than two weeks drunkenness and all manner of crime. . . . A thieves' congress was called, at which all shades of wrongdoers were warned that the cudgel . . . awaited them unless they immediately reformed. For a day and a night the Fascisti made good their word with the cudgel, and crime was at an end, for the time being, at Alessandria. On the other hand, violent Communist opposition to the methods of the Fascisti was displayed at Turin on Dec. 19, when ten persons were killed and many wounded in serious rioting. On Dec. 23 King Victor Emmanuel signed an amnesty decree covering all civil and military crimes committed 'in connection with national movements or aims' and also crimes caused by disturbances due to economic or social causes."—*New York Times Current History, Feb.*, 1923, *p.* 875.

1922 (December).—**Represented at London conference on reparations.** See GERMANY: 1922 (December).

1922-1923.—**Represented at Near East conference to settle Greco-Turkish crisis.** See NEAR EAST CONFERENCE.

1923 (January).—**Represented at Paris reparations conference.** See GERMANY: 1923 (January).

See also ARCHITECTURE: Renaissance: Italy; CHARITIES: Italy; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Italy; COÖPERATION: Italy; DEBTS, PUBLIC: Italy; EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: Italy; Evening schools: Italy; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Italy;

EDUCATION, ART: Medieval and Renaissance; Modern: Italy; FLAGS: Italy; IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Brazil: 1817-1919; LIBRARIES: Modern: Italy; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Italy; MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Italy; also Modern: 1527-1613; 1535-1674; 1575-1676; 1607-1734; 1650-1739; 1675-1764; 1730-1816: Italian; 1813-1868; 1842-1921: Modern Italian school; PAINTING: Italian; PHILOLOGY: 9; PRISON REFORM: Italy; RURAL CREDIT.

Also in: R. Bagot, *Italians of to-day.*—A. Billot, *La France et l'Italie 1881-1899.*—G. Borghese, *L'Italia moderne.*—A. Brunialti, *Il Trentino.*—G. Cassi, *Il Mare Adriatico.*—L. von Chlumecky, *Oesterreich-Ungarn und Italien.*—J. Chopin, *L'Unité de la politique Italienne.*—T. F. Crane, *Italian social customs in the 16th century.*—A. Dauzat, *L'Italie nouvelle.*—A. Debidour, *Formation de l'unité Italienne.*—R. F. Foerstner, *Italian emigration of our own times.*—E. G. Gardner, *National idea in Italian literature.*—V. Gayda, *L'Italia oltre confine.*—A. H. Gifford, *New Italy.*—F. Gregorovius, *History of Rome in the Middle Ages.*—L. Hautecœur, *L'Italie sous le ministère Orlando.*—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders.*—R. S. Holland, *Builders of united Italy.*—A. S. Hurd, *Italian sea power in the great war.*—E. M. Jamison, *Italy, mediæval and modern.*—P. Van B. Jones, *Italy and the peace conference.*—B. King, *History of Italian unity.*—S. M. Lindsay and L. S. Rowe, *Constitution of Italy.*—J. W. Mario, *Birth of modern Italy.*—E. A. Mowrer, *Immortal Italy.*—F. Nitti, *Discorso sul Ministero di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio.*—T. Okey, *Italy to-day.*—P. Orsi, *Cavour and the making of modern Italy.*—E. Rodocanachi, *La Réforme en Italie.*—W. R. Thayer, *Life and times of Cavour.*—C. Tivaroni, *Storia critica del Risorgimento d'Italia.*—G. M. Trevelyan, *Garibaldi's defence of the Roman Republic.*—Idem, *Scenes from Italy's war.*—J. J. Walsh, *What civilization owes to Italy.*—A. Zacher, *Italien von heute.*—H. Zimmern, *Italy and the Italians.*—E. Lemonon, *L'Italie d'après-guerre.*

ITALY, CONSTITUTION OF.—The kingdom of Italy is governed under the constitution granted in 1848, by Charles Albert, to his Sardinian subjects. The constitution has no provision for its own amendment; but most Italian jurists hold that it can be amended by Parliament, with the king's approval. As a matter of fact several provisions have been either abrogated or rendered null and void through change of conditions. The text of the Constitution is as follows:

(Charles Albert, by the Grace of God, King of Sardinia, Cyprus and Jerusalem, Duke of Savoy, Genoa, Monferrato, Aosta, of the Chiablese, Genovese and of Piacenza; Prince of Piedmont and Oneglia; Marquis of Italy, Saluzzo, Ivrea, Susa, Ceva, of the Maro, of Oristano, of Cesana and Savona; Count of Moriana, Geneva, Nice, Tenda, Romonte, Asti, Alexandria, Goceano, Novara, Tortona, Vigevano and of Bobbio; Baron of Vaud and Faucigny; Lord of Vercelli, Pinerolo, Tarantasia, of the Lomellina and of the Valley of Sesia, etc., etc., etc.) With the fidelity of a king and the affection of a father, we are about to-day to fulfill all that we promised our most beloved subjects in our proclamation of the eighth of last February, whereby we desired to show, in the midst of the extraordinary events then transpiring throughout the country, how much our confidence in our subjects increased with the gravity of the situation, and how, consulting only the impulse of our heart, we had fully determined to make their condition conform to the spirit of the times and to the interests and dignity of the nation. We, believing that the broad and permanent representative institutions established by this fundamental statute are the surest means of cementing the bonds of indissoluble affection that bind to our crown a people that has so often given us ample proof of their faithfulness, obedience and love, have determined to sanction and promulgate this statute. We believe, further, that God will bless our good intentions, and that this free, strong and happy nation will ever show itself more deserving of its ancient fame and thus merit a glorious future. Therefore, we, with our full knowledge and royal authority and with the advice of our Council, have ordained and do hereby ordain and declare in force the fundamental perpetual and irrevocable statute and law of the monarchy as follows:

Article 1. The apostolic Roman Catholic religion is the only religion of the state. Other cults now existing are tolerated, in conformity with the law.

Art. 2. The state is governed by a representative monarchical government. The throne is hereditary according to the Salic law.

Art. 3. The legislative power shall be exercised collectively by the King and two houses, the Senate and the House of Deputies.

Art. 4. The person of the King is sacred and inviolable.

Art. 5. To the King alone belongs the executive power. He is the supreme head of the state; commands all land and naval forces; declares war; makes treaties of peace, alliance, commerce, and other treaties, communicating them to the houses as soon as the interest and security of the state permit, accompanying such notice with opportune explanations; treaties involving financial obligations of alterations of the territory of the state shall not take effect until after they have received the approval of the houses.

Art. 6. The King appoints to all of the offices of the state, and makes the necessary decrees and regulations for the execution of the laws, without suspending their execution or granting exemptions from the law.

Art. 7. The King alone approves and promulgates the laws.

Art. 8. The King may grant pardons and commute sentences.

Art. 9. The King shall convene the two houses each year. He may prorogue their sessions and dissolve the House of Deputies, in which case he shall convene a new House within a period of four months.

Art. 10. The initiative in legislation shall belong both to the King and the two houses. All bills, however, imposing taxes or relating to the budget shall first be presented to the House of Deputies.

Art. 11. The King shall attain his majority upon the completion of his eighteenth year.

Art. 12. During the King's minority, the prince who is his nearest relative in the order of succession to the throne, shall be regent of the kingdom, provided he be twenty-one years of age.

Art. 13. Should the prince upon whom the regency devolves be still in his minority and this duty pass to a more distant relative, the regent who actually takes office shall continue in the regency until the King becomes of age.

Art. 14. In the absence of male relatives the regency shall devolve upon the queen-mother.

Art. 15. In default also of a queen-mother, the regent shall be elected by the legislative houses convened within ten days by the ministers.

Art. 16. The preceding provisions with reference to the regency are applicable in case the King who has attained his majority is physically incapable of reigning. Under such circumstances, if the heir presumptive to the throne be eighteen years of age, he shall be regent of full right.

Art. 17. The queen-mother shall be guardian of the King until he has completed his seventh year; from this time his guardianship shall pass into the hands of the regent.

Art. 18. All rights pertaining to the civil power in matters of ecclesiastical benefices and in the execution of all regulations whatsoever coming from foreign countries shall be exercised by the King.

Art. 19. The civil list of the crown shall remain, during the present reign, at an amount equal to the average for the past ten years. The King shall continue to have the use of the royal palaces, villas, gardens, and their appurtenances, and also of all chattels intended for the use of the crown, of which a speedy inventory shall be made by a responsible ministry. In future the above-mentioned civil list of the crown shall be fixed for the duration of each reign by the first legislature subsequent to the King's accession to the throne.

Art. 20. The property which the King now possesses in his own right, together with that to which he may hereafter acquire title, either for a consideration or gratuitously in the course of his reign, shall form his private patrimony. The King may dispose of his private patrimony either during his life or by will, exempt from the provisions of the civil law as to the amount thus disposable. In all other cases, the King's patrimony shall be subject to the laws that govern other property.

Art. 21. The law shall provide an annual civil list for the heir apparent to the throne when he has attained his majority, and even earlier in case of his marriage; for the allowances to the princes of the royal family and of royal blood, under the above-mentioned conditions; for the dowries of the princesses and for the dowries of the queens.

Art. 22. Upon ascending the throne, the King shall take an oath in the presence of the two houses to observe faithfully the present constitution.

Art. 23. The regent, before entering on the duties of that office, shall swear fidelity to the King and faithful observance of this constitution and of the laws of the state.

The rights and duties of citizens

Art. 24. All inhabitants of the kingdom, whatever their rank or title, are equal before the law.

All shall equally enjoy civil and political rights and shall be eligible to civil and military office, except as otherwise provided by law.

Art. 25. All shall contribute without distinction to the burdens of the state, in proportion to their possessions.

Art. 26. Individual liberty is guaranteed.

No one shall be arrested or brought to trial except in the cases provided for and according to the forms prescribed by law.

Art. 27. The domicile is inviolable. No search of a house shall take place except by virtue of law and in the manner prescribed by law.

Art. 28. The press shall be free, but the law may suppress abuses of this freedom. Nevertheless, Bibles, catechisms, liturgical and prayer books shall not be printed without the previous consent of the bishop.

Art. 29. Property of all kinds whatsoever is inviolable. In all cases, however, where the public welfare, legally ascertained, requires it, property may be taken and transferred in whole or in part, upon payment of a just indemnity in accordance with law.

Art. 30. No tax shall be levied or collected without the consent of the houses and the approval of the King.

Art. 31. The public debt is guaranteed. All obligations of the state to its creditors are inviolable.

Art. 32. The right to assemble peaceably and without arms, is recognized, subject, however, to the laws that may regulate the exercise of this privilege in the interest of the public welfare. This privilege is not applicable to meetings in public places or places open to the public, which shall remain entirely subject to police control.

Art. 33. The Senate shall be composed of members who have attained the age of forty years, appointed for life by the King without limit of numbers, and from the following categories of citizens: (1) Archbishops and bishops of the state. (2) The president of the House of Deputies. (3) Deputies after having served in three legislatures, or after six years of service. (4) Ministers of State. (5) Minister secretaries of State. (6) Ambassadors. (7) Envoys extraordinary after three years of such service. (8) The first presidents of the Courts of Cassation and the Court of Accounts. (9) The first presidents of the Courts of Appeal. (10) The attorney-general of the Court of Cassation and the prosecutor-general, after five years of service. (11) The presidents of the chambers of the Courts of Appeal after three years of service. (12) The councilors of the Courts of Cassation and of the Court of Accounts, after five years of service. (13) The advocates-general and fiscals-general of the Courts of Appeal, after five years of service. (14) General officers of the land and naval forces; major-generals and rear-admirals after five years of active service in this capacity. (15) The councilors of state after five years of service. (16) The members of the Councils of Division after three elections to their presidency. (17) The intendants-general, after seven years of service. (18) Members of the Royal Academy of Science of seven years' standing. (19) Regular members of the Superior Council of Public Instruction, after seven years of service. (20) Those who by their services or eminent merit have done honor to their country. (21) Persons who, for at least three years, have paid direct property or business taxes to the amount of 3,000 lire.

Art. 34. By virtue of their position the princes of the royal family shall be members of the Senate. They shall take rank immediately after the president. They shall enter the Senate at the age of twenty-one and have a vote at twenty-five.

Art. 35. The president and vice-presidents of the Senate shall be appointed by the King. The Senate shall choose its secretaries from among its own members.

Art. 36. The Senate may be constituted a High Court of Justice by decree of the King to try crimes of high treason and attempts upon the safety of the state, and to try ministers impeached by the House of Deputies. When acting in this capacity, the Senate is not a political body. It shall not then occupy itself with any other judicial matters than those for which it was convened; any other action shall be null and void.

Art. 37. No senator shall be arrested except by virtue of an order of the Senate, unless he be taken in the commission of an offense. The Sen-

ate shall be the sole judge of the imputed misdemeanors of its members.

Art. 38. Legal documents as to births, marriages, and deaths of members of the royal family shall be presented to the Senate and deposited by that body among its archives.

The House of Deputies

Art. 39. The elective house shall be composed of deputies chosen by the electoral districts as provided by law.

Art. 40. No person shall be a member of the House who is not a subject of the King, thirty years of age, in the enjoyment of all civil and political rights, and of the other qualifications required by law.

Art. 41. Deputies shall represent the nation as a whole, and not the several provinces from which they are chosen. No binding instructions may therefore be given by the electors.

Art. 42. Deputies shall be elected for five years; their power shall cease *ipso facto* at the expiration of this period.

Art. 43. The president, vice-presidents, and secretaries of the House of Deputies shall be chosen by the House from among its own members at the beginning of each session, for the entire session.

Art. 44. If a deputy ceases for any reason to perform his duties, the electoral district that chose him shall be called upon at once to proceed with a new election.

Art. 45. Deputies shall be privileged from arrest during the sessions, except when taken in the commission of an offense, and no deputy may be proceeded against in criminal matters without the previous consent of the House.

Art. 46. No warrant of arrest for debts may be executed against a deputy during the sessions of the House, nor within a period of three weeks preceding or following the same.

Art. 47. The House of Deputies shall have power to impeach ministers of the crown and to bring them to trial before the High Court of Justice.

Provisions common to both houses

Art. 48. The sessions of the Senate and House of Deputies shall begin and end at the same time.

Every meeting of one house, at a time when the other is not in session, is illegal and its acts are entirely void.

Art. 49. Senators and deputies before entering upon the duties of their office shall take an oath to be loyal to the King, to observe faithfully the constitution and laws of the state, and to perform their duties with the inseparable welfare of King and country as the sole end in view.

Art. 50. The office of senator or deputy shall not carry with it any compensation or remuneration.

Art. 51. Senators and deputies shall not be called to account for opinions expressed or votes given in the houses.

Art. 52. The sessions of the houses shall be public.

Upon the written request of ten members secret sessions may be held.

Art. 53. No session or vote of either house shall be legal or valid unless an absolute majority of its members is present.

Art. 54. Action on any question shall be taken only by a majority of the votes cast.

Art. 55. All bills shall first be submitted for preliminary examination to committees elected by each house. Any proposition discussed and approved by one house shall be transmitted to the other for its consideration and approval; after passing both houses it shall be presented to the King for his approval. Bills shall be discussed article by article.

Art. 56. Any bill rejected by one of the three legislative powers shall not again be introduced during the same session.

Art. 57. Every person who has attained his majority shall have the right to send petitions to the houses, which shall order them to be examined by a committee; on report of the committee each house shall decide whether such petitions are to be taken into consideration, and in case of an affirmative decision, they shall be referred to the competent minister or to one of the sections of the house for action.

Art. 58. No petition may be presented in person to either house.

Legally organized bodies alone shall have the right to petition under a collective name.

Art. 59. The houses shall not receive any deputation, nor give hearing to others than their own members, ministers, and commissioners of the government.

Art. 60. Each house shall be the sole judge of the qualifications and elections of its own members.

Art. 61. The Senate and the House of Deputies shall make their own rules and regulations respecting their methods of procedure in the performance of their respective duties.

Art. 62. Italian shall be the official language of the houses. The use of French shall, however, be permitted to the members coming from districts where French is used, and in replying to them.

Art. 63. Votes shall be taken by rising and sitting, by division, or by secret ballot. The latter method, however, shall always be employed for the final vote on a law and in all cases of a personal character.

Art. 64. No one shall at the same time hold the office of senator and of deputy.

The ministers

Art. 65. The King appoints and dismisses his ministers.

Art. 66. The ministers shall have no vote in either house unless they are members thereof. They shall have entrance to both houses and shall be heard upon request.

Art. 67. The ministers are responsible.

Laws and governmental acts shall not take effect until they shall have received the signature of a minister.

The judiciary

Art. 68. Justice emanates from the King and shall be administered in his name by the judges whom he appoints.

Art. 69. Judges appointed by the King, except cantonal judges, shall be irremovable, after three years of service.

Art. 70. Courts, tribunals, and judges shall be retained as at present existing. No modification shall be introduced except by law.

Art. 71. No one shall be withdrawn from his ordinary legal jurisdiction.

It shall, therefore, not be lawful to create extraordinary tribunals or commissions.

Art. 72. The proceedings of courts in civil cases and the hearings in criminal cases shall be public, as provided by law.

Art. 73. The interpretation of the laws, in the form obligatory upon all citizens, belongs to the legislative power.

General provisions

Art. 74. Communal and provincial institutions and the boundaries of the communes and provinces shall be regulated by law.

Art. 75. Military conscriptions shall be regulated by law.

Art. 76. A communal militia shall be established upon a basis fixed by law.

Art. 77. The state retains its flag, and the blue cockade is the only national one.

Art. 78. The knightly orders now in existence shall be maintained with their endowments, which shall not be used for other purposes than those specified in the acts by which they were established. The King may create other orders and prescribe their constitutions.

Art. 79. Titles of nobility shall be borne by those who have a right to them. The King may confer new titles.

Art. 80. No one may receive orders, titles, or pensions from a foreign power without the consent of the King.

Art. 81. All laws contrary to the provisions of the present constitution are abrogated.

Transitory provisions

Art. 82. This statute shall go into effect on the day of the first meeting of the houses, which shall take place immediately after the elections. Until that time urgent public service shall be provided for by royal ordinances according to the mode and form now in vogue, excepting, however, the authentications and registrations in the courts which are from now on abolished.

Art. 83. In the execution of this statute the King reserves to himself the right to make the laws for the press, elections, communal militia, and the reorganization of the Council of State. Until the publication of the laws for the press, the regulations now in force on this subject shall remain valid.

Art. 84. The ministers are intrusted with and are responsible for the execution and full observance of these transitory provisions.

For the Laws of the Papal Guarantees, see PAPACY: 1870.

ITHACA.—One of the seven Ionian islands, small and unimportant, but interesting as being the Homeric island-kingdom of Ulysses—the principal scene of the story of the Odyssey. The island has been more or less explored, with a view to identifying the localities mentioned in the epic, by Sir William Gell, by Col. Leake, and by Dr. Schliemann. Some account of the latter's work and its results is given in the introduction to his "Ilios."—E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography, v.* 1, *ch.* 3, *note* 1.—In view of the great difficulty of reconciling Homer's description of Ithaca with the Ionian island of that name Professor Dörpfeld has attempted to identify the ancient Ithaca with the island Leucas; however, no conclusion on the matter has been reached.

ALSO IN: W. Dörpfeld, *Melanges Perrot, pp.* 79-93.—P. Goessler, *Leukos-Ithaca.*

ITHOME, hill and fortress of ancient Messinia. See SPARTA: B.C. 743-510; MESSENIAN WARS.

ITO HIROBUMI, Prince (1841-1909), Japanese statesman. Contributed to the fall of the Shogunate; became governor of Hiogo, 1868; minister of the interior, 1878; minister president of state, 1886-1888; promulgated a new constitution, 1889; held office as premier, 1894-1895, 1898, 1900-1901; appointed resident general of Korea, 1905; president of the privy council, Japan, 1909. See JAPAN: 1894-1912; KOREA: 1905; 1905-1909.

Promulgation of new constitution.—Reforms. See JAPAN: 1868-1895.

Visit to United States.—Mission to St. Petersburg. See JAPAN: 1895-1902.

ITOCO, tribe of South American Indians. See CHIBCHAS.

ITONAMOS, or Itanomos, tribe of South American Indians. See BOLIVIA: Aboriginal inhabitants.

ITURÆANS, a people living between Syria and Arabia in ancient times. See SYRIA: B.C. 64-63.

ITURBIDE, or Yturbide, Augustin de (1783-1824), emperor of Mexico, 1822-1823. Served in the royal army against Hidalgo, 1810; defeated Morelos, Hidalgo's successor, at Valladolid, 1813; espoused the cause of national independence and was made commander of the army in the south, 1820; proclaimed Emperor Augustin I, 1822; forced by congress to abdicate, 1823; left Mexico but returned, 1824, and was shot as an outlaw. See Mexico: 1810-1819; 1820-1826.

Empire of. See MEXICO: 1820-1826.

ITUZAINGÓ, Battle of (1827). See ARGENTINA: 1819-1874.

IUKA, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1862 (September-October: Mississippi).

IUS GENTIUM. See JUS GENTIUM.

IVAN I (d. 1341), grand duke of Vladimir, 1328-1340.

Ivan II (1326-1359), grand duke of Vladimir, 1353-1359.

Ivan III, the Great (1440-1505), grand duke of Muscovy, or Russia, 1462-1505. Subjugated Novgorod, 1478; freed the country from the Tatar yoke, 1480; wars with Lithuania, 1492-1494, 1500-1503; noted for his internal improvements in the country. See RUSSIA: 1350-1480; 1533-1682.

Ivan IV, the Terrible (1530-1584), tsar of Muscovy, 1547-1584. Annexed Kazan, 1550, and Astrakan, 1556; wars with Livonia, 1558-1581; treaty with Sweden, 1583; began the conquest of Siberia, 1582. His reign was a struggle against the boyars. See RUSSIA: 1533-1682; 1547.

Ivan V (1666-1696), tsar of Russia, 1682-1689.

Ivan VI (1740-1764), tsar of Russia, 1740-1741.

IVANGOROD, fortress on the Vistula, about seventy miles southeast of Warsaw, Poland. Owing to the German offensive, the Russians were forced to evacuate it, August 4, 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: **g, 8; i, 4.**

IVANOV, General, commander of Russian forces in Poland during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: **b; d, 1; d, 2; d, 3;** 1915: III. Eastern front: **i, 3; i, 6; i, 7.**

IVERNI, early tribe in Ireland. See IRELAND: Tribes of early Celtic inhabitants.

IVORY COAST, Africa, name given to part of the coast of upper Guinea in West Africa, which was annexed to France in 1892. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century.

IVRY, Battle of (1590). See FRANCE: 1589-1590.

IVY LANE CLUB. See CLUBS: Dr. Johnson's.

I.W.W. See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD.

IYEYASU TOKUGAWA, or Ieyasu Tokugawa (1542-1616), Japanese general and statesman, shogun of the Tokugawa line. Became shogun, 1603; retired after making peace with Ko-

rea, 1605; noted for his unification of the country, and codifying and revising the laws. See JAPAN: B.C. 600-A.D. 1853; 1549-1605; 1593-1625.

IZARD, Ralph (1742-1804), American senator. Commissioner to Florence, 1776-1779; senator from South Carolina, 1789-1795. See U. S. A.: 1776-1778.

IZVOR, Battle of. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: b, 4.

J

JAAFER (d. 802), Persian vizier to Haroun-al-Rashid, member of the Barmecide family. See BARMECIDES.

JABESH, town, situated in Biblical times in Gilead, Palestine. See JEWS: Kingdoms of Israel and Judah.

JABLOCHKOFF CANDLE. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric lighting: 1810-1876.

JABLONITZA PASS, route through the Carpathians between Galicia and Transylvania. The Russians held it in 1916, during the World War, but failed to make use of the opportunity to come to the help of the Rumanians, who were being crushed by the Austro-Germans. See CARPATHIANS; WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: c.

JACK CADE'S REBELLION. See ENGLAND: 1450.

JACK'S LAND, name given in England to the land left after the division of the fields. See NO MAN'S LAND (ENGLAND).

JACKSON, Andrew (1767-1845), American general and seventh president of the United States. Member of national House of Representatives from Tennessee, 1796-1797; United States senator, 1797-1798; justice of the supreme court of Tennessee, 1798-1804; served in wars against the Creeks, 1813-1814; against the English at New Orleans, 1815; and against the Seminoles, 1817-1818; governor of Florida territory, 1821; United States senator from Florida, 1823-1825; president of the United States, 1829-1837.—See also OLD HICKORY.

Campaign against Creek Indians. See U.S.A.: 1813-1814 (August-April).

Victory at New Orleans. See U. S. A.: 1815.

Campaign in Florida. See FLORIDA: 1812-1819; LOUISIANA: 1813-1815.

Governor of Florida. See FLORIDA: 1819-1821.

Presidential election and administration. See U.S.A.: 1824; 1825-1828; 1828, to 1837.

War on the United States Bank. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1817-1833; STOCK EXCHANGE: New York; U.S.A.: 1833-1836.

Interest in Texas question. See TEXAS: 1824-1830; 1824-1835; U. S. A.: 1898 (March-April).

JACKSON, Charles Thomas (1805-1880), American geologist and physician. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Discovery of anæsthetics.

JACKSON, Claiborne Fox (1807-1862), governor of Missouri. See MISSOURI: 1860-1861; 1861; U. S. A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call to arms.

JACKSON, Thomas Jonathan, Stonewall Jackson (1824-1863), Confederate general in the American Civil War. Served in the Mexican War; joined the Confederate army in 1861 and served until 1863, when he was accidentally killed.

At first Battle of Bull Run. See U. S. A.: 1861 (July: Virginia).

First campaign in the Shenandoah. See U. S. A.: 1861-1862 (December-April: Virginia).

Second campaign. See U. S. A.: 1862 (May-June: Virginia).

Peninsular campaign. See U. S. A.: 1862 (June-July: Virginia).

Campaign against Pope. See U. S. A.: 1862 (July-August: Virginia): Beginning of Pope's campaign; U. S. A.: 1862 (August-September: Virginia).

Death. See U. S. A.: 1863 (April-May: Virginia).

JACKSON, capital of Mississippi, situated on the Pearl river, 181 miles north of New Orleans. See MISSISSIPPI: 1820-1839.

1863.—Capture and recapture by Union forces. —Sack and ruin. See U. S. A.: 1863 (April-July: On the Mississippi); (July: Mississippi).

JACKSON, Fort, on the Mississippi. Occupied by state authorities of Georgia, 1860; bombarded by Union forces, 1862. See U. S. A.: 1860-1861 (December-February); 1862 (April: On the Mississippi).

JACKSON - HARMSWORTH EXPEDITION. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1897.

JACKSONVILLE, largest city in Florida, situated on the St. John's river.

1888.—Yellow fever scourge. See FLORIDA: 1888-1905.

1901.—Great fire. See FLORIDA: 1894-1901.

1922. — Southern Baptist Convention. See BAPTISTS: 1922: Southern Baptist Convention.

JACOB, Hungarian pastor, reputed leader of "the Pastors" Crusade. See CRUSADES: 1252.

JACOB JONES, United States ship sunk by torpedo. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IX. Naval operations: c, 5.

JACOBA, or Jacqueline (1401-1436), countess of Holland. Succeeded her father, William VI, in Holland, Zeeland and Hainaut, 1417. See NETHERLANDS: 1406-1417; 1417-1430.

JACOBIN CLUBS: France. See FRANCE: 1790, to 1794-1795 (July-April).

England. See ENGLAND: 1793-1796.

Ireland. See IRELAND: 1793-1798.

JACOBITE CHURCH.—The great religious dispute of the fifth century, concerning the single or the double nature of Christ, as God and as man, left, in the end, two extreme parties, the Monophysites and the Nestorians, exposed alike to the persecutions of the orthodox church, as established in its faith by the Council of Chalcedon, by the Roman pope and by the emperors Justin and Justinian. The Monophysite party, strongest in Syria, was threatened with extinction; but a monk named James, or Jacobus, Baradæus—"Al Baradai," "the man in rags,"—imparted new life to it by his zeal and activity, and its members acquired from him the name of Jacobites. Amida (now Diarbekir) on the Tigris became the seat of the Jacobite patriarchs and remains so to this day. Abulphargius, the oriental historian of the thirteenth century, was their most distinguished scholar, and held the office of Mafrian or vice-patriarch, so to speak, of the East. Their communities are mostly confined at present to the region of the Euphrates and the Tigris, and number less than 200,000 souls. —H. F. Tozer, *Church and the eastern empire, ch.* 5. See NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY; CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Syrian churches.

JACOBITES.—After the revolution of 1688 in England, which expelled James II from the throne, his partisans, who wished to restore him, were called Jacobites, an appellation derived from the Latin form of his name—Jacobus. The name adhered after James' death to the party which maintained the rights of his son and grandson, James Stuart and Charles Edward, the "Old Pretender" and the "Young Pretender," as they were respectively called. The Jacobites rose twice in rebellion.—See also SCOTLAND: 1689 (July); 1707-1708; 1715; 1745-1746; ULSTER: 1687-1689.

Court of. See SAINT GERMAINS: Jacobite Court.

JACOBSTADT, town on the Dvina, about eighty miles southeast of Riga. During the World War it was evacuated by the Russians. See WORLD WAR: 1917: III. Russia and the Eastern front: o.

JACQUARD, Joseph Marie (1752-1834), French inventor. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.

JACQUE, Charles Emile (1813-1894), French painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

JACQUELINE, countess of Holland. See JACOBA.

JACQUERIE, French peasantry in the Île de France and about Beauvais. They rose in rebellion in 1358. See FRANCE: 1358.

JADAR RIVER, Battle on. See WORLD WAR: 1914: III. Balkans: a, 1.

JADERA. See ZARA.

JADWIGA, or Hedvige, of Hungary, queen of Poland by marriage to Vladislaus II. See POLAND: 14th century.

JAFFA, ancient Joppa, town of Syria in the Sanjak of Jerusalem, thirty-five miles north of the city of Jerusalem.

1100.—In kingdom of Jerusalem. See JERUSALEM: 1100.

1196-1197.—Taken and retaken by German crusaders. See CRUSADES: 1196-1197.

1799.—Capture by Bonaparte.—Massacre of prisoners.—Reported poisoning of the sick. See FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-August).

1917.—Occupied by British. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: c, 2, iv.

JAGELLONS, Dynasty of. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442; 1487-1526; POLAND: 1333-1572.

JAGIR.—"A jagir [in India] is, literally, land given by a government as a reward for services rendered."—G. B. Malleson, *Lord Clive, p.* 123, *foot-note.*

JAGOW, Gottlieb von (1863-), German statesman. Entered diplomatic service, 1895; secretary of state for foreign affairs, 1913-1916. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 62; 71, xxiii; 73, iv; GERMANY: 1912-1913; 1916: Change of government.

JAHANGIR (1569-1627), Mogul emperor of Delhi, 1505-1627. He was the son and successor of Akbar the Great.—See also INDIA: 1605-1658.

JAIME. See JAMES.

JAINISM.—"Even in India Buddhism did not altogether die. Many of its doctrines still live in Hinduism. It also left behind a special sect, the Jains, who number over one and one quarter millions in India. Like the Buddhists, they deny the authority of the Veda, except in so far as it agrees with their own tenets; disregard sacrifice; practise a strict morality; believe that their past and future states depend upon their own actions rather than on any external deity; and refuse to kill either man or beast. The Jains divide time into three eras; and adore twenty-four *Jinas,* or just men made perfect, in the past age, twenty-four in the present, and twenty-four in the era to come. The colossal statues of this great company of saints stand in their temples. They choose wooded mountains and the most lovely retreats of nature for their places of pilgrimage, and cover them with exquisitely carved shrines in white marble or dazzling stucco. The Jains of India are usually merchants or bankers. Their charity is boundless; and they form the chief supporters of the beast hospitals, which the old Buddhistic tenderness for animals has left in many of the cities of India. They claim, not without evidence, that the Jain religion is even older than Buddhism; and that the teaching of Buddha was based on the Jain faith."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples, p.* 83.—See also CASTE SYSTEM.

JAIPUR, capital of a native state of the same name, India. See INDIA: 1816-1819.

JAKALSWATER, town in Southwest Africa. It was a center of British operations during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1.

JALALÆAN ERA, system of computing time in Turkey. See TURKEY: 1073-1092.

JALAPA, or Xalapa, capital of Vera Cruz, Mexico. See MEXICO: Map.

JALISCO, or Xalisco, state in northwestern Mexico. See MEXICO: Map.

1910.—Revolt. See MEXICO: 1910-1913.

JALULA, Battle of (637).—One of the battles in which the Arabs, under the first successors of Mahomet, conquered the Persian empire.—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy, ch.* 26. See CALIPHATE: 632-651.

JAMAICA, the largest island of the British West Indies and still known by its aboriginal appellation, meaning a land of springs and flowers. It lies a distance of 1,500 miles almost due south of New York; about 5,000 miles southwest of England; 100 miles west of Haiti; and 90 miles south of Cuba. It is surrounded by the Caribbean sea; is 144 miles in greatest length, 49 in greatest breadth and 21 in the narrowest part; having a total area of 4,207 square miles. The estimated population, 1920, was 857,921.—See also WEST INDIES: Location; CENTRAL AMERICA: Map; BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent: TURKS AND CAICOS ISLANDS.

Resources.—The chief industry is agriculture. In 1920, 302,125 acres were under tillage and 772,578 acres under pasture. The chief exports are fruit, sugar, extract, coconut, rum, coffee, pimento, and logwood. The trade of the island is chiefly with the United States, the United Kingdom and Canada.

1494.—Discovery by Columbus. See AMERICA: 1493-1496.

1509.—Granted to Ojeda and Nicuesa. See AMERICA: 1509-1511.

1655.—English conquest and colonization.—In the spring of 1655, having determined upon an alliance with France and war with Spain, Cromwell fitted out an expedition under admirals Venables and Pen, secretly commissioned to attack Cuba and Santo Domingo. Frustrated in an attempt against the latter island, the expedition made a descent on the island of Jamaica with better success. "This great gain was yet held insufficient to balance the first defeat; and on the return of Pen and Venables they were both committed to the Tower. I may pause for an instant here to notice a sound example of Cromwell's far-seeing sagacity. Though men scouted in that day the acquisition of Jamaica, he saw its value in itself, and its importance in relation to future attempts on the continent of America. Exerting the inhuman power of a despot—occasionally, as hurricanes and other horrors, necessary for the purification of the world—he ordered his son Henry to seize

on 1,000 young girls in Ireland and send them over to Jamaica, for the purpose of increasing population there. A year later, and while the Italian Sagredo was in London, he issued an order that all females of disorderly lives should be arrested and shipped for Barbadoes for the like purpose. Twelve hundred were accordingly sent in three ships."—J. Forster, *Statesmen of the commonwealth: Cromwell.*—See also ENGLAND: 1655-1658; AMERICA: 1639-1700; BRITISH EMPIRE: Expansion: 17th century: West Indies: 1655; WEST INDIES.

ALSO IN: G. Penn, *Memorials of Sir William Penn, Admiral, v. 2, p. 124, and appendix* H.

1655-1796.—Development of British colony.—Buccaneers.—Maroon wars.—"Cromwell set himself to maintain and develop his new conquest. He issued a proclamation encouraging trade and settlement in the island by exemption from taxes. In order to 'people and plant' it, he ordered an equal number of young men and women to be sent over from Ireland, he instructed the Scotch government to apprehend and transport the idle and vagrant, and he sent agents to the New England colonies and the other West Indian islands in order to attract settlers. After the first three or four years this policy of encouraging emigration, continued in spite of the Protector's death, bore due fruit, and Jamaica became to a singular extent a receptacle for the most varied types of settlers, for freemen as well as for political offenders or criminals from Newgate, and for immigrants from the colonies as well as from the mother country. . . . The death of Cromwell brought over adherents of the Parliamentary party, ill content with the restoration of the Stuarts; the evacuation of Surinam in favour of the Dutch brought in a contingent of planters in 1675; the survivors of the ill-fated Scotch colony at Darien came over in 1699; and the Rye House Plot, Sedgmoor, and the risings of 1715 and 1745 all contributed to the population of the island. Most of all, however, the buccaneers made Jamaica great and prosperous. . . . Situated as the island was, well inside the ring of the Spanish possessions, the English occupation of Jamaica was a godsend to the buccaneers, while their privateering trade was exactly suited to the restless soldiers who formed the large bulk of the early colonists. [See BUCCANEERS: English.] So Port Royal became in a few years a great emporium of ill-gotten wealth, and the man who sacked Panama became Sir Henry Morgan, Lieutenant-Governor of Jamaica. . . . In 1661 Charles II. sanctioned the beginnings of civil government. . . . . Municipal institutions were introduced, judges and magistrates were appointed, land grants were issued, and the island began to take the form and substance of an English colony. The constitution thenceforward consisted of a Governor, a nominated Council, and an elected Assembly; and the first Assembly, consisting of 30 persons, met in January, 1664. . . . It was not long before the representative body began to assert its independence by opposition to the Crown, and in 1678 the Home government invited conflict by trying to apply to Jamaica the system which had been introduced into Ireland by the notorious Poynings' law. Under this system no Assembly could be summoned for legislative purposes except under special directions from home, and its functions would have been limited to registering consent to laws which had already been put into approved shape in England." Conflict over this attempt to deal with Jamaica as "a conquered and tributary dependency" did not end until 1728, when the colonists bought relief from it by settling on the Crown an "irrevocable revenue" of £8,000 per annum. "About the time when the constitutional difficulty was settled, the Maroon question was pressing itself more and more upon the attention of the colonial government. The penalty which Jamaica paid for being a large and mountainous island was, that it harboured in its forests and ravines a body of men who, throughout its history down to the present century, were a source of anxiety and danger. The original Maroons, or mountaineers, for that is the real meaning of the term, were . . . the slaves of Spaniards who retreated into the interior when the English took the island, and sallied out from time to time to harass the invaders and cut off stragglers and detached parties. . . . Maroon or Maron is an abbreviation of Cimaron, and is derived from the Spanish or Portuguese 'Cima,' or mountain top. Skeat points out that the word is probably of Portuguese origin, the 'C' having been pronounced as 'S.' Benzoni (edited by the Hakluyt Society), who wrote about 1565, speaks of 'Cimaroni' as being the Spanish name for outlawed slaves in Hispaniola. . . . It is probable that the danger would have been greater if the outlaws had been a united band, but there were divisions of race and origin among them. The Maroons proper, the slaves of the Spaniards and their descendants, were mainly in the east of the island among the Blue Mountains, while the mountains of the central district were the refuge of runaways from English masters, including Africans of different races, as well as Madagascars or Malays. Towards the end of the seventeenth century the newer fugitives had found in a negro named Cudjoe an able and determined leader, and thenceforward the resistance to the government became more organised and systematic. . . . Finally, in 1738, Governor Trelawny made overtures of peace to the rebels, which were accepted. . . . By this treaty the freedom of the negroes was guaranteed, special reserves were assigned to them, they were left under the rule of their own captains assisted by white superintendents, but were bound over to help the government against foreign invasion from without and slave rebellions from within. A similar treaty was made with the eastern Maroons, and the whole of these blacks, some 600 in number, were established in five settlements. . . . Under these conditions the Maroons gave little trouble till the end of the 18th century. . . . The last Maroon war occurred in 1795." When the insurgent Maroons surrendered, the next year, they were, in violation of the terms made with them, transported to Nova Scotia, and afterwards to the warmer climate of Sierra Leone. "Thus ended the last Maroon rebellion; but . . . it affected only one section of these negro freemen, and even their descendants returned in many cases to Jamaica at a later date."—C. P. Lucas, *Historical geography of the British colonies, v. 2, sect. 2, ch. 3, with foot-note.*

ALSO IN: G. W. Bridges, *Annals of Jamaica, v. 1-2, ch. 1-16.*—R. C. Dallas, *History of the Maroons.*

1689-1762.—English slave trade. See SLAVERY: 1698-1776.

1692.—Destructive earthquake.—"An earthquake of terrible violence laid waste in less than three minutes the flourishing colony of Jamaica. Whole plantations changed their place. Whole villages were swallowed up. Port Royal, the fairest and wealthiest city which the English had yet built in the New World, renowned for its quays, for its warehouses, and for its stately streets, which were said to rival Cheapside, was turned into a mass of ruins. Fifteen hundred of

the inhabitants were buried under their own dwellings."—Lord Macaulay, *History of England, v. 4, ch. 19.*

1834-1838. — Emancipation of slaves. See SLAVERY: 1834-1838.

1865.—Governor Eyre's suppression of Insurrection.—In October, 1865, there occurred an insurrection among the colored people of one district of Jamaica, the suppression of which throws "a not altogether pleasant light upon English methods, when applied to the government of a subject race. . . . The disturbances were confined to the district and parish of St. Thomas in the East. There were local grievances arising from a dispute between Mr. Gordon, a native [colored] proprietor, and Baron Ketelholdt, the custos of the parish. Mr. Gordon, a dissenter, and apparently a reformer of abuses and unpopular among his fellows, had been deprived of his place among the magistrates, and prevented from filling the office of church warden to which he was elected. The expenses of the suits against him had been defrayed from the public purse. The native Baptists, the sect to which he belonged, were angry with what they regarded as at once an act of persecution and a misappropriation of the public money. Indignation meetings had been held. . . . Behind this quarrel, which would not of itself have produced much result, there lay more general grievances. . . . There was a real grievance in the difficulty of obtaining redress through law administered entirely by landlords; and as a natural consequence there had grown up a strong mistrust of the law itself, and a complete alienation between the employer and the employed. To this was added a feeling on the part of the class above the ordinary labourer, known as the free settlers, that they were unduly rented, and obliged to pay rent for land which they should have held free; and there was a very general though vague expectation that in some way or other the occupiers would be freed from the payment of rent. The insurrection broke out in October"; a small riot, at first, at Morant Bay, in which a policeman was beaten; then an attempt to arrest one of the alleged rioters, a colored preacher, Paul Bogle by name, and a formidable resistance to the attempt by 400 of his friends. "On the next day, when the Magistrates and Vestry were assembled in the Court-House at Morant Bay, a crowd of insurgents made their appearance, the volunteers were called out, and the Riot Act read; and after a skirmish the Court-House was taken and burnt, 18 of the defenders killed and 30 wounded. The jail was broken open and several stores sacked. There was some evidence that the rising was premeditated, and that a good deal of drilling had been going on among the blacks under the command of Bogle. From Morant Bay armed parties of the insurgents passed inland through the country attacking the plantations, driving the inhabitants to take refuge in the bush, and putting some of the whites to death. The Governor of the Island at the time was Mr. Eyre [former explorer of Australia]. He at once summoned his Privy Council, and with their advice declared martial law over the county of Surrey, with the exception of the town of Kingston. Bodies of troops were also at once despatched to surround the insurgent district. . . . 439 persons fell victims to summary punishment, and not less than 1,000 dwellings were burnt; besides which, it would appear that at least 600 men and women were subjected to flogging, in some instances with circumstances of unusual cruelty. But the event which chiefly fixed the attention of the public in England was the summary conviction and execution of Mr. Gordon. He was undoubtedly a troublesome person, and there were circumstances raising a suspicion that he possessed a guilty knowledge of the intended insurrection. They were however far too slight to have secured his conviction before a Court of Law. But Governor Eyre caused him to be arrested in Kingston, where martial law did not exist, hurried on board ship and carried to Morant Bay, within the proclaimed district. He was there tried by a court-martial, consisting of three young officers," was sentenced to death, and immediately hanged.—J. F. Bright, *History of England: Period 4, pp. 413-415.*—"When the story reached England, in clear and trustworthy form, two antagonistic parties were instantly formed. The extreme on the one side glorified Governor Eyre, and held that by his prompt action he had saved the white population of Jamaica from all the horrors of triumphant negro insurrection. The extreme on the other side denounced him as a mere fiend. The majority on both sides were more reasonable; but the difference between them was only less wide. An association called the Jamaica Committee was formed for the avowed purpose of seeing that justice was done. It comprised some of the most illustrious Englishmen. . . . Another association was founded, on the opposite side, for the purpose of sustaining Governor Eyre; and it must be owned that it too had great names. Mr. Mill may be said to have led the one side, and Mr. Carlyle the other. The natural bent of each man's genius and temper turned him to the side of the Jamaica negroes, or of the Jamaica Governor. Mr. Tennyson, Mr. Kingsley, Mr. Ruskin, followed Mr. Carlyle; we know now that Mr. Dickens was of the same way of thinking. Mr. Herbert Spencer, Professor Huxley, Mr. Goldwin Smith, were in agreement with Mr. Mill. . . . No one needs to be told that Mr. Bright took the side of the oppressed, and Mr. Disraeli that of authority." A Commission of Inquiry sent out to investigate the whole matter, reported in April, 1866, commending the vigorous promptitude with which Governor Eyre had dealt with the disturbances at the beginning, but condemning the brutalities which followed, under cover of martial law, and especially the infamous execution of Gordon. The Jamaica Committee made repeated efforts to bring Governor Eyre's conduct to judicial trial; but without success. "The bills of indictment never got beyond the grand jury stage. The grand jury always threw them out. On one memorable occasion the attempt gave the Lord Chief Justice [Cockburn] of England an opportunity of delivering . . . to the grand jury . . . a charge entitled to the rank of a historical declaration of the law of England, and the limits of the military power even in cases of insurrection."—J. McCarthy, *History of our own times, v. 4, ch. 49.*

See also RACE PROBLEMS: In Jamaica.

ALSO IN: G. B. Smith, *Life and speeches of John Bright, v. 2, ch. 5.*—W. F. Finlason, *History of the Jamaica case.*

1881-1895.—Constitution.—"In 1881, when the condition of Jamaica was again peaceable, a Commission was sent out to the island to enquire into the question of granting a new constitution, and a petition from the colony advocated a Council of twenty-two members, of whom eight were to be nominated and fourteen elected. The then Governor, General Sir Henry Norman, protested, however, against the elected members being given a majority and by an Order in Council, dated May 19th, 1884, and amended in October, 1895, a Legislative Council was constituted, consisting of the Governor and five ex-officio members, and of such other persons not exceeding ten in number, as the Crown might from time to time appoint, or as the

Governor from time to time might provisionally appoint, and fourteen persons to be elected. A Privy Council with the usual powers and functions of an Executive Council was also provided for. The Order in Council laid it down, however, that the votes of the nominated members were not to be recorded against the unanimous votes of all the fourteen elected members on any question unless the Governor declared that, in his opinion, the decision of such question in a sense contrary to the votes of the elected members was 'of paramount importance to the public interest.' The full number of nominated members was not at first appointed and the elected members were for some time in a majority, though the sword of Damocles was suspended over their heads, for there was the danger of this majority being wiped out in the event of their giving an adverse decision in matters which the Governor might consider of 'paramount importance.' "—A. Aspinall, *British West Indies, pp.* 303-304.

1897.—**Industrial condition.** See West Indies: 1897.

1899.—**Financial crisis and conflict between governor and legislative assembly.**—A crisis in the financial circumstances of the Colony, consequent on expenditures exceeding revenue for several years, was reached in 1899, and led to a serious conflict of views between the governor and the legislative assembly. The latter is constituted of members partly elected and partly appointed by the governor. The elected members of the Assembly had been in the majority, hitherto, but the governor possessed authority to add to the nominated membership, and he exercised that authority, as a means of obtaining action on a tariff bill which he held to be a necessary measure. He did so under instructions from the British colonial secretary. Before this occurred, an agent of the colonial office, Sir David Barbour, had been sent to Jamaica to report on the financial situation. His report, submitted in June, besides recommending financial remedies, contained some references to the political constitution of the colony—among them these:

"The peculiar constitution of the Government had . . . an influence in bringing about or aggravating the present financial difficulties. When it was apparent that either more revenue must be raised or expenditure must be reduced, the Government was in favour of increasing taxation, while the elected members of the Legislative Council pressed for reductions of expenditure. From the nature of the Constitution, the Government was practically unable to carry proposals for increased taxation in opposition to the votes of nine elected members, while the elected members could not in any satisfactory manner enforce reduction of expenditure. The present state of things shows that both increase of taxation and reduction of expenditure were necessary, but though there has been much friction in recent years, and great loss of time in the Legislative Council, neither increase of taxation nor reduction of expenditure was effected in any degree at all adequate to avert the difficulties which were approaching. . . . The Home Government are, in the last resort, responsible for the financial condition of Jamaica, while, under ordinary circumstances, the Colonial Office exercises at present no real direct and immediate control over the finances. . . . It may be taken for granted that under any circumstances Her Majesty's Government would be unwilling to see the Colony sink into a condition of insolvency without an effort for its relief, and as the ultimate responsibility must, therefore, rest on Her Majesty's Government it would seem better to exercise the power of control, while it is still possible to apply a remedy, rather than to wait until the mischief can only be redressed at the cost of the British taxpayer. On the other hand, as no real responsibility can be enforced on the Elected Members, it seems necessary to give the Governor some practicable means of enforcing his policy, and I would suggest that this might be done by keeping the number of nominated Members at its full strength so that in case of need the Governor would only have to make the necessary declaration, and would not have to go through the preliminary operation of adding to the number of nominated Members."

On the 2nd of August, the report of Sir David Barbour was reviewed at length by the colonial secretary, Mr. Chamberlain, in a despatch to Governor Hemming, and the above recommendations were substantially approved and made instructions to the Governor. "Two plain facts in connection with this matter," said the colonial secretary, "must force themselves upon the attention of all who study the question, still more of all who are called upon to find a solution of it. The first is, that 'the Home Government,' in Sir David Barbour's words, 'are in the last resort responsible for the financial condition of Jamaica.' The second is that as a 'working compromise,' the existing system has failed. It is a compromise, but it has not worked. I am not now so much concerned with principle as with practice. As a machine for doing the work which has to be done the present system has failed. It is in fact impossible, except where tact and good will and friendly feeling exist in an unusual degree, for the government of a country to be carried on when those who are responsible for it are in a permanent minority in the Legislature. I decline to allow the Jamaica Government to remain in that position any longer, not merely because it is unfair to them, but also because, recognizing the ultimate responsibility of Her Majesty's Government for the solvency of the Colony, I must ensure that the measures which they may consider necessary are carried out. I must instruct you, therefore, before the Legislative Council is again summoned, to fill up the full number of nominated members and to retain them, using at your discretion the power given you by the Constitution to declare measures to be of paramount importance. You will give the Council and the public to understand that this step is taken by my express instructions. It is my hope that the Elected Members will recognise that my decision is based on public grounds, and has become inevitable, that they will loyally accept it, and co-operate with me and with you for the good of the Colony." —Great Britain, *Parliamentary publications* (*Papers by Command: Jamaica*, 1899, 1900).

1907.—**Destruction of Kingston by earthquake and fire.**—"On Monday afternoon, the 14th January, 1907, at about 3.30 P.M., the city of Kingston and its suburbs was almost entirely destroyed by heavy earthquake shocks. . . . [The shocks] are variously estimated to have lasted from ten to thirty seconds, the latter estimate being the general opinion. . . . During this period an enormous amount of damage was done to life and property. Large numbers of buildings at once collapsed. . . . Fires broke out in several places in the commercial portion of the town. . . . Unfortunately, the Central Fire Station was destroyed by earthquake, so the fire engine was not available. . . . [The fire] spread with terrible rapidity, and all efforts were directed towards isolating the burning area. . . . Many injured persons, buried in the falling *débris*, were burnt to death. Meanwhile, vast numbers of the inhabitants were flying northwards to the

race course and open spaces outside the town, where they spent the night—small earthquake shocks being felt at frequent intervals during that time. It may be said that the whole of Kingston and its suburbs are either destroyed or in ruins."—*Report by Major Chown, R.M.L.I., of H.M.S. "Indefatigable," dated Kingston, Jan. 29, 1907.*—Relief to the stricken island came so swiftly and profusely from all parts of America, Europe, and almost every part of the world, that Governor Swettenham was able to telegraph on the 23d of January: "Money and provisions more than ample for relief. Except for rebuilding no funds needed." Three ships (*Indiana, Missouri* and *Whipple*) of the United States Navy, despatched by Admiral Evans from a Cuban port on the instant of receiving news of the disaster, reached Jamaica on the 17th and gave assistance in clearing the ruins, besides rendering hospital service and furnishing food and medical supplies. For the general lifting of the community from its prostration, the British Government, in May, by vote of Parliament, made a free grant to it of £150,000, and a loan to the Colonial Government of £800,000 more.—*Correspondence relating to the earthquake at Kingston, Jamaica (Parliamentary Papers, Cd. 3560).*

1910-1920.—Relations with Canada.—Sugar trade.—Social movements.—Railways.—"In 1910 a Wireless Telegraph Station was established, and the Canadian West Indian Commission visited the island. Of late years trade reciprocal relationship, and even political union, with Canada had received increasing attention and has recently formed the subject of special enquiry. Much discussion has recently taken place with regard to the expansion of the sugar industry by means of central factories. Between 1839 and 1909, no less than 573 sugar estates went out of cultivation. It is hoped that the tide has now turned with good prospect of a steady increase. Various institutions have been formed for the improvement of the people. The Jamaica Imperial Association (1917) aims at economic, social, agricultural, and industrial advance. Citizen associations in various parishes aim at similar objects locally, while the Jamaica League is especially concerned with the welfare of native Jamaicans. The Jamaica Nurses' Union, the Mothers' Union, the Child Saving League and the Women's Social Service Club all testify to the increasing interest which women are taking in the social welfare of the community. Commissions have at times considered the condition of various diseases, vomiting sickness, yaws, pellagra, malaria, and hookworm, and last named of which is being taken in hand by the Rockefeller Institute. In 1913 a branch of the railway into upper Clarendon was opened. But since that date development has been retarded by a series of hurricanes which had a disastrous effect on crops; and in the autumn of 1918, Jamaica did not escape the world-felt effects of the Influenza."—F. Cundall, *Jamaica in 1920, p.* 39.

1914-1918.—Part in World War.—"On the outbreak of the war, Jamaica in common with the other West India Colonies rose to the occasion. Steps were taken to raise local forces and a gift of sugar to the value of £50,000 was voted, and such special laws were passed as circumstances appeared to demand. Individual members of the community went to join the army on their own account, even negroes going as stowaways; and when the fear of German raiders on the island having been minimized, England expressed a wish for troops from the West Indies, in April, 1915, Mr. William Wilson started a fund with a view of paying those who wished to join the British Army but had not the means; and the Legislature subsequently voted the necessary sum for their maintenance upon a war footing to the extent of £60,000 per annum for 40 years. The 8th of November, 1915, is a red letter day in the history of Jamaica. On that day the first contingent sailed to represent the colony in the cause of the Empire and Humanity. The other contingents left during the following year and these contingents to the number of about 10,000 troops, helped to form eleven battalions of the newly-raised British West Indies, which, after receiving training in English camps, did yeoman service as labour battalions, and materially aided in the fighting force which captured the Holy Land."—F. Cundall, *Jamaica in 1920, pp.* 39-40.

1919.—Franchise granted to women.—According to the law passed in 1919, the franchise is granted to every female who has attained the age of twenty-five years, is under no legal incapacity, is a British subject by birth or naturalization, has been a resident for a year and paid taxes to an amount not less than £2 during the specified period, and is literate.

Also in: W. Sekyll, *Jamaican song and story.*—H. G. de Lisser, *Twentieth century Jamaica.*—*Handbook of Jamaica (annual).*—F. Cundall, *Studies in Jamaica history.*—Idem, *Historic Jamaica.*—W. J. Gardner, *History of Jamaica.*—*J. Henderson, Jamaica.*—W. P. Livingstone, *Black Jamaica.*—B. Pullen-Barry, *Jamaica as it is.*

JAMAICA, Constitution of. See Jamaica: 1881-1895.

JAMBOREE, meeting of boy scouts. See Boy scouts: 1920.

JAMES, one of the apostles of Christ, son of Zebedee and brother of the Apostle John. See Christianity: A.D. 33-70.

JAMES, or Jaime, the Conqueror (1208-1276), king of Aragon, 1213-1276. Captured the Balearic isles, 1228-1232; and Valencia from the Moors, 1238. See Aragon; Cartagena: 711-1276; Spain: 1212-1238.

JAMES I (1566-1625), king of England, Scotland and Ireland, 1603-1625, son of Mary, queen of Scots. Became king of Scotland as James VI, 1567; succeeded to the English throne, 1603; presided over the Hampton Court conference, concluded peace with Spain, and appointed a commission to revise the English translation of the Bible, 1604; agreed to severe penal laws against the Catholics, and granted patents to the London and Plymouth colonizing companies, 1606; made a defensive alliance with the Protestant Union in Germany, 1611; arranged the marriage of his daughter to the Elector Palatine Frederick, 1613.—See also England: 1603, to 1625; Bible, English: 17th century; Netherlands: 1603-1619; Puritans: 1620-1660; Scotland: 1582; 1584; Virginia: 1622-1624.

James II (1633-1701), king of England, Scotland and Ireland, 1685-1688. Made lord high admiral, 1660; received a grant of New Netherlands, 1664; publicly joined the Catholic faith, 1672; forced to resign from the admiralty because of the Test Act, 1673; planned to restore Catholicism, and enlarged the standing army; made a public declaration of the liberty of conscience, 1687; the lords of England sent an invitation to William of Orange, 1688, to end James' Catholic tyranny which William accepted. James escaped to France and later attempted to regain the throne by an invasion from Ireland, where he was defeated, 1689. See England: 1669-1670; 1681-1683; 1685 (February); 1686; 1687; 1687-1688 (November-December); 1692; 1701-1702; America: Map of early colonial grants; Ireland: 1685-1688; 1689;

JACOBITES; LONDONDERRY: 1689; SAINT-GERMAINS: Jacobite court; SCOTLAND: 1681-1689.

James I (1394-1437), king of Scotland, 1406-1437. He repressed the great feudatories and kept peace with England and France. See SCOTLAND: 1400-1436; 1437.

James II (1430-1460), king of Scotland, 1437-1460, son of James I. He continued the policy of repression of the feudatories. See SCOTLAND: 1437-1460.

James III (1451-1488), king of Scotland, 1460-1488, son of James II. He favored men of inferior rank to the great houses, which provoked the latter to an uprising led by his son James, in which the king was defeated and killed. See SCOTLAND: 1482-1488.

James IV (1473-1513), king of Scotland, 1488-1513, son of James III. Led the rebels against his father and defeated him; his peaceful relations with England became strained during Henry VIII's reign; sought an offensive alliance with France, and invaded England in 1513, where he was killed.—See also SCOTLAND: 1502-1504.

James V (1512-1542), king of Scotland, 1513-1542, son of James IV. He assumed control of the government, 1528; his policy was the protection of the poor against the oppression of the rich; at war with England and suffered the loss of his army, 1542. See SCOTLAND: 1542.

James VI, king of Scotland. See JAMES I, king of England.

JAMES, Henry (1843-1916), American novelist. See AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1894-1895.

JAMES, William Henry (1776-1873), English pioneer locomotive experimenter. See AUTOMOBILES: 1780-1824.

JAMES ISLAND, Battle on. See U. S. A.: 1863 (July: South Carolina).

JAMESON, Sir Leander Starr (1853-1917), British physician and administrator. Appointed administrator of Rhodesia, 1891; reorganized an expedition against Matabele, 1893; invaded the Transvaal, but was forced to surrender to the Boers, December, 1895; fought against the Boers, 1899-1900; elected to the Cape Legislative Assembly for Kimberley, 1900; premier, 1904-1908; member of the Cape Parliament, 1910-1912.

Administration of Rhodesia. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1894-1895.

Raid into the Transvaal.—Investigations.—Indemnity claimed by South African republic. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1895-1896; 1896 (January); 1896 (July); 1897 (February); 1897 (February-July).

Premier of Cape Colony.—Continuance of policy of Cecil Rhodes.—In movement for South African union.—Active in Botha ministry. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1902-1904; 1908-1909; 1910-1913.

At imperial conference of 1907. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1907.

ALSO IN: I. Colvin, *Life of Jameson.*

JAMESTOWN, first permanent settlement of the English in the United States, located in Virginia, about thirty-two miles above the mouth of the James river.

1607-1609.—Founding of colony.—Growth.—New charter granted. See VIRGINIA: 1606-1607; 1607-1610; 1609-1616.

1610-1677.—Lord Delaware appointed president.—John Smith superseded.—Under rule of Argall and Yeardley.—Controlled alternately by Bacon and Governor Berkeley. See VIRGINIA: 1609-1616; 1617-1619; 1660-1677.

JAMESTOWN TERCENTENNIAL EXPOSITION.—The three hundredth anniversary of the first permanent English settlement in America was celebrated on the site of the settlement, at Jamestown, Virginia, by an Exposition which was opened by President Roosevelt on the 26th of April, 1907. The advantages of the place for naval display tempted Congress to give that character, in the main, to so much of the celebration as was organized under national auspices that other features were quite eclipsed. But the show, from many nations, of battle ships and the paraphernalia of naval war was superb.

JAMMU, or Jamu, native state in India. See KASHMIR.

JAMNIA, Battle of (B.C. 164), defeat by Gorgias, the Syrian general, of part of the army of Judas Maccabæus which he left under his generals Joseph and Azarius.—Josephus, *Antiquities of the Jews, bk. 12, ch. 8.*

JAMNIA, School of.—A famous school of Jewish theology, established by Jochanan, who escaped from Jerusalem during the siege by Titus.—H. Graetz, *History of the Jews, v. 2, p. 327.*

JAN JORISZ. See JORIS, DAVID.

JANICULUM, hill in Rome. See LATIUM; VATICAN: Ancient Leonine city.

JANISSARIES, Turkish military force. The force at first consisted wholly of the children of Christian parents, forcibly taken by the Turkish government and specially trained for this service. For many years it was the bulwark of the Ottoman empire.—See also TURKEY: 1326-1359; 1789-1812; 1826; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 42.

JANKOWITZ, Battle of (1645). See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

JANNINA, or Iannina, town of Epirus, once part of Albania and under Turkish rule; now belonging to Greece. It has had a long and troubled history. From 1788 until 1822 it was the seat of the famous Ali Pasha who was called the "Lion of Janina." See ALI PASHA; BALKAN STATES: Map.

1913.—Capture by Greeks. See BALKAN STATES: 1912-1913; TURKEY: 1912-1913.

JANSEN, Cornelius (1585-1638), bishop of Ypres and founder of religious sect bearing his name. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: France: Jansenist schools; PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1602-1700.

JANSENISTS, followers of the doctrine of Jansen. See PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1602-1700; 1702-1715; EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: France: Jansenist schools; FRANCE: 1756-1759; 1789: Survey of France on the eve of Revolution: Résumé of causes; FRENCH LITERATURE: 1608-1715; PAVIA: 1774-1790.

JANUARY, Edict of (1562). See FRANCE: 1560-1563.

JANUS, Temple of. See TEMPLE OF JANUS.

JAPAN

Name.—Land and its characteristics.—"The Japanese call their country Nihon (in another form, Nippon) or *Dai Nippon,* which means 'Great Japan,' the land of the Rising Sun. The chief islands which constitute Japan proper are Honshu, the central and largest (often erroneously called Nippon), Shikoku, Kyushu, and Yezo, separated from each other by narrow straits. The most important islands in close proximity to them are Sado, Tsushima, Oki, and Iki, in the Sea of Japan; the Goto group, and Amakusa, in the Tunghai, Awaji, in the Inland Sea; Tanegashima, and Yakunoshima, in the Pacific. The Japanese possessions also include the Luchu group (*Ryukyu*), lying to the south-west of Kyushu; Formosa (*Taiwan*), and the Pescadores (*Ho-ko-to*), ceded to Japan after the war with China in 1894-5; the southern half of Sakhalin acquired as a result of the war with Russia in 1905; the Kuriles (*Chishima*), extending in a north-westerly direction from Yezo to Kamchatka, and a vast number of small islands, no less than 487 in all being considered worthy of administrative recognition. The Bonin Islands (*Ogasawara-jima*), a small and unimportant group, lying far off in the southern seas in about 24° N. and 140° E., are also ruled by the Japanese. [In all, Japan holds over 3,000 islands, with a total area of 173,786 square miles. Of these, however, only 600 are inhabited.] The main islands stretch along the east coast of the continent of Asia in the form of a crescent, the northern horn of which turns in towards Siberia, and the southern towards Korea. Between the two flows the Sea of Japan. [The island empire stretches over thirty degrees of latitude for a distance of 2,500 miles. Under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, Japan was given a mandate over the Pacific islands, north of the equator, which before the war had been in the possession of Germany.] The eastern shores of the archipelago are washed by the waters of the North Pacific Ocean, from whose immense depths rise range upon range of imposing volcanic cones. But the islands are not solely of volcanic origin. Many of the higher formations are giant masses of granite overlaid with igneous rocks. Earthquakes, seismic-waves, and an excessively humid climate have contributed, in no small degree, towards giving Japan its characteristic physical features. . . . [Many of the bays and harbours are] capable of sheltering the largest ships. Almost all [the mountain ranges] are luxuriantly wooded, and the numberless valleys winding amongst them are cultivated to the utmost limit. . . . The chief mountain peaks comprise the famous and beautiful Fuji-san (12,400 feet), . . . the Hida-Echu range, with Tateyama, Yariga-take, Ontake, and others, all about 10,000 feet above sea-level. . . . The active volcano of Asama-yama, in the province of Shinshu, attains a height of 8,280 feet. . . . [Kyushu] possesses two notable active volcanoes, Asosan (5,630 feet), rising from the bed of an ancient crater, said to have the largest circumference of any in the world, and Kirishima-yama (5,530 feet). . . . Fully three-fourths of the area of Japan are mountainous, and less than 16 per cent. under cultivation.

"The rivers mostly partake of the character of torrents. They cut their way impetuously through deep rocky gorges and wooded ravines until they reach the lower land, where, owing to the detritus carried down from the heights, their beds often attain a width of several miles. They are rarely navigable for any but the shallowest craft, being for the greater part of the year little more than fordable streams. It is only in late summer, after the close of a period of drought, that they assume dangerous proportions, the torrential rains causing them to rise from ten to fifteen feet above their normal height, and spread destruction for many miles around. . . . Japan, at one extreme, lies within the tropics, and at the other, . . . experiences the rigours of arctic cold. The climate of the chief islands is considerably influenced by their proximity to the mainland of Asia and to the *Kuroshiwo,* an ocean current like the Gulf Stream, which carries the heated waters of the equatorial seas along the east coast of the archipelago, while a branch of the same, entering the Sea of Japan through the Strait of Korea, strikes the north-west coast of the main island. . . . Snow falls in every portion of the main islands, but, except on the west coast and the mountains, does not lie for any length of time. Yezo alone remains snow-bound for several months, and even the sea freezes on a part of its coast. The hottest period is usually from the middle of July to the middle of September."—W. B. Mason, *Japan* (*Mill's international geography, pp.* 545-547).—The mountainous character of the islands has had an important effect upon the history of the people. The mountains divide the islands into small valleys and plains, many of them difficult of access to each other, which in early days made progress of ideas from one section of the country to another very slow. This isolation of small sections created a tendency to political division and aided the growth of feudal institutions. But the mountains have had another and gentler influence. The mountain forests, in some sections, have always been carefully conserved, and the beauty of the scenery, varied by mountains, forests, valleys, plains and rivers have fixed a love of beauty in the Japanese mind. (See also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Japan: Ancient.) The insular position of Japan has had much to do with her individuality and continuity of development. Although the islands are sufficiently close to the mainland not to prevent communication with it by primitive peoples, they are sufficiently far away to discourage attempts at invasion. It is true that in prehistoric times some at least of the islands were subjected to incursions from the mainland, probably from Siberia, Central Asia, China, Korea and the Malay peninsula. But the Asiatic trend of emigration was westward. There were no early seafarers with the enterprise of the European Northmen to be tempted to cross the narrow seas. It was not until the Middle Ages that an attempt was made by a hostile force to gain a foothold on the islands. Even then only two powers tried seriously to carry out a successful invasion: the Tois, a forgotten tribe from the mainland, and the Mongols, who, in the reign of Kublai Khan, in the thirteenth century, landed a large force on the island of Kyushu, but were defeated. Thus the Japanese were left to work out their internal organization without disruption by outside forces, and there was nothing to prevent them from developing their own peculiar organization, and a national homogeneity, which maifested itself at an early date. But while this insularity permitted the growth of distinct types both of people and government, the nearness of the islands to the mainland forbade complete immunity from outside influences. Korea, in particular, exercised an influence in religion and politics which it is difficult to esti-

mate. It is true that the ideas which were imported from Korea came originally from China and India, but before reaching Japan, they had been filtered through the Korean consciousness, and received some of their peculiar cast from the Korean mind. The early culture of Japan then was strongly impregnated by a tinge of Korean thought, which was, however, not sufficiently strong to efface the originality of the Japanese mind. Even at so early a stage in evolution as the seventh century, the nation showed itself as avid of new ideas, and as well able to assimilate them as in the nineteenth century, when it was introduced to the complexities of Western culture, without losing the individuality impressed by the insular character of its territory. This insular character has made the Japanese people a seafaring folk. Moreover, the placid waters of the Inland sea, the number of safe bays and harbors and the proximity of the main islands to one another, promoted a daring habit of life at sea which has stood them in good stead in modern times, and has prompted them to attempt the domination of the commerce of eastern Asia, which their geographical position seems to put within their easy reach.

Also in: J. D'Autremer, *Japanese empire and its economic conditions, pp.* 2-32.—W. Dickson, *Japan, pp.* 479-482.—Department of Agriculture and Commerce, Japan, *Japan in the beginning of the twentieth century, pp.* 12-26.—E. B. Mitford, *Japan's inheritance, pp.* 13-37.—G. A. Ballard, *Influence of the sea on political history of Japan.*—K. S. Latourette, *Development of Japan, pp.* 1-8.

Language of the country.—"The Japanese language is of the Turanian or Oural-Altaic stock, possessing the structural characteristics of all surviving languages that owe their origin to that family—Turkish, Finnish, Tunguisic and Korean. It has the same system of agglutination, under which the roots of words undergo no change and the inflexions of other languages are replaced by particles, affixed to the roots and blended with them only so far as will satisfy the requirements of euphony. . . . The original vocabulary of Japan, that of her language before she began to feel the influence of China, was entirely her own and presents no affinities to that of any other country in the world save Korea, and in this case the affinities are so slight that the utmost ingenuity of philologists, both English and Japanese, has been required to trace them. Interpreters are not mentioned as having been employed in such communications as took place between the two people in the earliest period of the mythological history of Japan, but when authentic history began, interpreters were found necessary, and there is frequent mention in the Nihongi—the ancient Chronicles of Japan—both of interpreters and of Japanese studying Korean. If, therefore, the vocabularies of both were akin at some very remote period, they soon wandered off in different directions and became so distinct that their affinities are no longer recognisable. . . . Unfortunately, pure Japanese is no longer spoken. The nearest approach to it is in the language used by women, whose speech, at the present day, falls infinitely softer on the ear than that of men. . . . The cause of the decadence of the pure language is the large introduction into it of the monosyllabic vocables of China, which began with the introduction of Chinese civilisation in the sixth and seventh centuries, has continued ever since, and in the present generation has been enormously intensified by the necessity of finding equivalents for the infinite number of new subjects, both abstract and concrete, which Western civilisation has introduced to the knowledge of the people. The language spoken by educated men in Japan is, it may be safely said, now more Chinese than Japanese, and it has in consequence lost a great measure of its old softness. It is not to be imagined that, when we speak of the Chinese portion of the Japanese vocabulary, the words are pronounced as they are in China. As used by a Japanese, they would be as unintelligible to a modern Chinaman as the whole conversation of two Japanese gentlemen, discussing current affairs at the present day, would be to one of their countrymen who died forty or fifty years ago, were he to come to earth again. When the Japanese began to borrow Chinese, they at first adopted the pronunciation of the province of Go, the province which contained Nankin, the southern capital, to which the earliest students from Japan had recourse for their studies. Later on the pronunciation of the North of China was adopted as the truer standard, and it, known as the Kan-on, gradually but never entirely replaced the Go-on. Both are in use in the present day, the same word, according to its context, being pronounced sometimes in one, sometimes in the other way. In both, the Japanese no doubt did their best to acquire the correct Chinese pronunciation but the nearest approach they could make to it was not more successful than are their attempts at the present day to utter English words, which, on the tongues of those who do not speak English, often become nearly unrecognisable. . . . Other languages are written as they are spoken, but it is not so in Japan, where the written differs so essentially from the spoken that the two almost form two separate languages. . . . Originally the Japanese had . . . [no script] of their own, and the art was unknown to them till they acquired it from China in the fifth century. Then, China having no alphabet, they had perforce to adopt the Chinese system of ideographs by which ideas and objects are expressed in pictures or hieroglyphs instead of letters. According to this system, every word is expressed in writing by a picture, which originally was intended to represent the object signified though its form gradually changed, or by a combination of pictures. The phonetic use of the characters was simplified by the invention in the eighth century of the Japanese syllabaries. The sounds of the language were analysed into forty-seven syllables, and these syllables were symbolised by curtailed forms of the Chinese characters whose pronunciation corresponded most closely with the sounds. These syllabaries are called the Kana, and there are two forms of it: The Katakana and the Hiragana (*k* becomes *g* in composition). In the first, there is only one very abbreviated symbol for each syllable and it is therefore easy to acquire. In the second, which is most commonly used, there are many widely differing forms of each, any one of which may be used at the writer's own will, and as their whole number exceeds three hundred, the task of mastering them is far from simple. All writing and printing are either in Chinese characters alone or in a mixture of them with the two Kana. The Kana are used for grammatical inflexions, and the Hiragana form is also printed alongside the characters in both popular books and newspaper paragraphs to elucidate their meaning to readers whose knowledge of them is not extensive. The least number of characters with which an efficient scholar must be thoroughly familiar is, according to Professor Chamberlain, 4,000, all of them in all their various forms, with all their equally varied readings and meanings, being accurately committed to memory. We doubt if any European scholar, except the very greatest of them, such as Professor Chamberlain himself, Satow and Aston, has ever succeeded in acquiring a complete mastery

of this number, the ability to recognise them at once in all their many forms, or to write them from memory in logical sequence, but a knowledge of from one to two thousand is necessary to enable a student to read either books or newspapers in which most difficult characters are liberally interpreted by Kana interpolations or to write a very simple letter on non-technical subjects, and the difficulty of learning to read or write Japanese may be estimated from the fact that at least six or seven years are exclusively devoted in schools to the teaching of reading and writing to the Japanese themselves."—J. H. Longford, *Japan of the Japanese, pp.* 128-136.

Inhabitants and their origins. — Ainus, or Ainos, and Japanese.—Eta.—"In the present population of Japan there are two distinct races, the Ainos and the Japanese. Of the former there is only a small number now remaining in the island of Yezo. The Ainos are probably the original race, who in early times inhabited the Main island down to the Hakone pass and possibly farther to the south. From Japanese history we learn that the military forces of the empire were constantly employed to suppress the disturbances caused by the barbarous people of the north. The hairy people now known as Ainos are almost certainly referred to. The origin of the term Aino is unknown. By the Japanese it is believed to be derived from *inu,* meaning a dog, and to have been bestowed on them in contempt. The name is not used by the Ainos themselves. In common with the inhabitants of the Kurile islands and the Japanese portion of Saghalien they call themselves Yezo. The number of Ainos in the island of Yezo is given in 1880, . . . as 16,637; and this number is believed to be gradually decreasing. Travellers who have visited them unite in testifying to their great amiability and docility. Physically they are a sturdy and well developed race. The characteristic which has been noticed in them more than any other is the abundant growth of hair. The men have a heavy and bushy head of hair and a full beard which is allowed to grow down to their chests. Other parts of the body are also covered with a growth which far surpasses that of the ordinary races. In the matter of food, clothing, houses and implements, they remain in the most primitive condition. Turning now to the Japanese race which extends from the Kurile islands on the north to the Ryukyu islands on the south, we see at once that it is a mixed race containing widely different elements. Even after the many centuries during which the amalgamation has been going on, we recognize still the varying types to which the individuals tend. In the south more than in the north, and more among the ruling classes than in the laboring classes there are specimens of a delicate, refined appearance, face oval, eyes oblique, nose slightly Roman, and frame delicate but well proportioned. Then there is another type which has been recognized by all observers. It is found more in the north than the south and is much more common among the laboring population than among the higher classes. The face is broad and the cheek bones prominent. The nose is flat and the eyes are horizontal. The frame is robust and muscular, but not so well proportioned and regular as in the former type. These two types with many intervening links are found everywhere. . . . The twofold character of the Japanese race as it is seen at present can best be explained by two extensive migrations from the continent. The first of these migrations probably took place from Korea, whence they landed on the Main island in the province of Izumo. This will account for the mythological legends which in the early Japanese accounts cluster to so great an extent around Izumo. It will also explain why it was that when Jimmu Tenno came on his expedition from the island of Kyushu, he found on the Main island inhabitants who in all essential particulars resembled his own forces, with whom he formed alliances. This first migration seems to have belonged to a rougher and more barbarous tribe of the Mongolian race, and has given rise to the more robust and muscular element now found among the people. The second migration may have come across by the same route and landed on the island of Kyushu. They may have marched across the island or skirted around its southern cape and spread themselves out in the province of Hyuga, where in the Japanese accounts we first find them. This migration probably occurred long after the first, and came evidently from a more cultured tribe of the great Mongolian race. That they came from the same race is evident from their understanding the same language, and having habits and methods of government which were not a surprise to the new-comers, and in which they readily co-operated. On the contrary, the ruder tribes [of Ainus] at the north of the Main island were spoken of as Yemishi,—that is, barbarians, and recognized from the first as different and inferior."—D. Murray, *Japan, pp.* 20-23, 27-30.

Also in: K. Hara, *Introduction to the history of Japan, pp.* 21-49.

"In addition to the two distinct races which inhabit the islands of Japan, there is a group of [over a million] outcast people [who] . . . though essentially Japanese, live a miserable existence, worse than that of the ordinary poor and even lower than the criminal. They are the *eta*—the pariah, the butchers, tanners, and scavengers. . . . *Eta* villages are not hard to locate. Generally they are somewhat on the outskirts of the main town or city, but often in modern Japanese cities they will be found surrounded by thickly crowded districts. . . . In 1871, after centuries of weary degradation, the *eta* were officially liberated. . . . [But] racial discrimination has not been eliminated by mere edict. . . . There are several divisions of this low class of people. . . . The name represents no political or religious class, but a social prejudice deeply rooted in the Japanese consciousness. . . . Even some of the most thorough-searching authorities on Japanese history confess they are unable definitely to trace the origin of the *eta*. . . . James Murdoch, the historian, gives it as his opinion that the absence of Aino characteristics among the present *eta* is due to the gradual accession of degraded Japanese into their ranks. *Eta* cannot be recognized apart from the general type of Japanese. Therefore, for all practical purposes, all studies of *eta* must be made on the assumption that they are Japanese. Thousands of the Yamato (pure Japanese) have filtered down into that stagnant group, thus leaving the problem Japanese, and not alien." —S. Greenbie, *Japan, real and imaginary, pp.* 316, 323.

Military organization. — Samurai. — Feudal armies.—Beginning of the Shogunate.—Liability to service.—Professional soldiers.—Conscription.—Military administration and education.—Modern army. See Military organization: 19: Japan; 35.

Agriculture.—"During twenty-five centuries the chief industry of Japan has been agriculture, and . . . [the great majority] of the population [today] is engaged in farming. Owing to religious prejudices, which have led the people to live largely upon vegetable diet, there has been little or no ac-

cumulation of live stock, so that the tiller of the soil, relieved of the need of pasturage, has been able to obtain a living from the product of an exceedingly small portion of land, one hectare (two and a half acres) per family being the average holding. The system of tillage, although for the most part primitive, is extremely thorough, two and even three crops per annum being raised on one piece of land, where climatic conditions permit. The men, when not engaged in actual farm work, betake themselves to such other occupations as offer temporary employment, the women and children, meantime, concerning themselves with such useful labour as the cultivation of silkworms, reeling silk, etc. Primitive methods, however, have succeeded in the past only because of the industry and sobriety of the people as a whole, and because of the lack of foreign competition; but with the desire to keep abreast of Western farmers, or possibly to lead, the necessity of modern scientific agricultural knowledge has been recognized by the Imperial Government, and where put to practical test has resulted in increased production per acre. To offset this, there is a tendency of the rural populations to drift into the cities, and, quite as serious, a decided decrease in the market for such staple productions as cotton, sugar, and tea, in which commodities, in spite of the assistance and supervision of a paternal Government, foreign competition is making considerable inroads. . . . The work of experimental farming is technically divided into three branches—viz., original research, practical application, and model farming. For the actual working of these three general divisions, the ideal of the Government was to have original research undertaken by the State; practical application of knowledge published by State; experts to be dealt with by localities, so that each might be governed by the conditions of its own climate, soil, etc., and the model farming to be under the control of the cities and corporations. This plan, however, was of necessity somewhat disregarded, because of local ignorance and prejudice, and because of lack of facilities in rural communities for corporate farming, so that the State farms have been forced, to a great extent, to devote most of their time to the work of practical application and model farming, to the neglect of theoretical investigation and original research. With the growth of education this drawback is coming to be less and less of a factor, and the Head Farm and its branches have begun to revert to the original plan. Since 1899 the Head Farm has been divided into six departments—namely, seed and saplings, agricultural chemistry, entomology, vegetable physiology, and general affairs. Later were added the two departments of tobacco and horticulture, while the compilation of reports has been brought to a high state of efficiency. Apart from State farms, there are local experimental farms, maintained at local expense, and chiefly devoted to practical application of model farming. Of these, there are at present some thirty-seven scattered throughout the country, which, added to thirty-eight State farms, makes a total of seventy-five centres of agricultural experiment and instruction, independent of the farms maintained by subprefectural districts, where the work is simpler, and of lesser experimental farms established by towns or villages, or by organizations of farmers' sons. Rice being the staple product, and requiring a great amount of moisture, the art of irrigation has been much studied. The consumption of fruit in Japan has always been limited, the cause being that the ordinary foodstuffs of the masses contain such a proportion of water as to leave no desire for fruit. However that may be, the fact is that fruit-growing is on the increase, large quantities now being exported to Siberia, and, rather oddly, to that land of fruit, America. The variety is extensive, including the orange family, which embraces mandarins, lemons, prunellos, etc., and apples, pears, cherries, bananas, pine-apples, etc."—A. Stead, *Japan by the Japanese, pp.* 413-415.—"Intensive Cultivation . . . is the most characteristic feature of Japanese agriculture. The area of Japan proper, 142,000 square miles, is less than one-twentieth of the area of the United States, 3,000,000 square miles, while her population . . . [per square mile] is tenfold that of the United States, that is to say 360 as against 33 respectively. Till Japan acquired the island of Formosa and a part of Saghalien, and annexed Korea she had no outlet for her large and growing population, and had to resort to intensive cultivation. Cultivation is chiefly done by human labor, with rude and simple implement, though the farmer is sometimes helped by a horse or an ox but seldom by a team of animals, except in Hokkaido where American implements are used. With such an intensive system of land cultivation, the Japanese farming families that number about 5½ millions cultivate roughly 6 million *cho* or 15 million acres, a little under 3 acres per family. The total population of Japan proper being returned at 55 million souls, it means that one acre has to feed a little under four persons. Even in Hokkaido the average area per family is only 5½ acres. . . . It is to the lasting credit of Japan that the present system of private holding of land was effected amidst perfect peace in 1872 when the feudal system of government was replaced by the Imperial régime. Till then feudal lords and their vassals nominally owned land in their respective fiefs. Only they let the land to farmers as their tenants. The feudal land-owners were all induced that year to return their fiefs to the Imperial master who in turn granted the farms to the respective tenants. It was an agrarian revolution that was effected without any particular trouble without any bloodshed. . . . The government then instituted a new land survey by which the area of each holding was determined, and issued to each holder a title-deed. . . . Silk is Japan's staple commodity on export list, supplying about 40% as against 45 of China in the total consumption of the world, and about 60% of that in U.S.A. In the farmers' economy sericulture plays almost as important a part as rice cultivation, and indeed were it not for the profit derived from this subsidiary occupation, Japanese farmers of middle and lower grade would hardly be able to maintain themselves. By rearing the worms in the three seasons of spring, summer and autumn, farmers can at least double the amount obtained from ordinary farming alone. . . . Tea, in contrast to other leading industries, has curiously remained stationary, both in gross output and volume of export. The latter, principally in America, which takes over 80% of Japanese export teas, has even declined in the presence of formidable rivals, i.e., Ceylon, India and Java teas and Brazilian coffee."—*Japan Year Book,* 1921-1922, *pp.* 412-413, 428, 431.—See also EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Japan.

National government. See JAPAN, CONSTITUTION OF.

Local government.—"Japan proper is divided into 46 administrative districts, or prefectures. Three of them are called *fu,* and the rest, *ken.* . . . These 46 prefectures are subdivided in 636 smaller administrative districts . . . and these in turn are subdivided into villages . . . or *machi.* The chief administrator of a *fu* or *ken* is called *chiji* or prefectural governor, and that of a *gun, guncho* or

county magistrate. All the prefectural governors and the county magistrates are appointed by the Minister of the Interior, so that they are essentially bureaucrats pure and simple, whereas, the mayor of a city or the headman of a town or village is elected by indirect popular votes usually for the term of four years. Thus when we say local government, the term includes all these different administrative organs, the chief executive of which are prefectural governor, county-magistrate, mayor, and headman. . . . Each prefecture has its own prefectural assembly, which is composed of at least 30 members elected by popular votes. . . . The term of office is four years. The assembly is called once a year by the prefectural governor to deliberate and decide the annual budget of the prefecture, and to give its consent to the general policies of the governor. . . . It is in Japan the oldest representative institution established after the Western model. It was originally established in 1878 with a view to prepare the people for a constitutional system of Government, which was then expected to be established in the near future. However the original law by which a prefectural assembly was first established, has been subjected to revision many times, the last revision made was in 1921. . . . The Governor himself is not an elected official, while the assembly is purely an advisory body having no initiative in all matters of the prefecture. . . . A city with population of over 30,000 has a municipal government. The mayor of a municipal city is elected by its city-council, which is composed of at least 30 members elected by the qualified voters. Hence a city-government in Japan is in a sense a self-government, though the power of the mayor and city-council is still very much limited. A municipality can own and control all electric, gas, and water plants, and sewer systems; and it manages all matters concerning the primary education of its citizens, and its sanitary affairs. Within the limit defined by law, a municipality can make its own regulations and can tax its citizens. It can also make contract of loans. But all the power the mayor and the city-council of a city can exercise, is under the strict supervision of the central as well as the prefectural government. No municipality in Japan is given the power to control the police forces within its city-limit, and even in Tokyo the police forces are controlled by the Home Office. . . . The town and the village have also their own self-government, somewhat similar in nature to the municipal government, but on a smaller scale. They have their own headmen elected by indirect popular vote, i.e. a headman elected by the town council in the case of a town, and by the village council in the case of a village."—*Japan Year Book,* 1921-1922, *pp.* 82-83.

Religions: Shintoism. — Buddhism. — Confucianism. — Zen sect.—Bushido.—Christianity.—"*Shinto* is a system in which the deification and worship of heroes, emperors, family ancestors, and forces of nature play an important part. It has no dogmas, no sacred books, no moral code, 'no philosophy, no code of ethics, no metaphysics'; it sums up its theory of human duty in the following injunction: 'Follow your natural impulses and obey the laws of the State.' It requires of its adherents nothing except worship at certain temples or shrines on stated days. A 'pure Shinto' temple is an exceedingly plain affair, in front of which, at a little distance, is invariably set a *torii,* or arch. Without idols, the temple contains, as emblems of Shinto, strips of paper hanging from a wand, together with a mirror. The form of ordinary worship is simple: it consists of washing the face, or hands, or both, with holy water; of ringing a bell, or clapping the hands, to call the god's attention; of casting in a coin as an offering; of standing with clasped hands during a short prayer, and of making a farewell bow. This ceremony is sufficient to 'cover a multitude of sins'! At the regular festivals there are special and elaborate services, at which the priests (often laymen) officiate. Pilgrimages to holy spots, usually 'high places,' are important in Shinto. . . . It has just been intimated that the word 'religion' is not in all points applicable to Shinto. . . . Dr. Nitobe says, in his book entitled 'Bushido': 'The tenets of Shintoism cover the two predominating features of the emotional life of our race—patriotism and loyaltv.' Its services are very simple, and consist of the presentation of offerings and the recital of formal addresses, which are partly praises and partly prayers. In one ritual, that of purification, it is true that there may be seen signs of moral instruction; but this is now a mere formal ceremony, performed, perhaps, only twice a year in some, not all, of the principal Shinto shrines. Certainly, in the sense that Christianity, with its creeds, whether simple or complex, its moral doctrines, its spiritual teachings, its outlook into the future life, its restraining and uplifting influence upon the individual and society, is called a religion, Shinto has no right to that appellation [nor is it officially recognized as a religion]. But as a system of national as well as of individual worship, including prayers to the deified ancestors or national heroes or to the personified and deified powers of nature, Shinto is properly a religion. And there can be no doubt that, in the eyes of the great mass of the people, it has all the force of religion. One needs to stand but a few minutes in front of a Shinto shrine to observe that the mode of worship is practically the same as that before a Buddhist temple. This does not refer to the regular public ceremonies at stated times, but to the brief ordinary visits of the common people to the shrines and temples as they may be passing by. In their hearts there is apparently as much 'worship' and 'reverence' in one case as in the other. And this superstitious attitude of the people toward Shinto has been utilized on more than one occasion in political measures, so that Shinto has often been nothing but a political engine 'In its lower forms it is blind obedience to governmental and priestly dictates.' It has thus been unfairly used as a test of so-called patriotism, a kind of ecclesiastical patriotism, founded on mythology and superstition. Thus Shinto has been, as Sir Ernest Satow called it, 'in a certain sense, a state religion, since its temples are maintained out of the imperial and local revenues, and the attendance of the principal officials is required by court etiquette at certain annual festivals which are celebrated at the palace.' Similarly, local officials are required to be present and 'worship' on certain occasions at local shrines. As Dr. Griffis has remarked, 'To those Japanese whose first idea of duty is loyalty to the Emperor, Shinto thus becomes a system of patriotism exalted to the rank of a religion.' "—E. W. Clement, *Handbook of modern Japan, pp.* 237-241.—"*Buddhism,* or the 'Way of the Buddhas,' was introduced into Japan by way of Korea during the middle of the sixth century, when it effected that wonderful transformation of Japanese art and civilization which may be compared with the recent revolution wrought by the introduction of Western scientific knowledge and machinery during the Meiji era of enlightenment. The Buddhism which entered Japan was that of the Greater Vehicle from northern India and China as distinguished from the Lesser Vehicle of Ceylon

and Southern India. In its long historical development of over a thousand years in India and China, Buddhism had undergone a tremendous transformation, having gathered unto itself many new doctrines and strange deities. It had, in fact, expanded into a system which was, in many respects, diametrically opposed to the teachings of Gautama, the founder of Buddhism. [For the essentials of the Buddhist doctrine, see Buddhism: Buddha's last discourse, to Nirvana.] . . . The new religion made rapid progress soon after its introduction into Japan. It brought with it the arts, handicrafts and vastly superior civilization of China. It built magnificent temples, introduced medicine, created dramatic poetry, imported an army of artists and skilled workmen of all sorts, and so lifted the hitherto crude and semi-barbarous Japanese to a much higher stage of culture than they had ever dreamed of. By the year 621 many temples had already been built through the work of missionaries encouraged by the regent Shotuku. In 710 was founded the great monastery at Nara. In 754 the reigning Mikado and the Court were converted. But there still remained the conversion of the great masses of the common people who clung to their native Shinto cult. This was accomplished by the priestly craft of the brilliant and learned monk Kobo Daishi [see below: 645-833], who also invented the Japanese *kana* or phonetic syllabary of forty-seven letters. Kobo obtained from the great goddess at Ise a revelation to the effect that all Shinto deities or *kami* are incarnations of Buddha. There was thus introduced into Japan early in the ninth century that form of Shinto or Mixed Buddhism known as *Riyobu,* which may be said to be the popular religion of Japan down to the present day. Except in a few places Shinto, as a religion, almost disappeared, and for almost a thousand years was little more than a mere mythology or 'the shadow of a mythology.' Yet its soul or spirit survived, and it is difficult to say whether in the fusion process Buddhism was Shintoized or Shinto Buddhaized. The average Japanese appears to have given this matter no consideration, for he continues to lead a double religious life without thought or fear of consequences. . . . On the whole, it may be said that Japanese Buddhism, though considerably weakened by its contact with modern science and Christianity, is by no means moribund or hopelessly debased, as seems to be the case in China. In its purer or mixed forms, it is still the predominant religion of the middle and lower classes, and the Shin Sect in particular is showing signs of increasing regeneration and activity. For some years Buddhist priests have taken an active interest in education and social reforms, more especially in charity and prison reform. Vast sums have been collected for temple building, though it might be supposed that the publicity given to the Hangwanji temple scandal of 1914 would tend to discourage such contributions. There have also been recent attempts to revive Buddhistic propaganda in Thibet, Central Asia and China. Buddhistic services are conducted in the army, at factories and among the poor; while associations in imitation of such organizations as the Y.M.C.A. are being organized. Buddhists have also established Sunday-schools, temperance and reform societies, orphan asylums, deaf and dumb schools, hospitals, prisoners'-aid-societies and free lodging houses. They have also founded mission schools, even for women and young girls; they are educating many of their young priests in Western science and philosophy and at the universities; they are publishing and distributing many pamphlets and magazines, not to mention translations of their own sacred writings. We have been told that they have even appropriated the Sermon on the Mount and other Christian writings, as well as imitated such forms of Christian activities as sermons, revivals and so forth. We may yet see a form of Christianized Buddhism or Buddhaized Christianity. *Confucianism* appears to have entered Japan through Korea at about the end of the fourth century, though it does not seem to have exerted a great influence prior to the seventh century, when a Central University was established at Kyoto, together with schools in the provinces where Chinese text-books were used. During the seventh, eighth and ninth centuries there were direct and continuous communications with China, and numerous scholars wrote Chinese verse and prose or lectured on the Confucian classics; but, owing to the subsequent cessation of official relations, Chinese learning and civilization in Japan suffered a decline during and after the tenth century. However, these blessings were revived during the thirteenth century through the introduction, by priests of the Zen Sect and others, of the so-called Sung school on Confucian learning which arose in China during the twelfth century and exerted a powerful influence upon subsequent Chinese and Japanese cultural development. It was particularly that form of revived Chinese Confucianism known as the Shushi philosophy which attracted Iyeyasu, the founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate during the early part of the seventeenth century, who made it the authorized system of education. . . . It was during the period of the Tokugawa Shogunate (1603-1867) that Confucianism reached its highest point of development and exercised its most powerful influence in Japan. The principles of the various schools of the Sung learning, as taught by a long line of able scholars and educators, were generally accepted by the upper classes of Japanese society. Confucian education formed the character of the ruling and warrior classes of this period, the *Bushido* [way of the warrior] practised by the Samurai being essentially a modified form of Confucianism; and, though this ethical and religious system has suffered a great decline during the Meiji period of Enlightenment, the majority of the creators of New Japan were Confucianists. Consequently the soul or spirit of Confucianism still largely permeates the educational system of Japan, influences the outlook of the Japanese mind and controls the habits of the people, more especially within the domain of domestic or family life."—A. S. and S. W. Hershey, *Modern Japan, pp.* 88-93, 97-102.—For principles of Confucianism, see CONFUCIANISM.

"Of the sects which have exercised great influence on Japanese mentality, the following are specially to be mentioned: the Tendai, the Shingon, the Zen, the Hokke, and the Jodo, with its offspring the Ikko sect. . . . But among these means of salvation the practice advocated by the Zen sect is worthy of special consideration in this place, as it has exercised great influence in the formation of the Japanese spirit. *Zen* means 'abstraction,' standing for the Sanskrit Dhyana. It is one of the six means of arriving at Nirvana, namely, (1) charity; (2) morality; (3) patience; (4) energy; (5) contemplation; and (6) wisdom. This practice, which dates from a time anterior to Shakya [Gautauma, the Buddha, founder of Buddhism] himself, consists of an 'abstract contemplation,' intended to destroy all attachment to existence in thought and wish. . . . This sect, which drew its patrons from the ruling classes of Japan, was unanimously looked up to as best calculated to impart the secret power of perfect self-control

and undisturbable peace of mind. It must be remembered that the ultimate riddance in the Buddhist sense, the entrance into cold Nirvana, was not what our practical mind wanted to realise. It was the stoic indifference, enabling man to meet after a moment's thought, or almost instinctively, any hardships that human life might impose, that had brought about its otherwise strange popularity. . . . The self-control that enables us not to betray our inner feeling through a change in our expression, the measured steps with which we are taught to walk into the hideous jaws of death—in short, all those qualities which make a present Japanese of truly Japanese type look strange, if not queer, to your eyes, are in a most marked degree a product of that direct or indirect influence on our past mentality which was exercised by the Buddhist doctrine of Dhyana taught by the Zen priests. Another benefit which the Zen sect conferred on us is the healthy influence it exercised on our taste. The love of nature and the desire of purity that we had shown from the earliest days of our history, took, under the leading idea of the Contemplation sect, a new development, and began to show that serene dislike of loudness of form and colour."—Y. Okakura, *Japanese spirit, pp.* 76-77, 82-83.

Also in: K. Asakawa, *Some of the contributions of feudal Japan to the new Japan* (*Journal of Race Development, July*, 1912).

"*Bu-shi-do* means literally Military-Knight-Ways—the ways which fighting nobles should observe in their daily life as well as in their vocation; in a word, the 'Precepts of Knighthood,' the *noblesse oblige* of the warrior class. . . . It is not a written code; at best it consists of a few maxims handed down from mouth to mouth or coming from the pen of some well-known warrior or savant. More frequently it is a code unuttered and unwritten, possessing all the more the powerful sanction of veritable deed, and of a law written on the fleshly tablets of the heart. It was founded not on the creation of one brain, however able, or on the life of a single personage, however renowned. It was an organic growth of decades and centuries of military career. . . . The tripod that supported the framework of Bushido was said to be *Chi, Fin, Yu,* respectively Wisdom, Benevolence, and Courage. A samurai was essentially a man of action. . . . In manifold ways has Bushido filtered down from the social class where it originated, and acted as leaven among the masses, furnishing a moral standard for the whole people. The Precepts of Knighthood, begun at first as the glory of the élite, became in time an aspiration and inspiration to the nation at large; and though the populace could not attain the moral height of those loftier souls, yet *Yamato Damashii,* the Soul of Japan, ultimately came to express the *Volksgeist* of the Island Realm. If religion is no more than 'Morality touched by emotion,' as Matthew Arnold defines it, few ethical systems are better entitled to the rank of religion than Bushido."—I. Nitobe, *Bushido, pp.* 3-5, 85-86, 150-151.—"As for Bushido, so modern a thing is it that neither Kaempfer, Siebold, Satow, nor Rein—all men knowing their Japan by heart—ever once allude to it in their voluminous writings. The cause of their silence is not far to seek: Bushido was unknown until a decade or two ago! The very word appears in no dictionary, native or foreign, before the year 1900. Chivalrous individuals of course existed in Japan, as in all countries at every period; but Bushido, as an institution or a code of rules, has never existed. The accounts given of it have been fabricated out of whole cloth, chiefly for foreign consumption. An analysis of medieval Japanese history shows that the great feudal houses, so far from displaying an excessive idealism in the matter of fealty to one emperor, one lord, or one party, had evolved the eminently practical plan of letting their different members take different sides, so that the family as a whole might come out as winner in any event, and thus avoid the confiscation of its lands. Cases, no doubt, occurred of devotion to losing causes—for example, to Mikados in disgrace; but they were less common than in the more romantic West."—B. H. Chamberlain, *Invention of a new religion, pp.* 13-14.—"The 'bushido' was remarkably complex in its composition, for Japanese, Chinese, and Indian influences had contributed to its formation; yet it appeared singularly homogeneous and coherent, as its elements had been fused together during centuries of hard discipline and constant and universal practice. Its foundation would seem to have been *loyalty*—loyalty to one's lord, or to any man or matter upon which he has set his heart—upheld by a sterling sense of personal *honor.* Let us not forget for a moment, however, that the 'bushido,' in its long history, was not always characterized by constant fidelity between lord and vassal. That there was a large element of opportunism among the 'samurai' during the period of civil war (before 1600), manifesting itself too often in unnatural and revolting crimes of treachery and murder among men bound together by the closest ties of fealty or blood-relationship, may be seen by any cursory reader of the annals of these dark ages. . . . Were the changing phases of the 'bushido' studied in the spirit of seeking truth, it would be found, I think, that it was only after 1600 that the feudal rulers were . . . enabled at length to institute a rigorous and effective system of training designed to purge the 'bushido' as thoroughly as possible of the element of opportunism that had vitiated it. . . . Suffice it to say that this system of training proved remarkably effective in accomplishing its first aim, but somewhat at the expense of the true life and vigor of the historic ode. . . . The idealization and systematization of the 'bushido' in Japan under the Tokugawa shoguns indicated in fact a perceptible deterioration of its vitality. . . . Even in this state, however, the 'bushido' was an immense potential energy; and it acquired an unexpected lease of life in the middle of the nineteenth century, when thousands of men were suddenly animated by its thrilling power, and brought about the great upheaval that resulted in the destruction of the feudal régime. Feudalism was killed by the moral spirit it had nursed, when that spirit was liberated by revolution and fastened itself to the cause of national unity and imperial sovereignty. . . . It should once more be emphasized that these component qualities of the 'bushido' were in practice considered seldom as separate elements, but as one coherent body of moral values, a veritable moral atmosphere which surrounded all 'samurai' and which was imbibed by each. There was to be no specialization of the different virtues among different men, but each and every man was taught and expected to realize in himself, according to his nature and training, all of the virtues as a simple code of conduct. This was the ideal of the whole man in feudal Japan, and the ideal was taught and practised rigorously and with large success."—K. Asakawa, *Some of the contributions of feudal Japan to the new Japan* (*Journal of Race Development, July*, 1912).

"Opinions differ as to the future of Christianity in Japan. The Reports of foreign missionary so-

cieties furnish encouraging data regarding the results of missionary efforts during the last half-century. Nevertheless, a feeling of uncertainty regarding the prospects of Christianity prevails both in Japanese and foreign circles. There is a tendency to regard the eventual Christianization of the country as doubtful, though the progress already made is freely admitted. To enter into the various considerations which influence opinions on this point would require more space than is at our disposal. An idea, however, which is entertained by not a few attentive observers is that, in the event of Christianity becoming in the distant future the dominant religion of Japan, it will be Christianity in a new form evolved by the people for themselves. They will do, it is thought, with Christianity as they have done with the Buddhism imported from abroad, and mould it to suit their own taste. This view derives some support from the two separate movements—one towards independence, namely, freedom from foreign control; the other towards amalgamation—which have taken place in recent years in several Japanese Christian churches. A notable instance of the first of these movements occurred some years ago in the case of the Congregationalist University in Kioto. In that case the agitation for independence resulted in the control of the college passing into the hands of the Japanese directors, the American missionaries connected with the institution remaining simply as advisers. American influence predominates to-day in foreign missionary enterprise, the outstanding feature in the work of American missions being the establishment of educational institutions on a Christian basis. According to official statistics for 1917 the number of Japanese Christians amounted in that year to a little over 200,000."—J. H. Gubbins, *Making of modern Japan, p.* 149.

See also MYTHOLOGY: Japanese; ASIA: Unity of Asiatic civilization; BUSHIDO; PRIESTHOOD: In China and Japan; TEMPLES: Stage of culture represented by temple architecture.

Development of architecture, painting, sculpture and music.—Libraries. See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: Japan; PAINTING: Japanese; SCULPTURE: India, China and Japan; EDUCATION, ART: Modern: Japan; MUSIC: Ancient: B.C. 2852-478; LIBRARIES: Modern: Japan.

Ethics. See ETHICS: Japan; ASIA: European influences, etc.: 6.

B.C. 600-A.D. 1853.—Summary of the internal history of Japan to the coming of Perry.—The history of Japan, down to the opening up of the country by Admiral Perry is little known to western readers, and the careful study of a concise summary of its main events will be found of assistance in understanding the trend of the country's story. Authentic Japanese history is believed by some Japanese themselves to go back to about 600 B.C., and perhaps even earlier. This early history is romantic, but as it was carried down entirely by tradition it does not stand the light of modern criticism. "To the eye of the critical investigator, Japanese history, properly so-called, opens only in the latter part of the 5th or the beginning of the 6th century after Christ, when the gradual spread of Chinese culture, filtering in through Korea, had sufficiently dispelled the gloom of original barbarism to allow of the keeping of records. The whole question of the credibility of the early history of Japan has been carefully gone into . . . by Aston and others, with the result that the first date pronounced trustworthy is A.D. 461, and it is discovered that even the annals of the 6th century are to be received with caution. . . . Japanese art and literature contain frequent allusions to the early history (so-called) of the country . . . as preserved in the works entitled Kojiki and Nihongi, both dating from the 8th century after Christ. . . . Arrived at A.D. 600, we stand on terra firma. . . . About that time occurred the greatest event of Japanese history, the conversion of the nation to Buddhism (approximately 552-621). So far as can be gathered from the accounts of the early Chinese travellers, Chinese civilisation had slowly—very slowly—been gaining ground in the archipelago ever since the 3rd century after Christ. But when the Buddhist missionaries crossed the water, all Chinese institutions followed them and came in with a rush. Mathematical instruments and calendars were introduced; books began to be written; . . . the custom of abdicating the throne in order to spend old age in prayer was adopted—a custom which, more than anything else, led to the effacement of the Mikado's authority during the Middle Ages. Sweeping changes in political arrangements began to be made in the year 645, and before the end of the 8th century, the government had been entirely remodelled on the Chinese centralised bureaucratic plan. . . . This was the brilliant age of Japanese classical literature, which lived and moved and had its being in the atmosphere of an effeminate court. The Fujiwara family engrossed the power of the state during this early epoch (670-1050). While their sons held all the great posts of government, the daughters were married to puppet emperors. The next change resulted from the impatience of the always manly and warlike Japanese gentry at the sight of this sort of petticoat government. The great clans of Taira and Minamoto arose, and struggled for and alternately held the reins of power during the second half of the 11th and the whole of the 12th century. . . . By the final overthrow of the Taira family at the sea fight of Dan-no-Ura in 1185, Yoritomo, the chief of the Minamotos, rose to supreme power, and obtained from the Court of Kyoto the title of Shogun [converted by western tongues into Tycoon]. . . . As Imperial Rome never ceased to be theoretically a republic, Japan contrariwise, though practically and indeed avowedly ruled by the Shoguns from A D. 1190 to 1867, always retained the Mikado as theoretical head of the state, descendant of the Sun-Goddess, fountain of all honour. . . . Yoritomo's descendants did not prove worthy of him, and for more than a century (A.D. 1205-1333) the real authority was wielded by the so-called 'Regents' of the Hojo family. . . . Their rule was made memorable by the repulse of the Mongol fleet sent by Kublai Khan with the purpose of adding Japan to his gigantic dominions. This was at the end of the 13th century. . . . During the 14th century, even the dowager-like calm of the Court of Kyoto was broken by internecine strife. Two branches of the Imperial house, supported each by different feudal chiefs, disputed the crown. One was called the Hokucho, or 'Northern Court,' the other the Nancho, or 'Southern Court.' After lasting some sixty years, this contest terminated in A.D. 1392 by the triumph of the Northern dynasty, whose cause the powerful Ashikaga family had espoused. From 1338 to 1565, the Ashikagas ruled Japan as Shoguns. . . . Meanwhile Japan had been discovered by the Portuguese (A.D. 1542); and the imprudent conduct of the Portuguese and Spanish friars (bateren, as they were called—a corruption of the word padre) made of the Christian religion an additional source of discord. Japan fell into utter anarchy. . . . Then, in the latter half of

the 16th century, there arose successively three great men—Ota Nobunaga, the Taiko Hideyoshi, and Tokugawa Ieyasu. The first of these conceived the idea of centralising all the authority of the state in a single person; the second, Hideyoshi, who has been called the Napoleon of Japan, actually put the idea into practice, and joined the conquest of Korea (A.D. 1592-1598) to his domestic triumphs. Death overtook him in 1598. . . . Ieyasu, setting Hideyoshi's youthful son aside, stepped into the vacant place. An able general, unsurpassed as a diplomat and administrator, he

JIMMU TENNO
Mythical first emperor of Japan

first quelled all the turbulent barons, then bestowed a considerable portion of their lands on his own kinsmen and dependents, and either broke or balanced, by a judicious distribution of other fiefs over different provinces of the Empire, the might of those greater feudal lords, such as Satsuma and Choshu, whom it was impossible to put altogether out of the way. The Court of Kyoto was treated by him respectfully, and investiture as Shogun for himself and his heirs duly obtained from the Mikado. . . . What Ieyasu sketched out, the third Shogun of his line, Iemitsu, perfected. From that time forward, 'Old Japan,' as we know it from the Dutch accounts, from art, from the stage, was crystallised for two hundred and fifty years. . . . When Commodore Perry came with his big guns (A.D. 1853-4), he found a government already tottering to its fall, many who cared little for the Mikado's abstract rights, caring a great deal for the chance of aggrandising their own families at the Shogun's expense."—B. H. Chamberlain, *Things Japanese, pp.* 231-235.

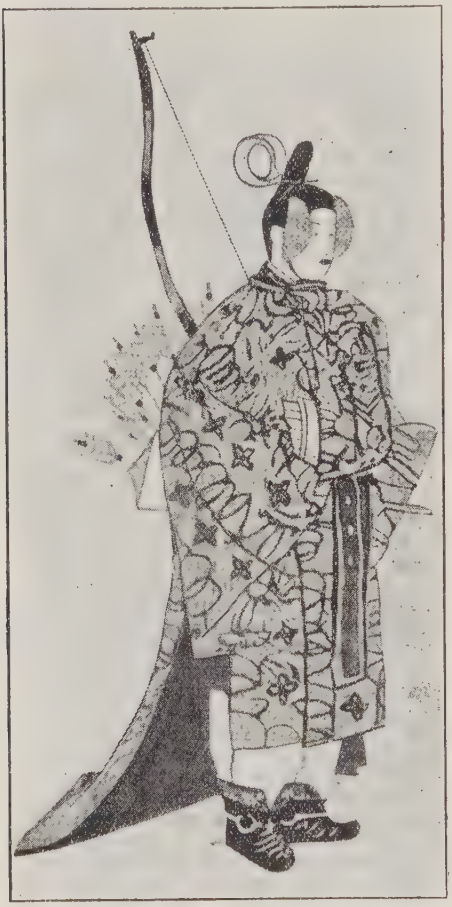
Also in: F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people.*

B.C. 7th-A.D. 5th centuries.—Legendary period.—"The 'age of gods' preceding the accession of the First Emperor Jimmu is, like the corresponding period in Greek history, made up of strange tales of the gods and demi-gods. In this age flourished the Sun-Goddess, or Amaterasu Daijingu, enshrined in the Great Temple of Ise, her brother the Impetuous Subanoo to whom the Great Temple of Izuno is dedicated, and all the host of 'milliard deities.' . . . From the accession of the first Mikado, Jimmu Tenno, B.C. 660, to about the reign of Yubyaku Tenno (A.D. 457-480) the Imperial House was chiefly employed, according to the time honored legends and traditions, in bringing to subjugation the north eastern region still held by the earlier inhabitants the Ainus, and Kyushu which was probably in close touch with the kingdoms in the Korean Peninsula. In the dim light of this prehistoric period move such heroic figures as Prince Yamatodake who was sent to subjugate the regions at the north and the south, while the name of the Empress Jingo stands conspicuous as the conqueror of the hostile Korean kingdoms. Her grand councillor, Takenouchino-no-Sukune, . . . is [the Japanese] Methuselah, being recorded to have attained the age of 300." —*Japan Year Book,* 1921-1922, *p.* 10.—"The Emperor Jimmu died in 585 B.C. at the age of one hundred and twenty-seven, a period of longevity that has its origin in the *Kojiki* and is accepted without question by the Japanese to-day. . . . Jimmu is a memorable figure, and it is not to be wondered at that the Japanese hold him in high honour. . . . By his courage, his strategy, he laid the sure foundation of the Japanese Empire. Professor Longford writes: 'From Jimmu, the present Emperor . . . the sovereign of a nation which has acquired all the highest elements of Western science and civilization, . . . traces his descent in a direct line extending over 2500 years. It is through him that he claims his heavenly origin and the divinity which is not only the divinity that hedges other kings of the earth, but whose essence is that of the Gods who rule the world.' . . . Both the *Nihongi* and *Kojiki* furnish many details in regard to the reign of Jimmu, but [after his death] . . . it is not until we come to the tenth Emperor, the Emperor Sujin, who came to the throne in 97 B.C., that the story of Japan is once again full of picturesque and interesting detail. Sujin ('The Emperor who honours the Gods') is memorable as a great civil reformer. It was his policy to maintain the Empire so dearly won by Jimmu rather than to extend it, . . . [and in a time of peace] he was able to give his attention to such matters as education, agriculture, especially in regard to the extension of irrigation, and the building of ships. . . . [It was this emperor who first attempted to do away with the custom of burying alive the attendants of a deceased member of the imperial family, and substituted for them, figures made of clay.] Sujin was succeeded by Suinin who died in A.D. 70 [and] was succeeded by the valiant Keiko. He commanded his armies in person, subdued his enemies, who stoutly resisted him throughout a long cam-

paign, and finally restored peace to his kingdom. Keiko, brave and victorious as he was, is a minor figure in history compared with one of his eighty children, the famous Prince Yamato Dake, whose courage and nobility of character have justly made him one of the great heroes of Japan. . . . [He is said to have overcome the Kumoso, a race of savages who inhabited western Kyushu. Chuai, the son of Yamato Dake, came to the throne in 130 A.D., but] all the glory of his reign is associated with his courageous and far-seeing wife, the famous Empress Jingo ('Merit of the Gods'). . . . [It is she who is credited with having built a fleet of ships with which she set sail for Korea.] The fleet of the Empress Jingo landed in the Kingdom of Shiragi [in Korea]. The King of Shiragi was surprised, for he governed a kingdom that paid far more attention to the arts than to matters of warfare. Seeing that resistance was useless, he prostrated himself before the Empress, who . . . made the defeated monarch swear that 'until the sun rose in the west and set in the east, until streams flowed towards their source, until pebbles from the river-bed ascended to the sky and became stars,' he should maintain his allegiance to Japan. . . . The Japanese to-day regard the conquest of Korea, . . . by the Empress Jingo as a historical event. Dr. Aston, however, dismisses the whole story as a myth, based upon two historical facts that have been highly coloured and much distorted. The Chinese are silent in regard to the matter. They refer, however, to a female sovereign who sent an embassy to the Court of China in the hope of obtaining permission from the ruler of north-western Korea to travel across his territory. . . . Whether the conquest of Korea was won without a blow, or whether, as seems more probable, several invasions took place at a later date is not of prime importance. The real victory won by Japan was not so much of arms as the winning of knowledge. Korea was like a moon that borrowed her light from the blazing sun of China, and Korea's borrowed light shone into Japan with very widespread and beneficial results. It was in A.D. 284 that Ajiki, the King of Kudara's ambassador, came to the Japanese Court to pay his usual tribute, bringing with him Chinese literature, while in the following year the same king sent Wani, a Chinese scholar, who presented the Emperor of Japan with the *Analects* of Confucius and the *Thousand Character Essay*." —F. H. Davis, *Japan, pp.* 30-33, 36-37, 42, 45-46.

550-708. — Asuka period. — Introduction of Buddhism. — Taikwa era. —"About the middle of the sixth century [A.D.] Japan entered upon a new era, known as the Asuka Period (550-700), which is the era of the introduction of Buddhism into Japan. It was in the year 552, during the reign of the Emperor Kimmei (540-571), that an envoy came from Kudara, one of the Korean provinces, with an image of Buddha and books explaining Buddhist doctrine. He also stated that all people from India to Korea were followers of Buddhism, which excelled all other religions."— E. W. Clement, *Short history of Japan, p.* 20.— See also above: Religions.—The emperor took counsel with his ministers, Monobe-no-Okoshi and Nakotomi Kumako, who opposed Buddhism and Soga-no-Iname, who was inclined to encourage the introduction of the new religion. And after he had carefully considered their words the emperor said: " 'Let it (the image) be given to Soga, who has shown his willingness to take it, and as an experiment, make him worship it.' . . . [Soga accepted the charge but a pestilence which ravaged the country was looked upon as a punishment for forsaking the ancient faith. The temple of Buddha was burned, and his image thrown into a canal; but was rescued by Soga, and a new temple built. Thus the worship of Buddha began in old Japan.] The Emperor Kimmei died in 571 and was succeeded by Bidatsu (572-585). During his reign the guardianship of the sacred image [of Buddha] was under the protection of Soga no Umako, the son of Soga no Iname. He was no less zealous than his father had been, and was diligent in his efforts to propagate Buddhism in Japan."—F. H. Davis, *Japan, pp.* 68-69.—The introduction of Buddhism accentuated an already strong rivalry between the Noriya and Soga families, in which the Soga were triumphant, and during the greater part of this period the Soga clansmen were the virtual rulers of Japan. They acted in some sort as foreign ministers, and were actually responsible for the strong foothold gained by Buddhism. Their power continued to increase through the reigns of Yomei (585-588), Sujun (588-592), and the famous successor of Sujun. "The Empress Suiko (593-628), with whose name and fame must be associated her nephew and prime minister, Umayado [or Mumayado], best known by his posthumous title, Prince Shotoku. . . . This was the time of the beginnings of Japanese painting. This art was borrowed from China; the first teachers were Buddhist priests from Korea in the sixth century; and the first school of painting in Japan is, therefore, called a Buddhist school. . . . According to Asakawa, with the reign of Suiko began 'the conscious adoption of Chinese political doctrines and institutions.' This included, for instance, the lunar calendar (602), a code of court etiquette, the exchange of envoys, 'the commencement of [formal] intercourse with China.' "— E. W. Clement, *Short history of Japan, pp.* 21-22. —"Prince Mumayado . . . or Shotoku Taishi [573-622], has been described as the 'Constantine of Japanese Buddhism.' . . . He was famous as a general, statesman, and Buddhist propagandist. . . . His foreign policy was particularly successful, for his embassies to Shiragi [in Korea] in 597 and 600 resulted in tribute being sent to Japan. With this Korean success, obtained by diplomacy and not at the point of the sword, he claimed for Japan an equal dignity with the great Chinese Empire. . . . Shotoku Taishi framed the first code of laws based upon Chinese philosophy, and these laws still bear fruit in Japan to-day. The code was known as the Constitution of the Seventeen Articles, and was issued in 604. The Articles are briefly as follows: Art. I. A plea for concord. Art. II. The acceptance of Buddhism. Art. III. The dignity of the Emperor. Art. IV. The duties of rulers and magistrates. Art. V. Bribery and corruption. Art. VI. Lying and flattery. Arts. VII., VIII. The evils of hereditary office. Art. IX. The result of those evils. Arts. X.-XIV. The responsibility of hereditary holders of office. Art. XV. The significance of sages and saints. Art. XVI. The exercise of patience and self-control. Art. XVII. 'Never act on your own private initiative or authority; and never take any step of importance without consultation. In a doubtful case, consult the more.' "—F. H. Davis, *Japan, pp.* 71-72.—"In A.D. 603, the first attempt to create orders of nobility for the nobles, already numerously existing, was made by the Empress Suiko. Twelve orders were instituted, with symbolic names, after the Chinese custom—such as Virtue, Humanity, Propriety, etc.—distinguished by the colors of the caps worn. [Later on] in 649, this system was changed for that having nine ranks, with two divisions. In each of the last six were

two subdivisions, thus in reality making thirty grades. . . . Of the eight departments, that of War ultimately became the most important. A special department was necessary to attend to the public manners and forms of society, etiquette being more than morals, and equal to literary education. The foreign relations of the empire were then of so little importance that they were assigned to a bureau of the above department. The treasury consisted of imperial storehouses and granaries, as money was not then in general use. Rice was the standard of value, and all taxes were paid in the grain. The introduction of these



MILITARY OFFICIAL IN COURT DRESS

orders of nobility and departments of state from China brought about the change from the species of feudalism hitherto existing to centralized monarchy, the rise of the noble families, and the fixing of official castes composed, not, as in most ancient countries, of the priestly and warrior classes, but, as in China, of the civilian and military. . . . A division of all the able-bodied males into three classes was now made, one of which was to consist of regular soldiers permanently in service. This was the 'military class,' from which the legions kept as garrisons in the remote provinces were recruited."—W. E. Griffis, *Mikado's empire, v.* 1, *pp.* 103-104.—"The Emperor Jomei (629-641) [who followed the Empress Suiko] was succeeded by the Empress Kokyoku (642-645). The Nakatomi [of the same family as the opposer of Buddhism], at this time were still the high priests of the Shinto religion. They by no means confined their attention to religious matters, for they sought to control the succession to the throne. Their power grew rapidly, and eventually they went so far as to call their children Princes and Princesses, and their houses palaces. The Soga family, as we have seen, was mainly responsible for the spread of Buddhism in Japan. It was a rival family the Nakatomi were determined to crush, and they were later successful in killing the father and son of the Soga house. In 645 the Empress abdicated, and her younger brother, Kotoku, reigned in her stead for nine years. He was responsible for many excellent reforms, and during his reign 'registers of population were prepared.' "—F. H. Davis, *Japan, p.* 79.—The full result of Shotoku's reforms appeared in this reign in what is known as "the Taikwa Reformation, which takes its name from the Taikwa Era, which covered the first few years (645-649) of the reign of the Emperor Kotoku (645-654). The name 'Taikwa Reform' belongs really to a series of changes extending over a period of more than half a century (645-700); but it is often, for convenience, called the 'Reform of 645,' and has been denominated 'a great turning-point' in the history of Japan. Taken with the Restoration of 1868, 'it forms one of the greatest crises of the national career of the Japanese people'; or, if the rise of Japanese feudalism is added, it is one of 'three great historical incidents.' This reform was, according to Asakawa, 'Chinese in its organization of the state, and Japanese in its theory of sovereignty'; for the emperor became the actual ruler, so that this is the great 'imperialistic' era. Murdoch characterizes this reform as follows: 'The Yamato sovereign was no longer to be merely the head of the chief clan in Japan, with a feeble control over the other great clan chieftains, and with no direct control over the dependents of these. Henceforth he was really to be the Emperor of Japan. Every rood of the soil was theoretically supposed to have been surrendered to him,—that is to say, the theory of eminent domain was now effectually established. The land thus surrendered was then distributed to the subjects of the Emperor in approximately equal portions. The holders of these portions were subject to the national burden of taxation.' "—E. W. Clement, *Short history of Japan, pp.* 22, 23.

Also in: F. Brinkley, *Japan, its history, arts and literature, v.* 1, *pp.* 89-102.—K. Asakawa, *Early institutional life of Japan, pp.* 141-148.—A. K. Reischauer, *Studies in Japanese Buddhism, pp.* 83-85.—D. Murray, *Japan, pp.* 107-114.

These great changes were heralded by the annihilation of the Soga, who for so long had dominated the government. (See below: 645-833.) "The destruction of the Soga clan in 645 was perhaps the occasion rather than the cause of a reform that gave Nippon a definitely organized government, and enabled the men of that age to lay the solid foundations of empire. With the aid of the political thought of China and its living model of order and power before their eyes, the Yamato men first reconstructed the Throne and Government, and then began the work of unifying all the tribes. In a word, their task was the making of a new nation. They thrust out the fiction of a patriarchal clan, in which public and private were hardly distinguishable terms, and in which the Mikado was so politically weak, and they built up a most powerful centralized bureaucracy, above which the Mikado was set as theoretically omnipotent. They were not able so to build and guard as to keep Court and Government

separate, but they drew a sharp line between what was public and what was private. Then, with the dogmas and sanctions of religion and a mighty army of soldiers kept in activity both near and far, they built up the structure of a State based on the idea of conquest. In this new State there was a tremendous gulf fixed between the Throne and the People, the bureaucrats having virtually the real power. Swift was the movement. More rapidly even than in the last half of the nineteenth century did this evolution proceed. In methods of thought, style, writing, and costumes, China's models were followed in every department of life. In the sudden creation of a new sentiment, Chinese political fashions seemed only logical and reasonable. A triple premiership [Daijo-daijin (prime minister), Sa-daijin (minister of the left), U-daijin (minister of the right)], after the Chinese pattern; the marking of chronology and the adoption of a State calendar—sure and supreme test of sovereignty in eastern Asia; the naming the first of the Year Periods; the organization and protection of the Buddhist hierarchy, the fixing of the status of free subjects and slaves, the establishment of arsenals, the regulation of taxation and land allotment, the reform of popular customs as to marriage, burial, etc., the ordination of orders, ranks, caps, and the costumes of nobles, the making of a census; the organization of a five-house system in the villages, and finally the creation of eight departments of Government, Imperial Household, rites and offices, nobles, interior, war, justice, treasury,—all within five years or so, shows the rapidity of reform."—W. E. Griffis, *Japanese nation in evolution, pp.* 146-147.—On the death of Kotoku in 645, Kokyoku re-assumed the imperial dignity, and was succeeded by her son the Emperor Tenchi or Tenji (668-671), who however had been regent during the three previous reigns. "A long series of changes [begun as we have seen by Prince Shotoku] were crowned by an edict unprecedented in Japan. The sovereign addressed himself direct to the people, and employed language evidently an echo of Prince Shotoku's constitution. Its gist was that since the faculty of self-government must be acquired before attempting to govern others, and since obedience could be obtained only by one worthy to command, the sovereign pledged himself to behave in strict conformity with the principles of imperialism, relying on the aid of heaven and the support of the people. Tenchi, who issued this edict, may be called the father of constitutional monarchism in Japan."—F. Brinkley, *Japan, v.* 1, *pp.* 101-102.—"The Emperor Tenchi has been described as 'one of the most enlightened sovereigns that ever sat upon the throne of Japan.' He is particularly memorable in connection with the favour he bestowed upon the Nakatomi family. The head of the family at that time was Kamatari [Kamako], and the Emperor conferred upon him the cap of 'Great Woven Stuff,' the official cap denoting the title of Daijin, or Private Minister. In the *Nihongi* we read: 'He also granted him a surname, and made him the House of Fujiwara.' Fujiwara means wistaria-field, and the crest of this illustrious family is the wistaria flower. Kamatari, unlike many of his descendants, did not abuse the royal favour he received. On the contrary, he had the interest of the people at heart, lightened taxation, reduced forced labour, and was responsible for many reforms. If the Emperor Tenchi showered favours upon the Fujiwara family, he was no less prodigal in extending a warm welcome to Korean refugees. These Koreans founded a district of their own, and their colonization, particularly in regard to art and culture, exercised a most beneficial influence."—F. H. Davis, *Japan, pp.* 79-80.—Tenchi's immediate successors are of slight importance. With Mommu, the fourth in succession, however, the case is different, and these two important reigns—that of Tenchi and that of Mommu,—and their result may be discussed together. "Mommu (697-708), inaugurated his reign by a . . . rescript, [similar to that of Tenchi] promising, with the help of his ancestors and the gods, to promote the welfare of his people. The interval of forty years separating Tenchi's accession [668] and Mommu's death . . . [708] may be regarded as the only period, in all the long history of Japan prior to modern times, when the sovereign was not divided from the people by nobles who usurped his authority. Mommu endeavoured to invest the issue of his edict with great pomp and ceremony, but of an essentially democratic character. The princes of the blood, the great nobles, and the chief officials were all required to attend, and the people were invited *en masse*. Then a crier read the edict aloud in four parts, and at the end of each part all present, high and low alike, were invited to signify their assent. This remarkable chapter of Japanese history may be broadly described as a political revolution resulting from the introduction of Chinese civilisation through the medium of Buddhist priests, just as a similar revolution in recent times resulted from the introduction of Western civilisation through the medium of gunboats. . . . Tenchi and Mommu modelled their administration on the lines indicated in the 'Golden Mirror' of Tatsong, and the grand capital established at Nara in the beginning of the eighth century was an imitation of the Tang metropolis at Hsian. . . . Such a thing as a school did not exist until the time of the Emperor Tenchi . . . when the first institution of the kind was opened in the capital, to be followed, ten years later, by a university and by a few provincial seminaries. The curriculum of this university represents the ideal of literary attainment in its era. There were 'four paths' of essential learning—the Chinese classics, biographies, law and mathematics. Caligraphy and music were taught independently. . . . [The country gained at once by the introduction of the higher civilization. In the era prior to the change, the lower orders were in a state of abject slavery. The patricians held the mere touch of a plebian to be defilement. The laws of marriage were extremely lax. The custom of sending members of the family and retainers of a dead chieftain to follow him to the grave was on the increase.] All these abuses were strictly interdicted in the reformation foreshadowed by Prince Shotoku's adoption of Buddhism and Confucianism, and embodied in a series of legislative measures during the period 645 to 708. The nation suddenly sprang to a greatly higher level of civilisation. . . . It may be noted incidentally that the growth of wealth resulting from this influx of material civilisation gave additional emphasis to the superiority of the Chinese, for they had to be placed at the head of the various bureaux of the Treasury, there being no Japanese competent to discharge such duties. Commerce also felt the expansive impulse. Men travelled from province to province selling goods; foreign vessels frequented the ports; a collector of customs and a superintendent of trade were appointed, and an officially recognised system of weights and measures was introduced."—F. Brinkley, *Japan, v.* 1, *pp.* 101-103, 127, 105-106.

645-833.—Fujiwara period to the reign of Nimmyo.—Abdications.—Nara epoch.—Nihongi.

—Ainu wars.—Chinese influence.—End of imperial power.—Kebiishi, or police force.—Agriculture.—Two outstanding factors profoundly influence the history of Japan, and ultimately produced its peculiar feudal system and the dual form of government both of which were still in existence when the modern nations of the world were admitted to the empire. The first of these factors was the practice of abdication by the emperors, the second the power of the great noble families, and especially of some one of these families, which usurped the imperial authority and carried on the government in the emperor's name. The practice of abdication came into vogue "in the seventh century together with Buddhism, whose doctrines led men to retire from worldly cares and pleasures into solitude and contemplation. But it was made use of by unscrupulous ministers, who placed infant puppets on the throne, and caused them to abdicate on attaining to maturity. Thus it was a common thing during the Middle Ages for three Mikados to be alive at the same time,—a boy on the throne, his father or brother who had abdicated, and his grandfather or other relative who had abdicated also. . . . Beginning with Gemmyo Tenno in A.D. 715, a long series of them abdicated the throne in order to spend the remainder of their lives in pious seclusion."—B. H. Chamberlain, *Things Japanese, pp.* 13, 32.—As stated above, however, even before this time, the power of the emperor had been overshadowed by the ascendancy of the Soga, whose overthrow cleared the way for the rise of the Fujiwara. "The ancestor of this family, Nakatomi-no-Muraji, was fabled to have come down from the celestial plains to the island of Kyushu. The family therefore ranks with that of the emperor as the oldest and most honored in the empire. From the time of its establishment down to the present it has enjoyed many honors and privileges, and has played a very distinguished part in the history of the country. This family first became prominent during the reign of the Emperor Kotoku. The Soga family from the times of the first introduction of Buddhism had grown to be most powerful and influential in the empire. Umako had held the position of *daijin* and his son Yemishi became *daijin* after his father's death. Yemishi presumed upon his promotion to this high office and put on the airs of hereditary rank. He built castles for himself and son and organized guards for their defence. His son Iruka became *daijin* after his father's death and conducted himself with even greater arrogance. At last his conduct became intolerable and he was assassinated A.D. 645. The chief actor in this plot was Nakatomi-no-Kamatari, who was at this time on intimate terms with the prince who afterwards became the Emperor Tenji." —D. Murray, *Japan, p.* 120.—Tenchi and his successors apparently carried on the administration unhampered; although the Fujiwara had already begun to acquire power, and in fact, the Fujiwara period is generally spoken of as commencing with the fall of the Soga, and therefore contemporary with Tenchi and Mommu. This is somewhat puzzling to the reader, because this period also includes the Nara or Heijan period. "The restoration of the administrative power to the Emperor in the middle of the seventh century, which was marked by the great legislative measures already spoken of and by the re-modelling of the government on Chinese bureaucratic lines, prefaced a period generally known as the 'Nara, or Heijo, epoch' (709-784), because the town of Nara, then chosen as the imperial capital, had the distinction of being the first city to hold that rank independently of changes of sovereign. Hitherto it had been the custom for the Emperor and the heir apparent to reside in different places, and of course there grew up about the palace of the prince material interests and moral associations opposed to a change of habitation. Hence on his accession to the throne, he usually transferred the capital of the empire from the place occupied by his predecessor to the site of his own palace. . . . The only limit set to all these shiftings . . . [was] that the five adjacent provinces occupying the waist of the main island, and known as 'Gokinai,' were regarded as possessing some prescriptive title to contain the seat of government, Yamato being especially honoured in that respect. . . . As civilisation progressed, as the population grew, as the business of administration became more complicated, as increasing intercourse with China furnished new standards for measuring the interval between ruler and ruled, and, above all, as class distinctions acquired emphasis, the character of the palace assumed magnificence proportionate to the imperial ceremonies and national receptions that had to be held there. By the beginning of the eighth century, this development had reached a stage which necessitated a permanent capital, and Nara, thenceforth called Heijo (the castle of peace), was chosen."—F. Brinkley, *Japan, v.* 1, *pp.* 131-133.—This step was taken in 710 during the reign of the Empress Gemmyo (708-715). "Nara, . . . remained the permanent capital for nearly the whole of the eighth century. The city was more or less a replica of the Chinese capital of Hsian. With its seven great Buddhist temples, Shinto shrines and palace, its wealth of cherry and plum and gigantic cryptomeria trees, its range of hills rising from a lovely and fertile plain gave Nara a splendour that has never been surpassed."—F. H. Davis, *Japan, p.* 81.—Gemmyo's reign is also famous for the completion of the chronicle known as the Nihongi, which is based on tradition. The Emperor Temmu, predecessor of Gemmyo, had directed the records to be carefully examined, compiled and committed to Hiyeda no Are, who, by means of his marvelous memory was able to dictate them to the scribes who wrote them down, in the form in which they still exist. In the reign of this empress, copper was discovered, and copper coins were minted to take the place of Chinese and Korean money, which had hitherto been in use. The Emishi, or Ainu, who were then a strong and warlike though barbarous people, had not then been subdued and "in the northern part of the Main island continued to give much trouble to the government. During the reign of the Emperor Shomu (A.D. 724-756) Fujiwara-no-Umakai was sent against these restless neighbors and succeeded in reducing them to subjection, which lasted longer than usual. A fort was built to keep them in subjection, called the castle of Taga."—D. Murray, *Japan, pp.* 123, 124.—"The Nara epoch owes its prominent place in history chiefly to the extraordinary zeal shown by the Court and the great nobles in promoting the spread of Buddhism. During the seventy-five years comprised in the epoch, no less than seven of the grandest temples ever seen in Japan were erected; a multitude of idols were cast, among them a gigantic *Daibutsu;* colossal bells were founded, and all the best artists and artisans of the time devoted their services to these costly works. The mania reached its zenith in the reign of the Emperor Shomu (724-749), whose religious zeal was supplemented by a love of pomp that led him to lavish great sums on rich costumes, expensive sports, and handsome edifices, and by superstition so profound that

whenever any natural calamity or abnormal phenomenon occurred, he caused religious services to be performed at heavy cost. In addition to the large demands of the central treasury, salaries and emoluments for the leading officials were assessed on a liberal scale; the Prime Minister's pay being equal to the earning capacities of three thousand families, that of the second Minister to the earnings of two thousand families, and so on in a descending rate. The agricultural classes, who were the chief tax-payers, began to show themselves unequal to this strain. It was also appreciated that the theory of State ownership of land, applied according to the provisions of the *Taikwa* and *Taiho* legislation, produced a demoralising effect upon the farmer, since he did not care to improve land which might be transferred to some one else in six years, and was at best secure for only one generation. The Government, therefore, began to recognise the principle of private ownership, and also to lend to agriculturists in spring such funds or articles as were required for the cultivation of their farms. In fact, the policy pursued by the State was a curious mixture of desire to reform and inability to retrench. Resolute efforts were made, for example, to improve means of communication by constructing roads and organising post-stations; but, at the same time, officially guarded fences and barriers were established at commanding points, the necessity of fixing the tax-payer immovably in one place being considered more important than the expediency of bringing new markets within reach of his produce. . . . It was an era of refined, effeminate amusements. Wrestling had now become the pursuit of professionals. Aristocrats engaged in no rougher pastime than archery, polo, a species of football, hawking and hunting."—F. Brinkley, *Japan, v.* 1, *pp.* 134-135, 155.—"In A.D. 794 during the reign of the Emperor Kwammu (A.D. 782-806) the capital was removed to Kyoto on the banks of the Kamogawa. The situation and the environs are lovely, and justify the affectionate reverence with which it has ever been regarded. Here were built the palaces and offices for the emperor and his court. It was officially called Miyako, that is, residence of the sovereign. It continued to be occupied as the capital until A.D. 1868, when the court was moved to Tokyo. At this time the name of the city was changed to Saikyo, which means western capital, in distinction from Tokyo, which means eastern capital."—D. Murray, *Japan, p.* 123.—The Fujiwara were already paramount in the state when Kwammu began to reign, and both he and his father Konin owed their elevation to the throne to their influence. The direct line from Temmu had died with the Empress Kohen who ruled, or rather misruled, from 749 to 770. On her death, a civil war seemed to threaten; but three of the heads of the Fujiwara family threw themselves on the side of Shirakabe (afterwards known as Konin) grandson of Tenchi and one of the claimants, and thus saved the situation.

The Fujiwara also upheld the claims to the succession of Yamabe, eldest son of Konin, a learned man who had been president of the university and minister of the central department. The choice of these two men left no doubt of the wisdom of the Fujiwara, and enhanced the power and reputation which they already possessed. The reigns of Konin and Kwammu were disturbed by a revolt of the Yemishi or Ainu. In 774 they again broke out. In 780 they seized and burned Tajo castle. In 789 the Japanese army under Kosami was badly defeated; but in 794 the Japanese retrieved themselves under Tamuramaro, a gifted commander who also put down two smaller insurrections in 801 and 804. "A collateral result of these disturbances was to discredit the great Court nobles—the Otomo, the Tachibana, the Ki, and the Fujiwara—as leaders of armies, and to lay the foundation of the military houses (*buke*) which were destined to become feudal rulers of Japan in after ages. Ki no Hirozumi, Ki no Kosami, Otomo Yakamochi, Fujiwara Umakai, and Fujiwara Tsugunawa having all failed, the Court was compelled to have recourse to the representatives of a Chinese immigrant family, the Saka-no-ye. By those who trace the finger of fate in earthly happenings, it has been called a dispensation that, at this particular juncture, a descendant of Achi no Omi should have been a warrior with a height of six feet nine inches, eyes of a falcon, a beard like plaited gold-wire, a frown that terrified wild animals, and a smile that attracted children. For such is the traditional description of Tamuramaro. Another incidental issue of the situation was that conspicuous credit for fighting qualities attached to the troops specially organized in the *Bando* (Kwanto) provinces with the sons and younger brothers of local officials. These became the nucleus of a military class which ultimately monopolized the profession of arms."—F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people, p.* 223.—"The boundary of the province of Mutsu, the region facing the Pacific, was pushed northward into the middle of the present province of Rikuchu [by Tamuramaro]. Enterprising Japanese settled in those lands or travelled to and fro in quest of trade. The Ainu, however, was not completely subjugated, nor was he easily driven away out of the main island. Beyond Shirakawa, the place which had for a long time been considered the northernmost limit of civilised Japan, numerous hordes of half-domesticated Ainu continued to reside as before. As the result of the constant contact with the Japanese, they were slowly influenced by the civilisation which the latter had already acquired. They could consolidate their forces under the leadership of some valiant chiefs, and frequently dared to rise against oppressive governors sent from Kyoto. In short, they proved to be intractable as ever, so that more than three centuries were still necessary to put their land in the same status as the ordinary Japanese province. The interminable wars and skirmishes waged thenceforth between the two races were one of the principal causes of the financial embarrassment of the government at Kyoto, and finally undermined its power."—K. Hara, *Introduction to the history of Japan, pp.* 147-148.—During this period Chinese learning and literature had a strong influence upon Japan, which produced a lasting effect. "The fact that the metropolis at Changan was taken for model in building Kyoto prepares us to find that intercourse with the Middle Kingdom was frequent and intimate. But although China under the Tang dynasty in the ninth century presented many industrial, artistic, and social features of an inspiring and attractive nature, her administrative methods had begun to fall into disorder, which discredited them in Japanese eyes. We find, therefore, that although renowned religionists went from Japan during the reign of Kwammu and familiarized themselves thoroughly with the Tang civilization, they did not, on their return, attempt to popularize the political system of China, but praised only her art, her literature, and certain forms and conceptions of Buddhism which they found at Changan. The most celebrated of these religionists were Saicho and Kukai—immortalized

under their posthumous names of Dengyo and Kobo *Daishi*, respectively. The former went to Changan in the train of the ambassador, Sugawara Kiyokimi, in 802, and the latter accompanied Fujiwara Kuzunomaro, two years later. Saicho was specially sent to China by his sovereign to study Buddhism, in order that, on his return, he might become lord-abbot of a monastery which his Majesty had caused to be built on . . . a hill on the northeast of the new palace in Kyoto. . . . Down to that time the Buddhist doctrine preached in Japan had been of a very dispiriting nature. It taught that salvation could not be reached except by efforts continued through three immeasurable periods of time. But Saicho acquired a new doctrine in China. From the monastery of Tientai (Japanese, Tendai) he carried back . . . a creed that salvation is at once attainable by a knowledge of the Buddha nature, and that such knowledge may be acquired by meditation and wisdom. That was the basic conception, but . . . it became 'a system of Japanese eclecticism, fitting the disciplinary and meditative methods of the Chinese sage to the pre-existing foundations of earlier sects.' . . . The Tendai system became the parent of nearly all the great sects subsequently born in Japan. . . . The Buddhas of Contemplation, by whose aid the meditation of absolute truth is rendered possible, suggested the idea that they had frequently been incarnated for the welfare of mankind, and from that theory it was but a short step to the conviction that 'the ancient gods whom the Japanese worshipped are but manifestations of these same mystical beings, and that the Buddhist faith had come, not to destroy the native Shinto, but to embody it into a higher and more universal system. From that moment the triumph of Buddhism was secured.' It is thus seen that the visit of Saicho (Dengyo *Daishi*) to China at the beginning of the ninth century and the introduction of the Tendai creed into Japan constitute landmarks in Japanese history."—F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people, pp.* 227-228.

Also in: A. K. Reischauer, *Studies in Japanese Buddhism, pp.* 89-102.

"It was in the reign of Kwammu that the posthumous names now used for all the emperors, from Jimmu down to Kwammu's predecessor, were selected by a famous scholar."—E. W. Clement, *Short history of Japan, p.* 32.—The *Daiho* legislators at the beginning of the eighth century enacted a code "(*ryo*) and a penal law (*ritsu*), supplemented these with a body of official rules (*kyaku*) and operative regulations (*shiki*). The necessity of revising these rules and regulations was appreciated by the Emperor Kwammu, but he did not live to witness the completion of the work. . . . Ten volumes of the rules and forty of the regulations were issued in 819. . . . Here, then, was a sufficiently precise and comprehensive body of administrative guides. But men competent to utilize them were not readily forthcoming. The provincial governors and even the metropolitan officials, chosen from among men whose qualifications were generally limited to literary ability or aristocratic influence, showed themselves incapable of dealing with the lawless conditions existing in their districts. This state of affairs had been noticeable ever since the reign of Shomu (724-749), but not until the time of Saga was a remedy devised. It took the form of organizing a body of men called *kebiishi*, upon whom devolved the duty of pursuing and arresting lawbreakers. . . . In 830, a *Kebiishi-cho* (Board of *Kebiishi*) was duly formed. . . . The *bushi* (military men) in the hereditary service of these high dignitaries . . . [were] entrusted—under the name of *tsuiho-shi*—with the duty of enforcing the law against all violators. Ultimately the judicial functions hitherto discharged by the *Efu* (Guard Office), the *Danjodai* (Police Board) and the *Gyobu-sho* (Department of Justice) were all transferred to the *Kebiishi-cho*, and the latter's orders ranked next to Imperial decrees. These *kebiishi* and *tsuiho-shi* have historical importance. They represent the unequivocal beginning of the military class which was destined ultimately to impose its sway over the whole of Japan. Their institution was also a distinct step towards transferring the conduct of affairs, both military and civil, from the direct control of the sovereign to the hands of officialdom. The Emperor's power now began to cease to be initiative and to be limited to sanction or veto. The *Kurando-dokoro* was the precurser of the *kwampaku;* the *Kebiishi-cho*, of the *so-tsuihoshi.*" —F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people, pp.* 231-232.—"The people's chief occupation in those days was agriculture. . . . The Empresses Jito (690-696) and Gensho (715-725) took steps to encourage the cultivation of barley, Indian corn, wheat, sesamum, turnips, peaches, oranges, and chestnuts. Tea, buckwheat and beans were added to this list during the first half of the ninth century, and it is thus seen that Japan possessed at an early date all her staple bread-stuffs, except the sweet potato and the pear. The Empresses mentioned above and the Emperors of their era devised several measures to encourage agriculture,—such as granting free tenure of waste land or bestowing rewards on its cultivators, making loans of money for works of irrigation, and munificently recognising the services of officials in provinces where farming flourished, or punishing them when it fell into neglect,—and adopted precautions against famine by requiring every farmer to store a certain quantity of millet annually. In all ages the Japanese Court showed itself keenly solicitous for the welfare of the people, and its solicitude was fully shared by its *protégés*, the Buddhist priests. If at one time an Emperor Tenchi (668-671) remitted all taxes for three years, until signs of returning prosperity were detected, or an imperial prince (Yoshimune, 803) invented the water-wheel, at another Buddhist prelates of the highest rank travelled about the country, and showed the people how to make roads, build bridges, construct reservoirs, and dredge rivers. Stud farms and cattle pastures were among the institutions of the era, so that, on the whole, agriculture must be said to have reached a tolerably high standard."—F. Brinkley, *Japan, v.* 1, *p.* 122-124.—Kwammu was followed by three of his sons Heijo, Saga and Junna, in succession, each of whom abdicated. During these three reigns the influence of the Fujiwara greadually increased, and when Junna abdicated in 833 in favor of Nimmyo, a son of Saga, the power of the emperor came to an end.

833-1050.—Creation of Kwampaku.—Attempt by Daigo to reduce power of Fujiwara.—Laxity of rule.—Social conditions.—The immediate successors of Junna are little more than names. Uda, (887-897) is memorable, however, as having created the office of *Kwampaku* in favor of Motosuma Fujiwara, to whose influence he owed his crown. The *Kwampaku*, actually the regent for the emperor, carried on the administration, and was merely required to make a report of business transacted to the emperor. After his abdication, and the death of Motosuma, however, Uda in conjunction with his son and successor Daigo endeavored to replace the Tokihira Fujiwara by Sugawara Michi-

zane, a famous litterateur, who had been Uda's teacher, and had gained great influence over him. In 900 Daigo and his father sought to appoint Michizane chancellor. The attempt failed. The *Kwampaku* Fujiwara proved to be too strong, and in the event Michizane fell into disgrace. Uda was refused admittance to the palace; when he went to remonstrate with his son, Michizane was stripped of everything; his family was scattered and it is said that in 903 he died in poverty, on the island of Kyushu to which he had been banished. When Tokihira Fujiwara died, Daigo refused to appoint a successor to him, and himself administered the state. "The Emperor Daigo, who ruled thirty-two years—from 898 to 930—is brought very close to us by the statement of a contemporary historian that he was 'wise, intelligent, and kind-hearted,' and that he always wore a smiling face, his own explanation of the latter habit being that he found it much easier to converse with men familiarly than solemnly. . . . Partly because of his debonair manner and charitable impulses he is popularly remembered as 'the wise Emperor of the *Engi* era.' But close readers of the annals do not fully endorse that tribute. They note that Daigo's treatment of his father, Uda, on the celebrated occasion of the latter's visit to the palace to intercede for Michizane, was markedly unfilial; that his Majesty believed and acted upon slanders which touched the honour of his father no less than that of his well-proved servant, and that he made no resolute effort to correct the abuses of his time, even when they had been clearly pointed out. . . . The usurpations of the Fujiwara; the prostitution of Buddhism to evil ends; the growth of luxurious and dissipated habits, and the subordination of practical ability to pedantic scholarship—these four malignant growths upon the national life found no healing treatment at Daigo's hands."—F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people, p.* 248.—With the exception of this attempt by Daigo to break their power, the Fujiwara continued their rule, in the name of the emperor, and monopolized nearly all the important offices of the government until about 1050. "The fact is that the Fujiwara were a natural outcome of the situation. The Tang systems, which Kamatari, the great founder of the family, had been chiefly instrumental in introducing, placed in the hands of the sovereign powers much too extensive to be safely entrusted to a monarch qualified only by heredity. . . . So long as men like Kotoku Tenchi, and Temmu occupied the throne, the Tang polity showed no flagrant defects. But when the exercise of almost unlimited authority fell into the hands of a religious fanatic like Shomu, or a licentious lady like Koken, it became necessary either that the principle of heredity should be set aside altogether, or that some method of limited selection should be employed. It was then that the Fujiwara became a species of electoral college, not possessing, indeed, any recognized mandate from the nation, yet acting in the nation's behalf to secure worthy occupants for the throne. . . . Contemporaneously with the rise of the Fujiwara to the highest places within reach of a subject, an important alteration took place in the status of Imperial princes. . . . According to the *Daika* legislation, not only sons of sovereigns but also their descendants to the fifth generation were classed as members of the Imperial family and inherited the title of 'Prince' (O). Ranks (*hon-i*) were granted to them and they often participated in the management of State affairs. But no salaries were given to them; they had to support themselves with the proceeds of sustenance fiefs. The Emperor Kwammu was the first to break away from this time-honoured usage. He reduced two of his own sons, born of a non-Imperial lady, from the *Kwobetsu* class to the *Shimbetsu,* conferring on them the *uji* names of Nagaoka and Yoshimine, and he followed the same course with several of the Imperial grandsons, giving them the name of Taira. . . . The principal *uji* thus created were Nagaoka, Yoshimine, Ariwara, Taira, and Minamoto."—F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people, pp.* 204-205.—The administration of the Fujiwara outside of the capital, was extremely lax, or rather, they

MICHIZANE

had "neither power nor inclination to meddle with provincial administration, and . . . the districts distant from the metropolis were practically under the sway of military magnates in whose eyes might constituted right. . . . The *kebiishi* represented the really puissant arm of the law, the provincial governors, originally so powerful, having now degenerated into weaklings. . . . [Ono Yoshifuru, general of the guards, on his return (946) from an expedition against pirates in the Inland sea, made report that in Kyushu and Shikoku] 'those who pursue irregular courses are not necessarily sons of provincial governors alone. Many others make lawless use of power and authority; form confederacies; engage daily in military exercises; collect and maintain men and horses under pretext of

hunting game; menace the district governors; plunder the common people; violate their wives and daughters, and steal their beasts of burden and employ them for their own purposes, thus interrupting agricultural operations. Yesterday, they were outcasts, with barely sufficient clothes to cover their nakedness; to-day, they ride on horseback and don rich raiment. Meanwhile the country falls into a state of decay, and the homesteads are desolate. My appeal is that with the exception of provincial governors' envoys, any who enter a province at the head of parties carrying bows and arrows, intimidate the inhabitants, and rob them of their property, shall be recognized as common bandits and thrown into prison on apprehension.' "—*Ibid., pp.* 254-255.—At this time "the Fujiwara, together with a few other nobles of different lineage, including scions of the imperial family, monopolised almost all the wealth and power in the country. They kept a great number of slaves in their households, and held vast tracts of private estates, too. As to the land, they developed and cultivated the fields by the hands of their slaves or leased them for rent. Besides, they turned into private properties those lands of which they were legally allowed only the usufruct. By the reform legislation, the usufruct of a public land was granted to one who did much service to the state, but the duration of the right was limited to his life or at most to that of his grandchildren. None was permitted to hold the public land as a hereditary possession without time limit. It was by the infringement of these regulations that arbitrary occupation was realised. Another means of the aggrandisement of the estates of the nobles was a fraudulent practice on the part of the common people. Those who were independent landowners or legal leaseholders of public lands were liable to taxation, as may be supposed, and as the taxes and imposts of that time were pretty heavy, those landholders thought it wiser to alienate the land formally by presenting it to some influential nobles or some Buddhist temples, which came to be privileged, or asserted the right to be exempted from the burden of taxation. In reality, of course, those people continued to hold the land as before, and were very glad to see their burden much alleviated, for the tribute which they were obliged to pay to the nominal landlord by the transaction must have been less than the regular taxes which they owed to the government. Moreover, by this presentation they could enter under the protection of those nobles or temples, which was useful for them in defying the law, should need arise. The number of independent landholders thus gradually diminished by the renunciation of the legal right and duty on the part of the holders, and consequently the amount of the levied tax grew less and less. . . . In order to fill up the deficit, the burden was transferred, doubled or trebled, to those who remained longer honest, so that it soon became quite unbearable for them also. . . . Military service, too, was another grievance for the common people. They had to serve in the western islands against continental invaders, or on the northern frontier against the Ainu. Not only did they thereby risk their lives, but sometimes they were obliged to procure their provisions at their own cost, for the government could not afford it. If those people would once renounce their right of independence and turn voluntary vagabonds, then they could at once elude the military duty and the tax."—K. Hara, *Introduction to the history of Japan, pp.* 141-143.—The continental invaders who attempted to make a footing on the islands, in the eleventh century, were the Toi, a people who lived on the mainland opposite to Ezo. In 1019, when Go-Ichijo was on the throne, this people made a sudden descent on the island of Tsuchima, overran it, and then pushed on to the island of Iki. Here the governor made a stand but was defeated, and slain, and the invaders landed in Chikuzen. "It happened, fortunately, that Takaiye, younger brother of Fujiwara Korechika, was in command at the *Dazai-fu.* . . . He met the crisis with the utmost coolness, and made such skilful dispositions for defence that, after three days' fighting, in which the Japanese lost heavily, Hakata remained uncaptured. High winds and rough seas now held the invaders at bay, and in that interval the coast defences were repaired and garrisoned, and a fleet of thirty-eight boats having been assembled, the Japanese assumed the offensive, ultimately driving the Toi to put to sea. A final attempt was made to effect a landing at Matsuura in the neighbouring province of Hizen, but, after fierce fighting, the invaders had to withdraw altogether. . . . Kyoto's attitude towards this incident was most instructive. When the first tidings of the invasion reached the capital, the protection of heaven was at once invoked by service at Ise and ten other shrines. But when, on receipt of news that the danger had been averted, the question of rewarding the victors came up for discussion, a majority of the leading statesmen contended that, as the affair had been settled before the arrival of an Imperial mandate at the *Dazai-fu,* no official cognizance could be taken of it. This view was ultimately overruled since the peril had been national, but the rewards subsequently given were insignificant, and the event clearly illustrates the policy of the Central Government . . . namely, that any emergency dealt with prior to the receipt of an Imperial rescript must be regarded as private, whatever its nature, and therefore beyond the purview of the law. A more effective method of decentralization could not have been devised. It was inevitable that, under such a system, the provincial magnates should settle matters to their own liking without reference to Kyoto, and that, the better to enforce their will, they should equip themselves with armed retinues [a fact that contributed to the rise of feudalism]. In truth, it is not too much to say that, from the tenth century, Japan outside the capital became an arena of excursions and alarms, the preservation of peace being wholly dependent on the ambitions of local magnates."—F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people, pp.* 262-263.

1050-1159.—Fall of the Fujiwara.—Reign of Sanjo II.—Cloistered emperors.—While the later generations of the Fujiwara were sinking into a life of slothfulness and ease, they were also providing a means for their own downfall. "Had the conditions existing in the Heian epoch prevailed throughout the whole country, Japan would doubtless have paid the penalty never escaped by a demoralised nation. But in proportion as the Court, the principal officials, and the noblemen in the capital, abandoned themselves to pleasure and neglected the functions of government, the provincial families acquired strength. The members of these families differed essentially from the aristocrats of Kyoto. They had no sympathy with the enervating luxury of city life, and if they chanced to visit the capital, they could not fail to detect the effeminacy and incompetence of the Court nobles. These latter, on the other hand, sought to win the friendship of the rustic captains in order to gain their protection against the priests, who defied the authority of the central government, against the autochthons [Ainu, or Yemeshi], whom the provincial soldiers had been specially organised in the eighth century to resist, and against insurrections

which occasionally occurred among sections of the military men themselves. The nation was, in effect, divided into three factions,—the Court nobles (*Kuge*), the military families (*Buke*), and the priests. The military men had at the outset no literary attainments: they knew nothing about the Chinese classics or the art of turning a couplet. Arms and armour were their sole study, and the only law they acknowledged was that of might. The central government, altogether powerless to control them, found itself steadily weakened not only by their frank indifference to its mandates, but also by the shrinkage of revenue that gradually took place as the estates of the local captains ceased to pay taxes to Kyoto. Had the Fujiwara family continued to produce men of genius and ambition, the capital would probably have struggled desperately against the growth of provincial autonomy. But the Fujiwara had fallen victims to their own greatness. By rendering their tenure of power independent of all qualifications to exercise it, they had ultimately ceased to possess any qualification whatever. The close of the Heian epoch found them as incapable of defending their usurped privileges as had been the patriarchal families upon whose ruins they originally climbed to supremacy. And, just as the decadence of the patriarchal families and the usurpation of the Fujiwara were divided by a temporary restoration of authority to the Throne, so the decadence of the Fujiwara and the usurpation of the military clans were separated by a similar rehabilitation of imperialism."—F. Brinkley, *Japan, v. 2, pp.* 1-3.—The date of the weakening of Fujiwara rule is frequently set at 1050; but it continued to function without apparent opposition for about twenty years longer. "With the accession of Sanjo II. in 1069, the Fujiwara autocracy received its first serious check. . . . The aged *Kwampaku,* who had misgoverned the State for half-a-century, now found it advisable to transfer his office to his younger brother, Norimichi. . . . Norimichi very soon made the discovery that the great office he held was nothing better than a dignified sinecure, for all the real work of directing the administration was undertaken by the new sovereign in person. Sanjo II., who had studied hard under Oye Tadafusa and other distinguished and able teachers, had acquired a statesmanlike grasp upon the pressing problems of the age; and when he ascended the throne at thirty-five he was ready with very drastic solutions of his own for some of them at least. He promptly established a new Council of his own—the *Kirokusho,* or Record Office—in which he presided personally, toiling from morning to night in the endeavour to restore efficiency to the administrative and judicial machinery. One of the earliest enactments of this new board was a decree for the confiscation of all manors erected since 1045; a little later it issued orders that the title-deeds of the *Sho-en* created before that date were to be produced; if there were no title-deeds, or if those produced were not in order, the estate was to be forfeited by the holder. . . . One of the chief evils lying at the root of the *Sho-en* menace was the extension of the Provincial Governors' tenure of office to a second, or even to a third or fourth term. In some cases governorships had become life-offices; in one or two instances they threatened to become hereditary. This was the reward for looking after the interests of the Kyoto Fujiwara in the provinces. Accordingly it was now enacted that no Governor should hold office for more than a single term. . . . Sanjo II.'s administration of four years (1068-1072) inflicted a blow on the prestige of the great clan from which it never recovered. Fujiwara *Sessho* and *Kwampaku* [both offices apparently had something of the nature of a regency] were frequently, indeed almost regularly, appointed; but during the following century these great offices were little more than honorary distinctions. Yet, after Sanjo II., the real power was not with the sovereign actually on the throne; it was the Ho-o, the Priest, or ex-Emperor who really directed affairs. . . . If Sanjo II. had continued to sway the fortunes of the Empire for thirty or forty, instead of for three or four years, it is possible to conceive that Japan would never have been ruled by Shoguns. But the accumulated evils of generations had become too deeply seated to be eradicated in such a brief reign as his proved to be. Unfortunately for the best interests of his subjects, Sanjo II. died at the early age of thirty-nine, in 1073. In the previous year, he had abdicated and placed his eldest son, a youth of nineteen, on the throne as Shirakawa Tenno, his intention being to govern through him. Shirakawa was titular Sovereign for no more than fourteen years (1072-1086); but he was the real ruler of the Empire down to his death forty-three years later on, in 1129. He was not the first Cloistered Emperor; but he was the first Cloistered Emperor who continued to direct the administration after receiving the tonsure.

"During the twenty years' reign of Shirakawa's son Horikawa (1087-1107), the sixteen years of his grandson Toba (1107-1123), and the first six years of his great-grandson, Sutoku (1124-1141), the titular Emperor wielded no authority. Then, on Shirakawa's death, his grandson, Toba Tenno, who had abdicated and become a Cloistered Emperor six years before, stepped into his position and really governed down to his decease in 1156, his two sons who meanwhile occupied the throne in succession being no more than figure-heads. Shirakawa II., another son of Toba's, succeeded to the throne in the year of his father's death (his elder brother, the ex-Emperor Sutoku, being still alive); and after a few months on the throne he also became a Cloistered Emperor who aspired to rule the State. But the day of Cloistered Emperors was past. Although Shirakawa II. continued to be a very prominent figure in Japanese history down to his decease in 1192, he was at no time the real ruler of the country, for from 1156 onwards Japan was governed not by the sceptre, but by the sword. In that year the great military family of the Taira became all-powerful; the years between 1181 and 1185 saw its overthrow and the swift rise of the rival house of Minamoto to supremacy. When a Japanese speaks of the rule of the Cloistered Emperors (*Insei*), he refers to Shirakawa I. and his grandson Toba. These really governed Japan from 1073 to 1156—a period of 83 years, during the first fourteen of which Shirakawa I. was not cloistered, but titular Sovereign. . . . Shirakawa I., the Cloistered Emperor, maintained a Court of his own, with officials and guards and all the state that surrounded the actual occupant of the throne. Moreover,—and this was the most important point of all,—he established in his retreat an administrative and judicial council of his own, at the head of which stood a *Betto;* and it was by this machinery, and not by the old Council of State with its subordinate eight boards, that the Empire was now actually controlled. The Dajokwan (Council of State) still issued its decrees. Where they did not clash with those emanating from the Chancery of the ex-Emperor they were valid; but in case of any conflict it was the ordinances sealed by the *In Betto* that carried supreme authority. Shirakawa thus contrived to seize and to retain the power that had been wielded by the Fujiwara for

generations; and so far succeeded in correcting one very grave abuse of long-standing. But the special remedy he provided for this evil gave rise to others infinitely worse. . . . With conflicting decrees and ordinances emanating from two rival chanceries . . . the rise of two new parties,—an Emperor's and an ex-Emperor's faction,—could only be a question of time. Had Shirakawa been a statesman of the calibre of his father, Sanjo II., the results of the *Insei* system might have very well proved much less disastrous than they ultimately did. But whatever he may have been, a statesman Shirakawa was emphatically not. . . . Before this time the sale of offices had been not unknown; in fact it had occasionally assumed the proportions of a public scandal. But what had hitherto been an occasional practice now developed into a regular system. . . . [The provincial governors' offices] were allowed to become hereditary. Then the manor evil, which Sanjo II. had striven so hard to check, now became more pronounced than ever. . . . On Shirakawa's death in 1129, his grandson, the ex-Emperor Toba, stepped into his position, and Toba made it virtually impossible for any successor of his to create new Sho-en; for, before his demise, of the soil of the Empire not more than one per cent. remained under the jurisdiction of the Provincial Governors! Sovereign, ex-sovereigns, Empress, Imperial consorts, Crown Prince, Fujiwara and other courtiers alike drew the bulk, indeed, almost the whole of their revenues, from their manors, [a condition which] was virtually to remain till the Revolution, or Restoration, of 1868. It was mainly the rise and spread of the manorial system that brought about the fall of the centralised government established by the Reformers of 645. It is to this that the decay and long eclipse of the august line of the Sun-Goddess, so much deplored by Japanese historians, is to be chiefly attributed. Such being the case, it is neither the Fujiwaras, nor the Tairas, nor the Minamotos, nor the Hojos, nor the Ashikaga, nor the Tokugawas that must be saddled with the wite. The Sho-en system began to be a danger under the three learned Emperors, Saga, Junna, and Nimmyo (811-850); it effectually and finally paralysed the old centralised administration under Shirakawa I. and Toba I. None of these five sovereigns were fools; not one of them was a weakling, for without exception they all had wills of their own, and when determined to have their own way, they almost invariably succeeded in making opponents bend to their purposes. But when a Japanese sovereign aspires to rule as well as to reign, it is well for him to be equipped with all the wisdom and attributes of a statesman. Of the one hundred and seven scions of the Sun-Goddess who have occupied the throne of Japan since the days of Nintoku Tenno, four, and four only, have shown themselves to have been so provided. These are Tenchi, Kwammu, Sanjo II., and Mutsuhito, who is probably the greatest of the four."—J. Murdoch, *History of Japan, v. 1, pp. 274-280.*

Also in: H. Saito, *History of Japan, pp. 72-73.*

1159-1199. — Genpei, or Taira-Minamoto period.—Rule of Kiyomori.—Battle of Dan-no-ura.—Yoritomo, first of the Shoguns.—Shogun capital at Kamakura.—Feudal system.—"The name of this era is a compound of Gen, meaning Minamoto, and Hei, meaning Taira. The former of these clans was known by its white flags and the latter by its red flags; so that one is naturally reminded of the Wars of the Roses in England. . . . This period is a very short one, but its four decades include events of intense interest. And this brief era must be subdivided into two periods: one that of Taira Supremacy (1159-1185), and the other that of Minamoto Supremacy (1185-1199). This is, moreover, the beginning of military domination and the conclusion of civil imperialism, which thereafter generally existed only in name until the Restoration of 1868. But the usurpations of the Taira, the Minamoto, and later of the Tokugawa differed from that of the Fujiwara, . . . in that these families based their power 'on the possession of armed strength which the throne had no competence to control'; governed 'in spite of the Emperor'; and 'transferred the center of political gravity to a point altogether outside the Court, the headquarters of a military feudalism.'"—E. W. Clement, *Short history of Japan, p. 40.*—"The military families of Minamoto (*Gen*) and Tairo (*Hei*), [both of whom were descended from the emperors] performing the duties of guards and of police, gradually acquired influence; were trusted by the Court on all occasions demanding an appeal to force, and spared no pains to develop the qualities that distinguished them—the qualities of the *bushi*. . . . The disposition of the Central Government was to leave the provincial nobles severely alone, treating their feuds and conflicts as wholly private affairs. Thus, these nobles being cast upon their own resources for the protection of their lives and properties, retained the services of *bushi*, arming them well and drilling them assiduously, to serve as guards in time of peace and as soldiers in war. One result of this demand for military material was that the helots of former days were relieved from the badge of slavery and became hereditary retainers of provincial nobles, nothing of their old bondage remaining except that their lives were at the mercy of their masters. . . . As the provincial families grew in numbers and influence they naturally extended their estates, so that the landed property of a great sept sometimes stretched over parts, or even the whole, of several provinces. In these circumstances it became convenient to distinguish branches of a sept by the names of their respective localities and thus, in addition to the sept name (*uji* or *sei*), there came into existence a territorial name (*myoji* or *shi*). For example, when the descendants of Minamoto no Yoshiiye acquired great properties at Nitta and Ashikaga in the provinces of Kotsuke and Shimotsuke, they took the territorial names of Nitta and Ashikaga, remaining always Minamoto; and when the descendants of Yoshimitsu, younger brother of Yoshiiye, acquired estates in the province of Kai, they began to call themselves Takeda. . . . In its attitude towards these two families the Court showed shortsighted shrewdness. It pitted one against the other. If the Taira showed turbulence, the aid of the Minamoto was enlisted; and when a Minamoto rebelled, a Taira received a commission to deal with him. Thus, the Throne purchased peace for a time at the cost of sowing, between the two great military clans, seeds of discord destined to shake even the Crown. In the capital the *bushi* served as palace guards; in the provinces they were practically independent."—F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people, pp. 287-288.*—The opportunity for an attempt to seize the reins of government came during the period of the cloistered emperors.—"Shirakawa and his immediate successors who followed . . . [the] system of dual imperialism, if for a moment they enjoyed the sweets of administrative authority, must be said to have invited the vicissitudes that afterwards befell the Throne. In truth, to whatever trait of national character the fact may be ascribable, history seems to show that unlimited monarchy is an impossible polity in Japan. . . .

The Taira had their headquarters in Kyoto, and their clans were paramount in the provinces near the capital. The Minamoto's sphere of influence was in the north and east. It was inevitable that these two should come into collision. The events that preluded the shock . . . sprang out of a dispute about the succession to the throne."—F. Brinkley, *Japan, v.* 2, *pp.* 4-5.—"The Emperor Toba, who succeeded to the throne in A. D. 1108 at the age of six, abdicated in A.D. 1123 at the age of twenty-six. Both his father, the ex-Emperor Horikawa, and his grandfather, the ex-Emperor Shirakawa, were still living in retirement. He was succeeded by his son the Emperor Shutoku in A. D. 1124, then six years old, who after reigning seventeen years abdicated. He had a son but was succeeded A. D. 1142 by his brother Konoye who was four years of age. This mature youth reigned thirteen years and died without abdicating. On his death-bed he adopted as the crown prince his brother Go-Shirakawa, thus displacing the lineal heir. The succession was now bitterly disputed. The Minamoto chiefly espoused the cause of the displaced heir, while Kiyomori . . . [leader of] the Taira together with Minamoto-no-Yoshitomo supported Go-Shirakawa. In a battle fought A.D. 1156 Kyomori won the victory. This victory raised him to a pinnacle of power."—D. Murray, *Japan, p.* 134.—"Kiyomori became the autocrat of the hour. . . . [He] was a man of splendid courage and audacity, but originality and political insight were not among his gifts. Nothing shrewder suggested itself to him than to follow the example of the Fujiwara by placing minors upon the Throne. He caused one Emperor to retire at the age of five, and he put the sceptre into the hands of another at the age of eight. He filled all the high offices with his own people; made himself Prime Minister; his eldest son, Minister of the Interior, and his second son, Junior Minister of State. He organised a band of three hundred lads who went about the city in disguise to report any one that spoke ill of the Taira, and the results of such reports were so terrible that people learned to say 'not to be a Taira is to be reckoned a beast.' He brought his mailed hand down with relentless force on the Buddhist priests when they took up arms against the Taira at the instigation of an ex-Emperor, and he did not hesitate to seize the person of the ex-Emperor himself and place him in confinement. He showed equally scant consideration for the Fujiwara nobles, whom the prestige of long association with the Throne had rendered sacred in the eyes of the nation: some he deprived of their posts; others of their lands, and others he put to death. He set the torch to temples and levied taxes on the estates of *Shinto* shrines. Nothing deterred him; nothing was suffered to thwart his plans, and the Taira chiefs in the provinces followed his arbitrary example. Such a government was not likely to last long. Twenty-two years measured its life. Then the Minamoto rose in arms and triumphed completely under the leadership of Yoritomo, who had fought as a boy of thirteen in the battle that established the supremacy of his father's foes, the Taira. The fall of the latter happened in the last quarter of the twelfth century. It is remarkable as the complete establishment of military feudalism in Japan."—F. Brinkley, *Japan, v.* 2, *pp.* 5-6.—Yoritomo was the son of a Minamoto noble, Yoshitomo, who at first sided with Kiyomori; but later conspired against the tyrant, and was assassinated by his orders. Yoritomo escaped the general destruction of Yoshitomo's family, married the daughter of Hojo Tokimasa, a Taira noble, who had been appointed one of his wardens, and induced his father-in-law to join him in an effort to overthrow the Taira. His first attempt ended in disaster; but fortunately for his plans, the tyrant Kiyomori died in 1181, and was succeeded by his son Munimori, a weaker man. Yoritomo, who was ably assisted by a younger half-brother, Yoshitsune, and a cousin, Yoshinaka, was completely successful in overturning the Taira supremacy. Munimori fled from the capital with the infant emperor Antoku, and endeavored to reach the island of Kyushu. They were overtaken, however, at Dan-no-ura near Shimonoseki where the most famous naval battle in the early history of Japan was fought. The youthful emperor was drowned by his grandmother, the widow of Kiyomori, to save him from falling into the hands of the Minamoto; and the great mass of the Taira army was destroyed. Moreover after this victory Yoritomo began a process of extermination in an effort completely to wipe out the Taira clan. Toward his brother, the hero of Dan-no-ura he felt no gratitude, and

KIYOMORI

forbade him to enter the capital. Shortly afterward the younger man met death by the hand of an assassin who hoped to gain the approval of Yoritomo by compassing the death of a potential rival. After these events, Yoritomo "at the head of an irresistible army, became dictator of the Empire. From the emperor he received the title of Sei-i-tai-Shogun—Barbarian-repressing-Generalissimo. The term Shogun was an old one. It simply meant general, and had for ages been given to the leaders of troops in the field, either against the savage armies on the northern frontiers or insurgents in Kiushiu, when the emperor did not command in person, but Yoritomo was the first to receive it with the addition of Tai-great, and to become *the* Shogun, the paramount lord of all the subjects of the Emperor. Fortified with his title, with all the military strength of the Empire at his command, he soon showed that he meant his authority to be no empty word. From the capital, which he founded at Kamakura, which under his fostering care soon grew into a large and flourishing city, he ruled the whole Empire with iron absolutism as the Vicegerent of the Heaven-descended Emperor, in whose name he always professed to act, from

whose commission all his legal authority was derived. In this way the dual system of government began which was a subject of much bewilderment to Europeans, both in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries and, in our own days, in the nineteenth century, until the investigations of English scholars furnished the means of acquiring a knowledge of Japanese history and of the principles of Japanese statecraft. At Kioto, there was always the Emperor, the legitimate sovereign, the sole legal source of honour and of all authority, sacred as the descendant of the gods in the eyes of all his subjects, but as powerless in fact as he was supreme in name. At Kamakura firstly, after its fall at Kioto, and later at Yedo, was the Shogun, the vassal of the Emperor but the *de facto* ruler of the Empire, rich and powerful, living in such splendour, dignity and

MINAMOTO YORITOMO

authority that he was believed by Europeans to be the Emperor and was always mentioned and treated by them as such."—J. H. Longford, *Japan of the Japanese, pp.* 31-32.—"At Kamakura Yoritomo gathered the official records, tax-rolls, and land-titles. He set up a Council of State and Tribunals, which soon brought order in the empire and dispensed justice to all the people. His first problem was the limitation of armaments. He gave notice that 'in all matters concerning the military class, the wishes of the cloistered Emperor should be obeyed,' and petitioned the reigning Mikado to allow him to apportion rewards and to 'prohibit the priests from wearing arms.' He prayed the Emperor that five men of his own family name might be made military governors in as many provinces. This petition was granted. The Yezo Daikwan had charge of all the Ainu and affairs in the far north. The functionary representing the shogun dwelt at Tsugaru and guarded against raids from Yezo island, which in later time was occupied at Matsumae by a garrison. The result of Yoritomo's programme was twofold. Japan had a strong administration, and great power was thrown into the hands of Yoritomo, who was thus enabled to cloak his own ambitions under the forms of law. The East land was kept in order under his own hand. He and his astute father-in-law Hojo further elaborated a plan for tranquillizing the whole empire. Under the idea that this was a measure provisionally taken with a view to the quick restoration of order after war, due confirmation was made at Kioto. But with Yoritomo the plan was meant to be a fixture. His idea was to establish in each province, along with the civil governor, a 'Protector,' and in each district a *jito,* or military assistant. . . . Yoritomo also asked for authority to levy a new tax, not only in the Inner Country, but in the four western and southern circuits, for the maintenance of troops. He meekly requested that he should be allowed to reward his relatives the Minamoto, who had done meritorious service, by appointing them to be the military governors, and that they should be under his own immediate orders. This also was granted by Imperial decree. This was the pivotal event in the rise of the feudal system in Japan, for it ended the Theocratic or Imperial period of Japanese history. To foreshorten a long perspective, we have only to say that in course of time these military governors became real province rulers, obtaining the whole authority and expelling the civilians. The military magistrates of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries became the progenitors of the great daimios, such as those of Satsuma, Choshiu, Echizen, Sendai, and others whose names appeal so notably as factors all through the following centuries."—W. E. Griffis, *Japanese nation in evolution, pp.* 200-202.

"Japan, of all the Asiatic nations, seems to have brought the feudal system to the highest state of perfection. Originating and developing at the same time as in Europe, it became the constitution of the nation and the condition of society in the seventeenth century. When in Europe the nations were engaged in throwing off the feudal yoke and inaugurating modern government, Japan was riveting the fetters of feudalism, which stood intact until 1871. . . . The growth of feudalism in Japan took shape and form from the early division of the officials into civil and military. . . . The Fujiwara controlled all the civil offices, and at first, in time of emergency, put on armor, led their troops to battle, and braved the dangers of war and the discomforts of the camp. In time, however, this great family, yielding to . . . sloth and luxury, . . . ceased to take the field themselves, and delegated the uncongenial tasks of war to certain members of particular noble families. Those from which the greatest number of shoguns were appointed were the Taira and Minamoto, that for several centuries held the chief military appointments. As luxury, corruption, intrigue, and effeminacy increased at the capital . . . the War Department became disorganized, and the generals at Kioto lost their ability to enforce their orders. Many of the peasants . . . [had] been promoted to the permanent garrison of household troops. . . . Returning to their homes with the prestige of having been in the capital, they intrigued for power in their native districts, and gradually obtained rule over them. . . .' Thus was formed a class of men who called themselves warriors, and were ever ready to serve a great leader for pay. . . . Disorder often rose to such a pitch that it was necessary for the court to interfere, and . . . the shogun, instead of waiting to recruit

his army in the regular manner . . . had immediate recourse to others of these veteran 'warriors,' who were already equipped, and eager for a fray. Frequent repetition of the experience of the relation of brothers in arms, of commander and commanded, of rewarder and rewarded, gradually grew into that of lord and retainers. Each general had his special favorites and followers, and the professional soldier looked upon his commander as the one to whom his allegiance was directly due. . . . The power of the sword was, as early as the twelfth century, lost to the court, which then attempted, by every means in its power, to cherish the rising influence of the military families and classes. . . . Finally, when the Minamoto, Yoriyoshi, and Yoshiiye conquered all the north of Hondo, and kept in tranquillity the whole of the Kuanto for fifteen years, . . . the court ignored their achievements. When they petitioned for rewards to be bestowed on their soldiers, the . . . nobles composing the court not only neglected to do so, but . . . dishonored their achievements by speaking of them as 'private feuds.' Hence they took the responsibility, and conferred upon their soldiers grants of the conquered land in their own name. The Taira followed the same policy in the south and west. When Yoritomo became Sei-i Tai Shogun at Kamakura, erected the dual system, and appointed a military with a civil governor of each province in the interest of good order, feudalism assumed national proportions. . . . At the end of the Hojo domination, the court had lost the government of the provinces, and the kuge (court nobles) had been despoiled and impoverished by the buke (military). So thoroughly had feudalism become the national polity, that in the temporary mikadoate, 1534-1536, the Emperor Go-Daigo rewarded those who had restored him by grants of land for them to rule in their own names as his vassals. Under the Ashikagas, the hold of even the central military authority, or chief daimio, was lost, and the empire split up into fragments. Historians have in vain attempted to construct a series of historical maps of this period. The pastime was war—a game of patchwork in which land continually changed possessors. . . . As the authority of the court grew weaker and weaker, the allegiance which all men owed to the mikado, and which they theoretically acknowledged, was changed into loyalty to the military chief. Every man who bore arms was thus attached to some 'great name' (daimio), and became a vassal (kerai). The agricultural, and gradually the other classes, also put themselves, or were forcibly included, under the protection of some castle lord or nobleman having an armed following. The taxes, instead of being collected for the central government, flowed into the treasury of the local rulers. This left the mikado and court without revenue. . . . The daimios spent their revenues on their retainers, their personal pleasures, and in building castles. . . . The strictest vigilance was maintained at the castle-gates, and a retainer of another daimio, however hospitably entertained elsewhere, was never allowed entrance into the citadel. A minute code of honor, a rude sort of chivalry, and an exalted sense of loyalty were the growth of the feudal system."—W.E.Griffis, *Mikado's empire, v.* 1, *pp.* 214-217.—"There was also another feature of feudalism which interfered with the development of communications and of trade. This was the position of the farmer. In the province of Satsuma, besides the ordinary farming class, there were *sumarai* farmers, and similarly in certain districts of the province of Mito there was a special class of yeoman farmers, who enjoyed some of the privileges of the *samurai*. But throughout the country generally, the bulk of the agricultural class consisted of peasant farmers who, while cultivating their land on conditions similar to what is known in Europe as the *métayage* system, were in many respects little better than serfs. The peasant farmer could not leave his holding and go elsewhere, as he pleased; nor could he dispose of his interest in it, though there is reason to think that the law in this respect was sometimes evaded. He was subjected to certain restrictions both in regard to the nature of the crops to be cultivated and their rotation, and in the sale of his produce he was hampered by the action of the clan guilds. But if he belonged in a sense to the land, the land also in a sense belonged to him, and if he was transferable with it when it passed into the possession of another feudal proprietor, he was, on the other hand, under the feudal form of ownership which existed, practically free from disturbance in his holding so long as he paid his rent when it was due, and other imposts when they were exacted."—J. H. Gubbins, *Progress of Japan, pp.* 35-36.

1199-1333.—Hojo, or Kamakura period.—Rule of regents.—"This era might be named 'Hojo Usurpation.' . . . Yoritomo obtained for a wife Masago, the capable daughter of a noble named Hojo. When Yoritomo died, the truth was evident of that Japanese proverb, *Taisho ni tane ga nashi,* or, 'To a general there is no seed'; for, although he had children, there was no worthy heir. His son Yoriiye nominally succeeded as Shogun; but he preferred 'a life of pleasure and gayety' to the onerous duties of government. Therefore the administration of affairs naturally fell into the hands of his maternal grandfather, Hojo Tokimasa. Later there was established in connection with the Shogunate at Kamakura the office of Regent (*Shikken*), or Vice-Gerent, by whom the Empire was governed through a puppet Shogun of a puppet Emperor. This state of affairs continued for one and a third centuries, and was generally marked by cruelty and rapacity. The Hojo have never been forgiven for their arbitrary treatment of the Mikados. . . . This era is also called the Kamakura Period, because that place, founded by Yoritomo, became a second capital and the first center of influence. This is the name given to the period in Japanese literature; . . . and the subtitle, 'Decline of Learning,' characterizes the era."—E. W. Clement, *Short history of Japan, pp.* 47-48.—"By the thirteenth century the whole of Japan was in the hands of the military class. The more efficient the Kamakura administration, the worse for the nominal government at Kioto, where were the titles, honors, and dignities, together with fine clothes and luxury, poetry and art, priests and pretty women. On the whole, the country was well governed, and it was a time of great prosperity. It led all previous eras in the welding of the nation into unity. It is more than probable that the turbulent feudatories were better kept in hand for the benefit of peace and of the people at large than in contemporary countries of Europe. Native scholars declare that in economics, handicraft, the fine arts, and popular culture, the Hojo era was one of development. The propagation of Buddhism vastly improved the status of the serfs on the soil and the common people in the towns. From 1221 to 1318 there were eleven emperors, of whom five were under eight years of age, two were eleven, and none was over twenty-four. Of the puppet shoguns at Kamakura from 1220 to 1333, two were of Fujiwara stock, and four were emperors' sons. In 1319 the Emperor Go-Daigo came to the throne. A man of ability, he smarted at the indignities put on him by the Hojo men, who were in theory

servant of servants. Determined to assert the power of the Throne, he summoned his faithful followers Kusunoki, Ashikaga [Minamoto], and Nitta [Minamoto] to fight for him [but in 1327 he was deposed]. In 1333 Nitta Yoshida (1301-1338), a captain of Minamoto descent, marched with 20,000 men on Kamakura. On the cliff he stood and cast his sword into the waves, with a prayer to the gods to make the waters recede and afford him passage over the dry strand. This came to pass. He attacked and burned the city. Thousands of Hojo partisans committed hara-kiri, and the Hojo leaders were driven into obscurity."—W. E. Griffis, *Japanese nation in evolution, pp.* 221-222.

1274-1281.—Attempted invasion by Mongols. —"Complete tranquillity reigned in the western quarter [of Japan] for more than two centuries and a half until the first Mongolian invasion of 1274. . . . The expeditionary fleet of the Yuan consisted of more than nine hundred ships, with 15,000 Mongols and Chinese and 8,000 Koreans on board, besides 6,700 of the crews, so that it was too overwhelming in numbers even for . . . [the] valiant Japanese soldiers to fight against with some hope of victory. It was not by the valour of . . . [Japanese] soldiers alone, therefore, that the invasion was frustrated. The elements, the turbulent wind and wave, did virtually more than mere human efforts could have achieved in destroying the formidable enemy's ships. Irritated at this failure of the first expedition, Khubilai, the Emperor of Yuan, immediately ordered the preparation of another expedition on a far larger scale. The second invasion of Japan was undertaken at last in 1281, after an interval of seven years. This time the invading forces far outnumbered those of the first expedition, totalling more than one hundred thousand in all. On the other hand, the forces which the Shogunate could raise in the western provinces only proved this time plainly inadequate. Seeing this, Tokimune Hojo, who was the virtual master of the Shogunate, mobilised the retainers in the eastern provinces too, and sent them to the battlefield in Kyushu. A fierce battle was fought on the shore near Hakata. . . . [Japan's] soldiers made a desperate effort to prevent the landing of the enemy's troops, contending inch by inch against fearful odds, so that the Mongols could not complete their disembarkment, before a hurricane suddenly arose that swept away at least two-thirds of their men and ships. A lasting check was thus put upon the expansion of the triumphant Mongols on the east, just forty years after the Battle of Liegnitz in Silesia had been fought successfully by the Teutonic nobles on the west against the same foe. . . . What is more noteworthy, however, than anything else in this war was not the bravery of our forefathers, but the fact that men recruited from the eastern as well as from the western provinces of the empire fought for the first time side by side against the foreign invaders. Such a coöperation of the people from all quarters of Japan in defence of the country was not a sight which could have been witnessed before the establishment of the military régime, for until that time the unification of the Empire had not extended to the northern extremity of Honto, and for ninety years after the inauguration of the Shogunate at Kamakura, there had been no occasion for . . . [Japanese] warriors to try their fortune in arms against any foreign enemy. Now the Japanese were induced for the first time to feel the necessity for national solidarity, only because enterprising Khubilai dared to attack the island empire."—K. Hara, *Introduction to the history of Japan, pp.* 197-200.

Also in: W. E. Griffis, *Japanese nation in evolution, pp.* 212-214.

1334-1574. — Ashikaga period. — Rival emperors. — Civil Wars. — Feudal code. — Militant Buddhist priests.—"In the year 1334 the new turn which events had taken enabled the ex-Emperor Go-Daigo to occupy the throne, while his son, Moriyoshi, became the Shogun. The power of the Hojo family was no completely broken. . . . As a son of the Emperor fulfilled the high functions of Shogun, thus making it possible for that office to be brought within the scope of a properly exercised Imperial control, one might have imagined that an era of peace was assured to the feud-ridden land. It was not so. The conduct of the Emperor and his son, the Shogun, in affairs of State, was, if anything, worse than the last days of the Hojo rule."—L. Lawton, *Empires of the Far East, v.* 1, *pp.* 88-89.—"No such thing as a restoration of the Chinese system of boards and ministries, introduced in A.D. 645, was possible. . . . What had been provinces, properly administered by civil governors from the capital, were no longer real units of organization, but rather collections of fiefs or conceptions in geography. Withal, the country had been too peaceful and prosperous during seven score years to set aside a system so practically valuable. [Yet the immediate and pressing question was the reward of the Mikado's partisans.] As might be supposed, the award of spoils made by a Mikado who lived behind screens, seeing only dancing girls and Court favorites, proved unsatisfactory to the warriors. Not one of them could gain access to his presence, for only Fujiwara nobles of the Court had the right of looking upon the Dragon Countenance. In anger, the soldiers said, 'Better be vassals with a shogun, than puppets of those who amuse the Emperor.' [The imperial rule lasted but two years from 1334 to 1336. For] Ashikaga Takauji, making himself the leader of discontent, acted quickly with torch and sword. Accusing the Imperial Prince Moriata, then at Kamakura, of ambitions for the Throne, he had him assassinated. He then put himself in the dead man's place. When forces were sent against him from Kioto, Ashikaga defeated them, marched on the capital, occupied it, and drove out the Emperor, who fled into Yamato fastnesses."—W. E. Griffis, *Japanese nation in evolution, p.* 223.—"Ashikaga Takauji . . . subsequently nominated Kogen, the son of a former monarch, Go-Fushimi, as Mikado, and himself assumed a position as Grand Shogun at Kyoto and appointed his son as simple Shogun. An agreement concluded providing that the throne should be occupied alternately by the descendants of Go-Fushimi and Go-Daigo for periods lasting ten years was doomed to failure. At that time Go-Daigo was divested of sovereignty and his opponent had only just begun his limited reign. The ex-Mikado was therefore only human when he exhibited an impatience which soon developed a dispute. During the fourteenth century the heads of two branches of the Imperial family each claimed to be the rightful Mikado, and while the one reigned in the south, supported by the Nitta family, the other, whose cause was upheld by the Ashikagas, held court in the north."—L. Lawton, *Empires of the Far East, v.* 1, *pp.* 89, 90.—"For fifty-six years (from 1336 to 1392) [known as the Nambuko cho period] and near the time of the great schism in Europe and the 'Babylonian Captivity' of the popes at Avignon (1309 to 1376), there were two rival emperors in the northern and southern lines; the one in Kioto, the other in Yamato. Horrible intestine broils and destructive civil wars marked this period. Japan lay in a welter of an-

archy until the advent of the third shogun, Ashikaga Yoshimitsu, ablest of all the fourteen shoguns of this line. First giving order to Kiushiu and Western Japan, he composed the differences between the rival dynasties. . . . It was this Ashikaga Yoshimitsu (1368-1393) who made a new code of feudalism, and this gave the system a tremendous development. He helped to fix the codes in perpetuity, seemingly making it impossible for any return to the theocratic system. . . . In 1905 a volume of less than a thousand pages entitled 'Nihon-Kodai Hoten,' or the Ancient Statute Laws of Japan, was published in Tokio. Two-fifths of its bulk holds all the legislation of the preshogunal times, or the Imperial period, from 654 to A.D. 1192, while the laws of the feudal era fill three-fifths. The initial book of Japanese feudalism, a code of fifty-one articles promulgated at Kamakura, A.D. 1222, is the taproot of the whole subsequent growth of Japanese law. . . . When the Ashikaga inaugurated their dominion, the founder, in 1335, followed illustrious example in issuing a short code, which adopted the main results of the Hojo régime. This in time was developed in later centuries by various enactments into a body of law greatly exceeding in bulk the Ashikaga original. One of its noticeable features is that whereas the farmer under the theocratic period had to give up seven-tenths of the annual produce of his land in payment of taxes, Imperial and provincial, the Hojo reduced the rate to one-half. By this economic provision the peasantry were quieted and made happy, but not so the samurai or swordsmen, who had as yet no law but the will of their feudal superiors. Hence the practical study of the whole problem by Hojo Yasutoki. His code deals with the adjustments of the new government *de facto*, with the old government *de jure*, the grants, confirmations, successions, and distributions of the fiefs, and the crimes and offences which the newly evolved warrior caste were most prone to commit. Notable is the high position accorded to woman, for under the Hojo, females could hold fiefs, yes, even the wife separately from her husband. This made a very different situation from that fixed by the later Tokugawa, which, under the spell of Chinese ethical ideas, distinctly lowered the status of woman. . . . The radical measure, in the development of feudalism, inaugurated by Ashikaga, when he restored the military magistracies, was in making the governorships hereditary in the families of his own nominees. This meant that the men whom he appointed should be the founders of powerful families, whose names have survived the abolition of feudalism even to this day. After the great Yoshimitsu, third of his line, the Ashikaga shoguns, keeping the first syllable of their famous predecessor's name, called themselves Yoshi, Aki, Hisa, Katsu, *et cetera*. Following the same precedent, eleven of the Tokugawa shoguns in Yedo took the Iye in their names from Iyeyasu, founder of the line. . . . The Ashikaga . . . degraded the Emperor to lower depths. 'The chrysanthemum cowered under the blast.' The palace itself was sinking into ruins within sight of the golden pavilion of the shoguns. Yet the heads of their own house, whom they set up as regents, were, for the most part, puppets, or mere figure-heads. There being no central strength or visible exertion of power, it became the general fashion to seize land as a pastime. Bold warriors and clan chiefs sprang up all over the country as robber barons and land-thieves. The Ashikaga themselves governed only part of the country, and civil war never ceased. . . . The strongest organization in the empire during this period was the Buddhist priesthood. . . . Under the Hojo, the priests had been kept down, and for the most part disarmed, but after the fall of Kamakura the monks again became militant in a very literal sense. During the turmoil of the next two centuries, when might made right, the monastery was usually a castle garrisoned by ecclesiastics and their mercenaries. The land held under holy pretexts was divided into fiefs, rent being paid by military service."—W. E. Griffis, *Japanese nation in evolution, pp.* 224-229.—"Until 1573 the Ashikaga family ruled Japan in the capacity of successive Shoguns. 'Their court,' writes Chamberlain, 'was a centre of elegance at which painting flourished, and the lyric drama, and the tea ceremonies, and the highly intricate arts of gardening and flower arrangement. But they allowed themselves to sink into effeminacy and sloth, as the Mikados had done before them; and political authority, after being administered less by them than in their name, fell from them altogether in 1573, although the last representative of their line continued to bear the empty title of Shogun till his death in 1597.' . . . The last Shogun proper of the Ashikaga *régime* was deposed in 1574 by one of his former adherents, Ota Nobunaga, who, a descendant of the famous Taira family, was a man not only of considerable influence and following in the country, but also of vast hereditary possessions which included the capital. From this time till the Tokugawa dynasty no appointment was made to the office of Shogun. During the declining years of the Ashikaga Shogunate the first European made his appearance in Japan. In 1542 the vessel of a Portuguese named Mendez Pinto was driven thither by stress of weather."—L. Lawton, *Empires of the Far East, v.* 1, *p.* 90.

Also in: E. W. Clement, *Short history of Japan, p.* 56.

1542-1593.—First contact with the occident through Portuguese.—Work of Francis Xavier and the Jesuits.—Nobunaga's patronage of the Jesuits.—Hideyoshi's attempt to banish Jesuit priests while retaining Portuguese trade.—"The year of the birth of Mary Queen of Scots (1542) was an important one in the history of Japan. It was then that Iyeyasu, who was destined to put the coping-stone to the centralising work of his predecessors, Nobunaga, and Hideyoshi, and to give the whole of the country a government under which it should be at peace for two centuries and a half, was born. And it was probably in this year that Europeans made their first appearance in Japan. About the exact circumstance of this European discovery of Japan there is unfortunately a good deal of confusion and obscurity, and various dates ranging from 1534 to 1545 have been assigned for it. However, it appears that that given by Antonio Salvao (1542) was generally accepted by the missionaries subsequently in Japan as the correct one [i.e. that it was first discovered by three Portuguese sailors who were blown out of their course, and cast ashore at Tanegashima]. . . . When news of the discovery of the new islands reached the Portuguese settlements in China, the Straits, and elsewhere, expeditions were promptly fitted out to proceed to them from various bases —from Malacca among the rest. How many of these were set on foot during the next decade we are not aware; probably enough there were many of them, but of seven we know for certain. In 1543, we learn from Japanese sources, the Lusitanians came to Bungo, and some of them were sent on by the Daimyo to Kyoto accompanied by an officer named Saito. From a letter of Xavier's (November 5th, 1549), among other things urging the establishment of a Portuguese factory [trading

centre] at Sakai, we learn that before that date two Portuguese had seen Kyoto, which they reported to be a city of 96,000 houses, larger than Lisbon; and in an earlier epistle of his we are told that a certain Portuguese had lived 'a long time' in Satsuma previous to 1548. We hear of Captain da Gama's vessel at Hiji in Bungo in 1551; before 1549 there had been at least three separate voyages to Kagoshima, or at all events to Satsuma. These ventures have come to our knowledge mainly because they were all intimately connected with the introduction of Christianity into Japan, and so have all been referred to in the early missionary letters, and put on record by the historians of the Church. . . . As every one is supposed to know, it was Francis Xavier and his companions who were the pioneers of the many hundred Christian missionaries who laboured in Japan."—J. Murdoch and I. Yamagata, *History of Japan, pp.* 33, 38.—"The Apostle of the Indies, was both the leader and director of a widely spread missionary movement,

ST. FRANCIS XAVIER

conducted by a rapidly increasing staff, not only of Jesuits, but also of priests and missionaries of other orders, as well as of native preachers and catechists. Xavier reserved for himself the arduous task of travelling to regions as yet unvisited by any preachers of Christianity; and his bold and impatient imagination was carried away by the idea of bearing the Cross to the countries of the farthest East. The islands of Japan, already known to Europe through the travels of Marco Polo, had been reached by the Portuguese only eight years before, namely, in 1541, and Xavier, while at Malacca, had conversed with navigators and traders who had visited that remote coast. A Japanese, named Angero (Hansiro), pursued for homicide, had fled to Malacca in a Portuguese ship. He professed a real or feigned desire to be baptized, and was presented to Xavier at Malacca, who sent him to Goa. There he learned Portuguese quickly, and was baptized under the name of Paul of the Holy Faith. . . . Having carefully arranged the affairs of the Seminary of the Holy Faith at Goa and the entire machinery of the mission, Francis Xavier took ship for Malacca on the 14th April, 1549. On the 24th of June he sailed for Japan, along with Angero and his two companions, in a Chinese junk belonging to a famous pirate, an ally of the Portuguese, who left in their hands hostages for the safety of the apostle on the voyage. After a dangerous voyage they reached Kagosima, the native town of Angero, under whose auspices Xavier was well received by the governor, magistrates, and other distinguished people. The apostle was unable to commence his mission at once, though, according to his biographers, he possessed the gift of tongues. 'We are here,' he writes, 'like so many statues. They speak to us, and make signs to us, and we remain mute. We have again become children, and all our present occupation is to learn the elements of the Japanese grammar.' His first impressions of Japan were very favourable. . . . Xavier left Japan on the 20th November, 1551, after a stay of two years and four months. In his controversies with the Japanese, Xavier had been continually met with the objection—how could the Scripture history be true when it had escaped the notice of the learned men of China? It was Chinese sages who had taught philosophy and history to the Japanese, and Chinese missionaries who had converted them to Buddhism. To China, then, would he go to strike a blow at the root of that mighty superstition. Accordingly he sailed from Goa about the middle of April, 1552. . . . Being a prey to continual anxiety to reach the new scene of his labours, Xavier fell ill, apparently of remittent fever, and died on the 2nd of December, 1552. . . . The result of Xavier's labours was the formation of a mission which, from Goa as a centre, radiated over much of the coast of Asia from Ormuz to Japan. . . . The two missionaries, whom Xavier had left at Japan, were soon after joined by three others; and in 1556 they were visited by the Provincial of the Order in the Indies, Melchior Nunez, who paid much attention to the Japanese mission and selected for it the best missionaries, as Xavier had recommended. . . . The Jesuits attached themselves to the fortunes of . . . Bungo, a restless and ambitious prince, who . . . became master of a large part of the island of Kiusiu. In his dominions Christianity made such progress that the number of converts began to be counted by thousands. . . . The missionaries perseveringly sought to spread their religion by preaching, public discussion, the circulation of controversial writings, the instruction of the youth, the casting out of devils, the performance of those mystery plays so common in that age, by the institution of 'confréries' like those of Avignon, and, above all, by the well-timed administration of alms. Nor need we be surprised to learn that their first converts were principally the blind, the infirm, and old men one foot in the grave. There are, however, many proofs in their letters that they were able both to attract proselytes of a better class and to inspire them with an enthusiasm which promised well for the growth of the mission. In those early days the example of Xavier was still fresh; and his immediate successors seem to have inherited his energetic and self-denying disposition, though none of them could equal the great mental and moral qualities of the Apostle of the Indies. They kept at the same time a watchful eye upon the political events that were going on around them, and soon began to bear a part in them. The hostility between them and the Bonzes [Buddhist priests] became more and more bitter."—*Hundred years of Christianity in Japan* (*Quarterly Review, Apr.*, 1871). Against the enmity of the Bonzes the Jesuit priests found an ally in the great Shogun

Nobunaga, who was engaged in a quarrel with the Buddhist priesthood. "It is extremely interesting to arrive at an analysis of the motives which may have prompted the fierce and haughty and inaccessible Nobunaga to take the poor and ill-clad missionaries under his protection. . . . Apart from their religion, they could tell him much of the great world to the west and of its science, for they were men of a fine culture who had travelled far and with alertly observant eyes. Furthermore, they are men of an exquisite tact—a quality that was then, as it is now, appreciated nowhere more highly than in Japan. Nobunaga was quick to discern that he could afford to unbend in their presence without the slightest risk of compromising his dignity, or of meeting with any ill-bred presumption on their part. There was no need for him to be under any constraint when conversing with them, as there was when dealing with his subordinates, his own people, and the subject lords whom he ruled by inspiring them with an abject terror of his name. This he doubtless felt as a relief, and when he had really although not confessedly, once convinced himself of their sincerity, which, as we can see from the letters of the Fathers, he was not slow to test on various occasions and in various ways, it is not difficult to understand why they were admitted to his presence when great lords were denied an audience. In adition to all this, however, was the fact that he and they were knit together by the sympathetic bond of a common hate. The Buddhist priests were Anathema Maranatha to him quite as much as they were to the foreigners, and his ostentatious favours to the priests from over-sea constituted a studied slight to the *bonzes*, who, in spite of their mutual hostility, were yet eager to enter into his good graces."—J. Murdoch and I. Yamagata, *History of Japan, pp.* 185-186.—Thus reënforced, the Jesuit Mission flourished down to the assassination of Nobunaga on June 21, 1582. "In several of the provinces of Kyushu the princes had become converts and had freely used their influence, and sometimes their authority, to extend Christianity among their subjects. In Kyoto and Yamaguchi, in Osaka and Sakai, as well as in Kyushu, the Jesuit fathers had founded flourishing churches and exerted a wide influence. They had established colleges where the candidates for the church could be educated and trained. They had organized hospitals and asylums at Nagasaki and elsewhere, where those needing aid could be received and treated."—E. J. Reed, *Japan, p.* 301.—With the assassination of Nobunaga, the Jesuits lost their patron, and fell on evil days. Nobunaga's able work of organizing the Japanese empire, was carried on by his still more brilliant retainer Hideyoshi. When he brought under his control the island of Kyushu, which had become the stronghold of Christianity, the situation of the missionaries seems still to have been "of the fairest. But there was another side to the picture, and Charlevoix's summary of the situation limns that with great accuracy:—'Everything then smiled upon the missionaries: never had they been more in credit. The Imperial armies were commanded by Christians, and the revolution just accomplished in Kyushu had given as masters to the provinces of which the Regent had disposed in virtue of his right of conquest, Lords who were either zealous partisans or declared protectors of Christianity. But, on the other hand, the Christian "kings" were no longer sovereign, and it is certain that the *coup* that degraded them shook the foundations of the Church of Japan, for . . . before the reduction of Kyushu, if the "Emperors" (Shoguns) had thought fit to issue edicts against Christianity, this great island would always have been an assured retreat for the missionaries, and a land of freedom for the Christians.'"—J. Murdoch and I. Yamagata, *History of Japan, pp.* 237-238.—At the same time other hostile forces began to work against the Jesuits. The Buddhist priests were still active and virulent, and the arrogance of some of the Jesuits in dealing with the native religions, the scandalous mode of life of the Portuguese traders, and the detestable habit, on the part of Portuguese ships, of carrying off Japanese to be sold as slaves, gave some justification to the enemies of the new faith. To meet the objections against the foreigners Hideyoshi presented the following questions to Coehlo, the leader of the Jesuits: "'1.—Why, and by what authority, he (the Vice-Provincial) and his *religieux* constrained his (Hideyoshi's) subjects to become Christians? 2.—Why they induced their disciples and their sectaries to overthrow temples? 3.—Why they persecuted the *bonzes?* 4.—Why they and the other Portuguese ate animals useful to man, such as oxen and cows? 5.—Why he allowed the merchants of his nation to buy Japanese to make slaves of them in the Indies?' . . . [The answers were given in writing, and when] Hideyoshi ran his eye over them he made no reply beyond sending word to the Vice-Provincial to retire to Hirado, to collect all his *religieux* there, and to quit the country within six months. On . . . July 25th, 1587, the following Edict . . . was published and posted up in Hakata:—'Having learned from our faithful councillors that foreign *religieux* have come into our estates, where they preach a law contrary to that of Japan, and that they had even had the audacity to destroy temples dedicated to our *Kami* and *Hotoke* [ancestral spirits and native gods]: although this outrage merits the most extreme punishment, wishing nevertheless to show them mercy, we order them under pain of death to quit Japan within twenty days. During that space no harm or hurt will be done them. But at the expiration of that term, we order that if any of them be found in our States, they shall be seized and punished as the greatest criminals. As for the Portuguese merchants, we permit them to enter our ports there to continue their accustomed trade, and to remain in our estates provided our affairs need this. But we forbid them to bring any foreign *religieux* into the country, under the penalty of the confiscation of their ships and goods.' . . . At the same time orders came from Hideyoshi that they were all to embark on the large Portuguese ship then on the point of sailing from Hirado, and to be gone at once. In a general council, however, it was resolved not to obey these instructions, and only a few priests needed for service in China departed. What made it possible for the *religieux* to act in this fashion was the practical sympathy of the Christian princes of Kyushu,—especially that of Konishi, of Arima, and of Omura. Into the territories of the two latter Hideyoshi had sent troops with orders to dismantle the principal fortresses, to raze the churches, to obliterate all signs of Christianity, and to seize the port of Nagasaki. Arima and Omura appealed in person to Hideyoshi at Hakata, and met with a very bad reception; but on returning to their domains they found that the Regent's commissioners were by no means adamant when approached in a judicious manner. Under the genial influence of substantial bribes they developed a wonderful amount of 'sweet reasonableness'; only one fortress and a few churches in Omura were demolished, while those in Arima and in Nagasaki were not touched."—J. Murdoch and I. Yamagata, *History of Japan, pp.* 243, 247. —See also MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Japan.

1549-1605. — Internal administration. — Nobunaga's rise to power.—Hideyoshi.—Invasion of Korea. — Iyeyasu as shogun. — Power of Daimyos broken.—Access to emperor forbidden. —Beginning of Tokugawa era.—"Although Nobunaga never assumed the position of Shogun, he was afterwards ruler under a less imposing title until his death in 1582, which occurred as a result

TOYOTOMI HIDEYOSHI

of treachery on the part of one of his generals. A feature of his administration was his persecution of the Buddhists and the tolerant treatment he extended to St. Francis Xavier and the monks who, following upon the discovery of the country, arrived at Kagoshima in the year 1549. Sir Francis Adams points out that while with all his talents he was never able completely to subdue the great chieftains, he broke the power of the Buddhist priesthood and favoured the Christian religion as a counterpoise to the extravagant pretensions of the native monasteries. As soon as Nobunaga had passed from the scene, his principal general, Hideyoshi the son of a humble peasant, who, having enlisted in his service had won distinction on the field of battle, immediately became all-powerful. After avenging his master's death, he took upon himself the task of pacifying the country, and fought several campaigns with the leading families, in all of which he was completely victorious. . . . After restoring peace at home, Hideyoshi turned his attention to foreign affairs. His ambition, encouraged by many military successes at home, was now unbounded. He wished not only to conquer the neighbouring kingdom of Korea, but also to make war upon the Ming dynasty of China. Between the years 1582 and 1592 he formulated various demands upon Korea, the principal of which involved the resumption of tributary payments to Japan. Upon Korea refusing to become a vassal state, he landed a huge army upon its shores, marched northwards, captured Seoul, and practically became master of the whole country. He was on the point of invading China when the Chinese allied themselves with the Koreans, and after a long campaign, with success resting first on one side and then on the other, which was notable for the second defeat of the invading fleet, the Japanese were driven south to their base where, after being besieged, they were relieved eventually and withdrawn from the peninsula. Hideyoshi is perhaps the most striking figure in Japanese history. Although of peasant origin, he managed, by sheer force of ability and strength of will, to rise to a position of supreme power in a land where the feudal system was at its height. He was altogether an exception. He stood alone. His like had never been seen before in Japan, and one cannot record the existence of any personality since who can compare with him. He was certainly the ablest general of earlier times, and the memories of his brilliant victories in the field have done much to inspire the patriotism of modern Japan. After the long centuries of almost incessant strife he brought peace to the land, and his invasion of Korea gave Japan for the first time a genuine international status in Asia. Not only as a soldier but also as a statesman he won the highest distinction. After he had exacted respect from the nobility, his policy towards them was conciliatory even to the suggestion of weakness. He realised that his plebeian birth was a bar against his occupation of the office of Shogun. In this respect, however, he was wise enough not to overreach himself; he was content to wield the solid power and to leave the glorious title to the Minamoto family, whose privilege for many generations it had been to provide the Shoguns for Japan. To remove some of the disabilities under which he laboured, he secured adoption into a branch of the Fujiwara family. This advanced his rank sufficiently to enable him to become Kuam-baku, or regent. During his administration he instituted many new and wise laws, abolished corruption, and upheld justice. His persecution of the Christians was the outstanding blot upon his career. He further sought to lessen the social breach which existed between him and the higher nobility by marrying his child-son to a granddaughter of Iyeyasu Tokugawa, a member of the Minamoto family. . . . In 1591 he resigned the regency, but not the power, and assumed the title of Taiko, which meant 'great councillor,' and was usually assigned to ex-regents. As, however, the

IYEYASU TOKUGAWA

designation has been rarely applied to any but Hideyoshi and his son, the great peasant-soldier has become known in history as 'Taiko Sama.' . . . On his death, in 1598, the empire was nominally governed by five regents whom he had appointed in view of the extreme youth of Hideyori, his son. The mother of this infant assumed the real power, and conducted the affairs of State with an ability

which entitled her to be ranked with the Empress Jingo and the lady Masa among the great women of the land. Iyeyasu, who, largely out of fear, had remained quiet during the time of Hideyoshi, soon challenged Hideyori for the supremacy of power. In the fighting that followed, the cause of Hideyori was completely defeated, and both the capital of Kyoto and the fortress of Osaka were reduced. . . . In 1603 Iyeyasu became Shogun, and founded a dynasty which lasted for 265 years and provided a line of fifteen Shoguns. Two years later he abdicated in favour of his third son, Hidetada. From that time, Yedo was constituted the capital of the Shoguns. While surrendering the position Iyeyasu retained and exercised the power, and his rule was rendered famous in Japanese history owing to his insistence that the various chieftains should acknowledge the authority of the Shogun at Yedo (Tokyo). Chamberlain describes Iyeyasu as an able general, unsurpassed as a diplomat and administrator, and in recording his achievements, writes: 'He first quelled all the turbulent barons, then bestowed a considerable portion of their lands on his own kinsmen and dependents, and either broke or balanced, by a judicious distribution of other fiefs over different provinces of the empire, the might of those greater feudal lords such as Satsuma and Choshu, whom it was impossible to put altogether out of the way. The court of Kyoto was treated by him respectfully, and investiture as Shogun for himself and his heirs duly obtained from the Mikado. In order further to break the might of the Daimyos, Iyeyasu compelled them to pass every alternate year at Yedo, which he had chosen for his capital in 1590, and to establish their wives and families there as hostages.' . . . Next to the Daimyos came the *hatamotos* or men under the flag, who were estimated to number altogether about eighty thousand. Each of these headed from three to thirty retainers, and in return for grants of land provided contingents of soldiers. They belonged exclusively to old families, and were given a share in the executive government. Upon them, subsequently, devolved the important duty of representing Japan in her relations with foreign powers. Next in precedence to the hatamotos were the gokenin, and together it is estimated that these two military classes numbered nearly half a million. They constituted the personal following of the Shoguns, and with their families and dependents were maintained out of the properties of their lords. The Samurai were a class immediately below the gokenin. . . . Much was written concerning the spirit of the old Samurai. We were told that they were men of scrupulous honour, ever ready to defend the weak and to fight with the strong, and who scorned a mean action. History has exaggerated their achievements and hidden their blemishes. It is certain that they were more picturesque than principled, and their chief rôle during the Tokugawa *régime* seems to have been that of semi-official swashbucklers. . . . Iyeyasu, in his rule, was more drastic towards the court and the Daimyos than any of his predecessors had been. He relegated the Emperor and the Kuge to the solitude and inactivity of life within the walls of a palace, and reduced the territorial lords to complete submission. In a series of laws and regulations which he promulgated, he decreed that, 'The ruling Emperor shall no longer leave his own palace, except when he betakes himself to visit in his palace the Emperor who has abdicated.' He also announced that 'all families and lords were subordinate to himself in the capacity of Shogun, and recorded his right to act without the Emperor's assent in all State matters. . . . He declared that: . . . As the Kuge carried on the government carelessly and were unable to maintain order in the country, all that could be done was for the Emperor to order the Buke to take over the ancient government. But with inadequate revenues it is impossible to govern the country, to feed the people, and to perform the public services. Thus the Kuge would commit a great wrong should they seek to detract from the Buke.' Iyeyasu, having reduced the revenue of the Emperor and the Kuge to a beggarly sum compared with his own and that of the Daimyos, justified himself by pleading the demands and responsibilities of government. At the same time, he took every precaution to prevent intrigues and plots at court. Hitherto, the feudal lords had been able to gain access to the Emperor, and to solicit his influence for the purpose of promoting civil war. Iyeyasu not only forbade them all approach to the royal palace, but would not allow them to visit the capital without first obtaining his permission."—L. Lawton, *Empires of the Far East, v. 1, pp. 91-98.*

1593-1625.—Attempts of Spanish to gain foothold.—Fraudulent entrance of three Franciscans from Manila.—Dissension and jealousy between Spanish Franciscans and Portuguese Jesuits.—Crucifixion of Franciscans by Iyeyasu.—Attempts of Iyeyasu to open up trade with Manila frustrated by Spanish Catholic propaganda.—Establishment of Dutch traders.—Fear of Spanish designs of conquest through medium of the church.—Expulsion of Spaniards.—"Among the converts made by the Jesuits was a certain Harada, who later on had found his way to the Philippines as a trader, and had taken full note of the weakness of the Spaniards in their new possessions. In that weakness he saw his own account, and he made haste to return to Japan, where he struck up an acquaintance with one Hasegawa, a courtier of Hideyoshi. . . . Harada . . . determined to avail himself of the Franciscan jealousy of the Jesuit monopoly of religious teaching in Japan, and drew up a memoir of the reasons for which he pretended Hideyoshi had sent him. In this document the chief articles were that Hideyoshi desired to be on friendly terms with the Spaniards in the Philippines, that he wished to establish a commerce between them and his subjects, and that he asked for Franciscan Fathers, of whose sanctity and contempt for the things of the world he had heard the best report. This memoir Harada first communicated to the monks, and then, seeing that they took the bait, to the Governor. The Franciscans did much to allay the latter's suspicions about the letter, and the result was that Don Gomez dispatched an embassy with a dispatch to Hideyoshi on May 20th, 1593. The embassy consisted of Caravajal, Father Baptiste, and three other Franciscans, who thus succeeded in evading the letter of the Bull of 1585 [which forbade any priest or monk of the Catholic church to enter Japan] by entering Japan not as missionaries but in the quality of ambassadors! The Governor's dispatch was noncommital; his Excellency could not comply with Hideyoshi's demand without first communicating with his master the King of Spain, but meanwhile he was anxious to see a trade between Japan and the Philippines instituted. . . . [Once on Japanese soil the Franciscans] built a fine church as well as a house, opened it with as much circumstance as if they had been in the middle of Spain, and from that time continued to sing in the choir, to preach publicly, and to discharge

all their functions 'with an incomprehensible confidence.' The Christian commonalty was consequently much edified, and began to institute comparisons at the expense of the Jesuits, and dissensions in the Christian fold were imminent. At the end of 1594 they had been joined by three more friars from Manila, with presents from the Governor for the Taiko, [Hideyoshi] which were accepted, and with a letter which was pronounced to be unsatisfactory. Thus reinforced, the Franciscans established the convent of Bethlehem in Osaka, and at the same time sent two of their number to Nagasaki. The latter seized upon a church of the Jesuits, now used only secretly and clandestinely by its owners, and began to celebrate the holy offices in it with the utmost publicity. The Governor of Nagasaki, however, promptly checked this ill-advised zeal on their part and compelled their return to Kyoto. The Franciscans were not slow to accuse the Jesuits of having been the real prompters of this rebuff, nor to publish the accusation among the Christians of Kyoto, and to endeavour to enlist their sympathy against the Company of Jesus. 'This caused the appearance of a schism among the faithful of which the consequences were very baneful. On this subject we have a very beautiful letter of Father Gnecchi to Father Acquaviva, his General, in which that venerable old man, whom all Japan so very justly regarded as the greatest worker there had been for long in the empire deplores his misfortune at being obliged to witness every day, without being able to remedy them, things which filled his heart with bitterness,—to see the best-founded hopes of soon seeing Christianity dominant in the Empire vanishing by reason of this fatal disunion.' . . . [Taking advantage of the disagreements between the religious orders, the enemies of Christianity once more began their work.] Masuda, another minister of iniquity, loaded the Christians with fresh suspicions and false reports on account of the passengers of that ship, specially mentioning that among them were some *religieux* who had come as spies of the Christian princes to promulgate their law. Thus the King already spontaneously roused, now poured forth all his wrath upon the faithful. . . . [The wrath was expressed in the following edict:] 'I have ordered these foreigners to be treated thus, because they have come from the Philippines to Japan, calling themselves ambassadors, although they were not so; because they have remained here for long without my permission; because, in defiance of my prohibition, they have built churches, preached their religion, and caused disorders. My will is that after being thus exposed to public derision, they be crucified at Nagasaki.' This sentence was duly carried out,—only Ishida ventured to restrict the mutilation to the lobe of one ear. From Sakai they had to make a terrible overland journey to Nagasaki in the dead of winter, and here all the twenty-six of them (two had been added to their number on the way down) were crucified in the Japanese fashion on February 5th, 1597. . . . The Governor [of Manila] . . . ventured on a mild expostulation about the fate of the Franciscans. Hideyoshi's reply (inserted in the histories of Guzman and Bartoli) was very moderate. It pointed out that the *religieux* had broken their promise and had been guilty of causing grave disorders in the State, asked the Governor how he would have acted towards Japanese priests preaching an aggressive Shintoism in the Philippines, and, inviting him to imagine himself in Hideyoshi's place if he wished to understand the reasons for the execution of the Franciscans, assured him that if any of the numerous Japanese subjects then in the Philippines infringed the laws of Spain, His Excellency had the amplest liberty to deal with them without any risk of interference on the part of the Japanese Government. It is to be specially marked that Hideyoshi never attempted to interfere with the religion of the foreign merchants in Japan; we have seen that he more than once admitted that it was only reasonable that priests for their service should be allowed to reside in Nagasaki. And this, it must be remembered, was also the position of the Tokugawa Government in its early days; we shall presently see that it has only because the Portuguese captains would persist in smuggling *religieux* into the country, in defiance of the prohibition to do so, that they ultimately drove the Shogunate to shut its ports against them. . . . [When after the death of Hideyoshi, Iyeyasu fell heir to the problem of foreign intercourse, he attempted to open negotiations with Manila for an exchange of trade, and sent an envoy to Manila to that end. The Spaniards were determined that with their trade should go their religion.] A vessel with presents for Iyeyasu and some Franciscans on board put in to a harbour of Kii in 1604; and on the captain sending word that he had not proceeded to Yedo [now Tokyo] by reason of the dangerous navigation, Iyeyasu offered to send an English pilot (Will Adams) to bring the ship round safely, as he had just brought round another Spanish ship a little time before. When the captain declined this offer, Iyeyasu gave orders for all the Franciscans he had brought to be seized, put on board the ship and sent back again. . . . And at the same time he judged it well to endeavour to open up commercial relations with other foreigners besides those of Manila, who seemed bent not so much upon the prosecution of trade as upon the propagation of their religion and possibly the conquest of new territories. Luckily the means of doing so lay ready to hand . . . [in a] Kentishman, Will Adams, pilot of the Dutch ship *de Liefde,* whose eighteen or twenty pieces of artillery may have done good service in the great campaign of 1600. . . . Accordingly the 'Capten,' Quaeckernaeck, who by the way was accompanied by the Cape merchant Santvoorts when he departed, took with him the Shogun's licence for the Dutch nation to trade in Japan. This practically amounted to an invitation to the Dutch East India Company to establish a factory in the Empire, for three years before (1602) the States-General had ordered all the rival companies (especially the Zealand and the Holland associations) to amalgamate. . . . Iyeyasu, having the Dutchmen in Hirado, and having . . . received the most encouraging assurances of trade not only with Manila but also with New Spain, now thought it well to administer a strong hint to the Portuguese that they were no longer so indispensable to him as they fancied themselves to be. . . . [But the Spaniards were as hostile to the secular Dutch interests in Japan as to the Portuguese Jesuits. A Spanish embassy preferred a demand in writing] 'that The Emperor forbid the Hollanders to trade in the countries subject to him; in which case the King of Spain would send men of war to Japan to burn the Dutch ships.' . . . [In answer to this Iyeyasu] emphatically asserted that 'the lands of His majesty being open to all foreigners, none ought to be excluded from them; if the respective princes of foreign States were at war it was expected that they should be left to decide their differences in their own countries, and no exclusion (from Japan) could be made.' In this position, it is to be observed, from first to last

the early Tokugawa administration was consistent and undeviating; on subsequent occasions, to similar representations of the Dutch and English analogous answers were returned, while in 1600 Iyeyasu had told the Portuguese pressing him to make a summary end of Adams and his companions that 'we (Adams is speaking) as yet had not done to him nor to none of his lande any harme or dammage: therefore it was against Reason and Justice to put vs to death. If our countreys had warres the one with the other, that was no cause that he should put vs to death.' What Iyeyasu wanted was foreign trade and foreign instruction in certain matters for his subjects; and the greater the number of rival and competing nationalities that could be enticed to Japan, the better it was for the economic interests of the country. With foreign monopolists or foreign trades-unionism Iyeyasu had not the slightest sympathy. Competition was the life of trade and the death of profits—Portuguese, Spanish, English, and (at one time) Dutch alike. . . . [At this point the Dutch got a good chance to return tit for tat. When the Spanish, with Iyeyasu's permission, sent Sebastian to survey the coast of Japan, taking a priest with them, Iyeyasu asked why] the Spaniards were so eager to explore and chart the Japanese coasts, and the pilot [Adams] at once replied (quite correctly in normal conditions, but then the Spaniards had got express permission) that in Europe such a proceeding would have been considered a hostile one, and then went on to recapitulate (also quite correctly) the course of the Spanish and Portuguese conquests in America, in the Philippines, and the East Indies. All this chimed in exactly with the tenor of the remarks of the pilot of the *San Felipe* (1596) [who boasted of his country's clever technique of conquest, in sending advance guards of friars to prepare the way for soldiers], which were still (1612) kept in mind in Japan. Then Adams, on being questioned closer about the priests, replied that the Romish *religieux* had been expelled from many parts of Germany, from Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Holland, and England, and that although his own country preserved the pure form of the Christian faith from which Spain and Portugal had deviated, yet neither English nor Dutch considered that that fact afforded them any reason to war with, or to annex, States that were non-Christian solely for the reason that they were non-Christian. Such is the gist of the missionaries' very own accounts. According to Charlevoix, who, however, is honest enough to explain that he was not perfectly acquainted with all the details, Sebastian, on reappearing at Court to take his leave, was somewhat brusquely informed that although Spaniards might trade with Japan as before, Christian priests were no longer to be brought into, or tolerated in, the country. . . . On having been informed by Adams some time before that the Romish priests had already been expelled from Protestant countries, Iyeyasu is said to have exclaimed, 'If the Sovereigns of Europe do not tolerate these priests, I do them no wrong if I refuse to tolerate them.' Now in justice to Iyeyasu the following facts must be noted. His resolve to bring the work of the foreign priests in his realms to an end was taken in 1612, and the Church historians date the persecution from that year. Yet during the lifetime of this great ruler (died 1616) not one single European missionary was put to death! The . . . execution of foreign missionaries did not take place until May 22nd, 1617, and that execution (by decapitation) was carried out without any torture or any indignity whatsoever. . . . So profound was Hidetada's distrust of Spanish intentions that, after refusing to receive the Philippine embassy in 1624, he gave orders that all Spaniards should be deported from Japan, leaving their Japanese wives and servants behind them. In 1626 some of these exiled traders ventured to return, and, being discovered, could only save their lives by apostatizing. The two Philippine vessels that had brought them were ordered to depart at once. At the same time (1624) it was decreed that while no Japanese Christian should henceforth go abroad for commerce, non-Christians and renegades were still to be allowed to do so, with a proviso that they were not to sail to the Philippines. And this was the end of all intercourse between Japan and the Philippines—and the Spaniards. This intercourse had been opened up by the intrigues of the ambitious Harada about the year 1592, and Manila missionaries had been at work in Japan two years later (1594). The trade was in contravention of one of the clauses of the Concordat of 1580, and was legalised by Philip III. only in 1609. Iyeyasu, as has been shown, made the most strenuous efforts to develop this Philippine trade, as well as commerce with New Spain. Now Hidetada made an end of it. Intercourse between Manila and Japan lasted, then, for some thirty-two years (1592-1624). As for the Portuguese, they had been in Japan fifty years before the Spaniards appeared there, and they were allowed to trade (from Macao) at Nagasaki for fifteen years after their Spanish rivals had been expelled."—J. Murdoch and I. Yamagata, *History of Japan, pp.* 282-299, 462-496, 626.—See also Missions, Christian: Japan.—"The Portuguese carried on their trade chiefly in ports of the province of Bungo, at the island of Hirado, and at Nagasaki; and the Dutch and English commerce was likewise confined principally to the southern island of Kiushiu. But the trading facilities granted by the Japanese Government at that time permitted a much wider scope, of which advantage was never fully taken. Proof of this is furnished by the charter obtained by Captain Saris in 1613, the first article of which runs as follows:—'We give free license to the King of England's subjects Sir Thomas Smith Governor and Company of the East India merchants for ever safely to come into any our ports or empire of Japan with their ships and merchandise without hindrance to them or their goods: and to abide buy and sell and barter according to their own manner with all nations and to tarry as long as they will and depart at their pleasure.' The second article of this charter allowed English goods to be imported into Japan without payment of customs duty; and under the third English subjects were permitted to build houses in any part of Japan; and in the fourth it was expressly stipulated that English subjects in Japan should not be amenable to the somewhat summary processes of Japanese law."—J. H. Gubbins, *Progress of Japan, pp.* 27-28.

1625-1641.—Christian persecutions.—Revolt of Shimabara.—Expulsion of Portuguese.—Dutch restricted to Deshima.—"Thus with the expulsion of the Spaniards in the spring of 1624 the only Europeans who continued to enjoy the pinched hospitality of Japan were the Portuguese and the Dutch, for the English [who had established an unimportant factory in 1613] had withdrawn from Hirado in the previous December (1623). And between Japan's remaining guests there was but little love lost. . . . In view of the fact that between 1614 and 1635 as many as 280,000 Japanese Christians had been punished for their faith, it may well seem strange that no armed opposi-

tion was organised by the persecuted believers. One fact that must not be overlooked, however, is that of the 300,000 Japanese Christians many belonged to the outcast classes—*eta, hinin,* beggars, and lepers—towards whom, to their honour, the missionaries were especially attentive. Of the remainder the vast majority belonged to the productive classes—farmers, artisans, and traders; and although the work of the missionaries among the *samurai* or two-sworded class had been far from ineffectual, yet its results had been minimised by the jealous surveillance that had been exercised over that privileged class by their lords—by the Daimyos of Satsuma and of Choshiu, for example, quite as much as by Iyeyasu himself. . . . The regulation forbidding any daimyo to embrace Christianity was strictly enforced by Iyeyasu. . . . [In 1623] all *samurai* believers were stripped of their incomes, and had either to take to trade or farming, or to become ronin, or lordless men. . . . Hunted and harried from Nagasaki by the growing intensity of the persecution, they withdrew to the wilds of Arima and of Amakusa, where . . . the former Arima two-sworded men—mostly Christians—had thus been deprived of all their revenues and offices, and had had to betake themselves to manual labour, and were furthermore heavily taxed for the support of the new *samurai,* brought in for the suppression of Christianity. By 1637 the farmers were loaded with a burden of new and unheard-of imposts that made life not merely hopeless, but virtually impossible. . . . Thus in the old Arima fief, apart from all question of religion, by 1637 the discontent engendered by misgovernment was intense. . . . [From] non-Japanese accounts it would thus appear that this Shimabara revolt was in its origin no Christian rising, but merely an economic *émeute* in which the persecuted and proscribed believers saw a last desperate chance to assert themselves. According to the Japanese narratives, however, the upheaval was Christian purely, the ringleaders being five Christian *ronin,* formerly retainers of Konishi, who had been shifting from place to place for some time. . . . In the Shimabara fief the expeditionary force of four hundred men sent to punish the villagers of Fukaye were lured into an ambuscade and most of them shot down; and the 'farmers,' following hard upon the retreat of the survivors, assaulted the castle of Shimabara itself. . . . Of course the rebels—37,000 of them, 20,000 fighting men—were exterminated. . . . Whether the insurrection was Christian in origin or not, its ultimate effect was to make it possible for the Tokugawa Government to deal with the Christian leaders even as Iyeyasu had dealt with the *ronin* at Osaka in 1615. . . . Between 1639 and 1658 possibly not a thousand persons had to be dealt with for their Christianity; while between 1614 and 1635 as many as 280,000 are said to have been punished for their devotion to the foreign religion. And among these hypothetical thousand no more than seventy or eighty were *samurai* or ex-*samurai,* while among them there were at least one hundred and fifty outcasts or beggars—a class, or rather no-class which had never (to their honour) been neglected by the missionaries, which had become entirely Christian in some districts, largely so in others, and which in the most flourishing days of Japanese Christianity had probably furnished some tens of thousands of converts. The massacre of April 12th, 1638, practically extirpated Christianity in Japan for more than two centuries. . . . There can be little doubt that this Shimabara revolt was an exceedingly important incident in the history of Japan, inasmuch as it was it that decided the Yedo Government in its resolution to close the ports of Japan to the Portuguese, and to all European nations except the Dutch. . . . [In 1638 an] edict . . . put an end to all Portuguese intercourse with Japan. Henceforth, in terms of it, all Portuguese ships coming to Japan were to be burned, together with their cargoes, and every one on board of them to be executed. The reasons assigned for this complete rupture of that intercourse the Portuguese had been allowed to maintain with Japan for ninety-seven years were mainly that the Portuguese, in defiance of the orders to bring no missionaries to Japan, had always continued to bring missionaries; that they had succoured these missionaries with provisions and everything else; and that they had fomented the Christian rebellion in Arima. . . . In the Charter of Privileges granted (1611) to the Dutch traders by the founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate, Kaempfer tells us it had run that 'all Dutch ships that come into my Empire of Japan, whatever port or place they put into, We do hereby command all and every one of our subjects not to molest them in any way, nor to be a hindrance to them; but, on the contrary, to show them all manner of help, favour, and assistance. Every one shall beware to maintain the friendship, *in assurance of which we have given our Imperial word* to these people; and every one shall take care that our commands and promises be inviolably kept.' The presentation of this document by Le Maire, the Dutch Factor, to the Shogun's Council in 1641 sufficed to prevent Inouye and his partisans from effecting the end on which they were bent—the expulsion of all Europeans from Japan [and the Dutch were allowed to trade from Deshima, under galling restrictions]. . . . From the date the Dutch were cooped up in Deshima (May 21-22, 1641) all European intercourse with Japan may be said to have ceased for two hundred and twelve years,—for longer, indeed, inasmuch as the great nation that was once more to lead Japan into the comity of nations with a progressive civilisation was not European, but American."—*Ibid., pp.* 664, 679-680.

Also in: C. Meriwether, *Life of Date Masamune* (*Transactions of Asiatic Society of Japan, v.* 21, *pp.* 1-65).

1641-1776.—Tokugawa era.—Policy of successors of Iyeyasu.—Democratic tendency.—Cause of downfall of duarchy.—Occidental contacts.—Desire for knowledge.—Renaissance.—"The successors of Iyeyasu, especially his grandson, . . . were strenuous in carrying out the founder's policy. The Shogun's procession to Kyoto, to offer homage to the Mikado, was discontinued and the Nijo castle garrison increased. In Court ritual the Shogun was the Mikado's ape. Throne, or dais, curtains, sword bearer, prostrations and etiquette in Yedo were but copies or reflections of those in Kyoto. In time public and abject homage, even to . . . the pasting up of windows, lest any should look down on Shogunal person or property, were exacted of both populace and gentry, until the blood of jealous or hostile vassals and reverencers of the Mikado boiled. From the point of view of the fanatical Mikadoist Iyeyasu was a usurper, who robbed the Emperor of his power in order to glorify his own name and family. The more judicial student sees, however, that the Tokugawa dynasty was democratic in its tendency. The 'legacy' of Iyeyasu, a document well worthy of study, teaches that 'the people are the foundation of the Empire' and assures us of his purpose to 'assist the people to give peace' to the country. In the provinces ruled by his kinsmen or de-

WARRIORS OF OLD JAPAN
(After painting by Anton Hoffmann)

scendants, . . . the lot of the common people was notoriously better than in most of the other fiefs or districts. . . . So perfect seemed the system, so apparently free from internal dangers and external perils and so apparently destined to last forever, that to the majority of the Japanese at the opening of the nineteenth century any suggestion of change seemed impiety or treason. Nevertheless, soon after alien influences began to work in Japan this duarchy went to pieces. It is now only historical, with scarce a perceptible trace, except as its old ideals sway some individual of ancient mind. The chief cause of overthrow lay in the study of the ancient Shinto religion and of the primitive Japanese language, begun by Mabuchi, who left office and emolument, for the lonely toil of the scholar, to usher in a glorious era. Even the re-presentation of the ethics and philosophy of Confucius had a result the opposite of that looked for by the founder of Yedo. Like the other forms of intellectual labor, the study of philosophy tended to undermine a system of division and to concentrate loyalty in the Mikado's person as the center of government and religion. While politically the Bakufu or War Curtain Government fell asleep, the brain of the Japanese scholars was alert and sleepless. Long before foreign influences became phenomenal in Japan, the field was ploughed ready for new seed and fresh growth. A small but ever increasing number of intelligent Japanese hungered for the science of the West. Making pilgrimages to Nagasaki, or meeting the Dutchmen in Yedo, or on their journeys to and from that city, their appetites were but whetted for greater knowledge. Each native student on his return home became a center of intelligence and of foreign culture. Most of these passionate pilgrims southward were physicians. Indeed there are some who would date the renascence of Japan from the year 1776, when, as is supposed, for the first time in the Empire, a human cadaver was dissected, and the Chinese system of anatomy, hitherto dominant, was thus proved to be fanciful. Many a Vesalius before this time saw, but feared to tell the truth. Many scores of literary and political inquirers mastered Dutch as the vehicle of knowledge. In this way they learned of the great world, especially of the West and its mighty forces. Yet the idea of Imperial monarchy was but slowly reached and perhaps no prophet had the vision of a Japan wholly free from feudalism. The story of the mental development of Okubo, 'the brain of the Revolution' of 1868, conclusively proves this, showing his roundabout path and the teaching of events. With Nariaki, lord of Satsuma, and other far-seeing patriots, he studied possibilities, peered into the future, and was forward in the doctrines and hopes of the Mikado reverencing school of thinkers, who were all, of course, united in the purpose of destroying the work of Iyeyasu."—W. E. Griffis, *Mikado, pp.* 59-62.—See also JAPANESE LITERATURE: 794-1868.

1641-1853.—Feudalism under Tokugawas.—Shogun, peasant and samurai.—"Few things were originated in the Tokugawa period, . . . either in feudal morals or in feudal institutions, but to it were handed down results of the moral and institutional growth of the past four centuries of feudal history. And these results were skillfully organized by the rulers into a great polity which, combining in itself, as it did, both feudal and absolutist principles in a masterly coördination, enabled the Tokugawa shogunate to endure in apparent security for more than two and a half centuries. The primary aims of this régime were: first, to prevent the recurrence of the civil war that had troubled Japan for ages, but to insure the peace and stability of the realm; and, second, thereby to perpetuate the political control of Japan in the hands of the house of the Tokugawa 'shogun.' In the execution of this double policy, the two great social classes that had come down from the earlier period, the 'samurai,' or warriors, and the 'hyaku-sho,' or peasants, were carefully but in a natural manner so organized as to balance and offset each other's rights and obligations, and to substantially contribute to the peace of the land and the power of the rulers. Each class was accorded a rigid place in the whole social scheme, the 'samurai' ruling the peasants, and the peasants supporting the 'samurai.' Neither was a caste, as the division of the classes was never absolutely insurmountable; each had, however, inherited its own customs and morals largely different from those of the other, and each was, in a different way from the other, granted a measure of autonomy. . . . The peasant population, numbering probably twenty to twenty-five million men

SOLDIERS OF THE TOKUGAWA PERIOD

and women, formed the bulk of the nation. Though it was given no share in the government of the whole country, its social and economic position had greatly improved under the peculiar conditions that obtained in Japan during the century prior to the rise of the Tokugawa shogunate. The Japanese peasant of 1600 had in fact . . . become the practical owner of the land he tilled, though his freedom of selling it was restricted; and he had learned step by step the art of the self-government of the village and the joint responsibility of the villagers. They usually selected village chiefs out of their own number, and often organized themselves in smaller groups within the village for the purpose of mutual aid and correction. The Tokugawa rulers utilized these customs and organs that had grown up among the peasants, elaborated and extended them throughout their own domains, and enforced the will of their government largely through the village institutions thus established. The example of the domains of the 'shogun' was also followed in the fiefs of the 'daimyos,' or barons, so that by the end of the seventeenth century, the principles of village administration had become fairly uniform throughout

Japan. . . . Over the supporting class of peasantry was the ruling class of 'samurai,' numbering, with their families, probably less than two million souls. Like the peasants of the villages, the sworded men under the one suzerain (shogun) and the nearly three hundred barons (daimyo) of this period were, in ways different from the peasants but upon principle similar to those of their governance, granted a large measure of autonomy, and yet were controlled by a carefully built system of responsibility and paternalism. The barons of the fiefs ('han') were practically absolute princes in their respective territories, but any flagrant case of misgovernment on their part, or of internal dissension or family scandal, or an act of disobedience to the 'shogun,' was swiftly and sternly punished by the latter's council. Likewise, the retainers of each baron, who were well organized for the enforcement of discipline and responsibility, enjoyed large freedom in the management of their own followers; yet they were accountable to their lord, not only for failures in their duties or disgrace to their honor, but also for any serious error in the conduct of their own household. . . . The *han,* like the fief in the feudal history of Europe, was essentially territorial . . . In the relation between the lord and the bulk of the people of the *han,* . . . or in the relation between the people themselves, there was and could be no semblance of any actual or traditional tie of blood. To call a *han* a clan is to confuse two radically different forms of social evolution and social organization." —K. Asakawa, *Some of the contributions of feudal Japan to the new Japan* (*Journal of Race Development, July,* 1912).

1797-1854.—First American contact.—Influence of whaling industry in creating demand for opening of the country.—Commodore Perry. —Effect of Perry's arrival on internal politics. —"In 1797 an American ship, the *Eliza,* of New York, Capt. Stewart, made a voyage to Nagasaki. This was perhaps the first time that the American flag was seen in . . . [Japanese] waters. The *Eliza* repeated her voyages for several succeeding years, but on no occasion, except the last, did she come on her own initiative. She was hired by the Dutch in Batavia, who, afraid of the English Navy in the Indian Seas in the days when Holland was under French rule, dared not make their regular visit to Japan. When Capt. Stewart made his last voyage in 1803 he attempted to open trade on his own responsibility, but was not successful. In 1799 an American ship, the *Franklyn,* Capt. James Devereux, made its way to Japan, sailing under Dutch colors. The next year there came, also under the charter of the East India Company, a Salem ship, Capt. John Derby. . . . [American] fishing had been practically wiped out during the Revolution; but in the first quarter of the nineteenth century whaling became a profitable means of investment. It was not a new industry, having been carried on prior to the Revolution; but its importance grew after the War of 1812. In eager pursuit of prey the American whalers soon rounded Cape Horn, and their 'black ships' could be counted by scores—in a few years by hundreds —between the Hawaiian Islands and Japan. As yet, however, they were exposed to dangers of manifold kinds, notably to the depredations of their English rivals and to the mercy of storms and waves. The danger accruing from the latter source could not well be avoided unless they had friendly havens, but such there was none, as Japan, far from affording shelter, carried the logic of exclusion to its extreme conclusion, by treating as criminals whosoever drifted by misfortune to her shores. As to the former danger, the United States had dispatched some few gunboats to cruise in the whaling districts for the protection of her citizens. Commodore Porter was one of the officers who were sent out for this purpose, and he could recommend no better means of security to American whalers than bringing Japan into amicable relations with his country. To this effect, he addressed a letter to Secretary Monroe in 1815. This was the year that a squadron was sent to the Mediterranean under Decatur and a treaty was signed with Algiers. Why should not another squadron be sent westward to Japan? The proposal seemed about to be put into effect and the commodore was to be sent as the envoy with a frigate and two sloops of war. In the meantime the whaling industry made steady progress. In 1822 as many as 24 whaling vessels anchored at one time in the harbor of Honolulu. About this time, not only on the seas but also on land, the United States was expanding with great strides, and it is no wonder that J. Q. Adams should urge that it was the duty of Christian nations to open Japan, and that it was the duty of Japan to respond to the demands of the world, as no nation had a right to withhold its quota from the general progress of mankind. Still no official step was taken; indeed nothing definite was planned until under his successor, Andrew Jackson, it was suggested in 1832 that Mr. Edmund Roberts should be appointed as a special agent to negotiate treaties with oriental courts. But again nothing came of the plan. . . . It was chiefly in the interest of whaling that the Hon. Zadoc Pratt, of Prattsville, Orange County, N. Y., Member of Congress and chairman of the Select Committee on Statistics, laid before the House a report in 1855 concerning the advisability of taking prompt action by sending an embassy to Japan and Korea. The next year Commodore Biddle was appointed to lead an expedition with a fleet consisting of the *Columbus* and the *Vincennes.* He was provided with a letter from President Polk to the Emperor of Japan. The object of this expedition was to ascertain whether the ports of Japan were accessible. The commodore arrived safe and well in the Bay of Yeddo, and opened communications, which continued for 10 tedious days, at the end of which, on receipt of the following anonymous note, he left: 'The object of this communication is to explain the reasons why we refuse to trade with foreigners who come to this country across the ocean for that purpose. This has been the habit of our nation from time immemorial. In all cases of a similar kind that have occurred, we have positively refused to trade. Foreigners have come to us from various quarters, but have always been received in the same way. In taking this course with regard to you, we only pursue our accustomed policy. We can make no distinction between different foreign nations—we treat them all alike—and you, as Americans, must receive the same answer with the rest. It will be of no use to renew the attempt, as all applications of the kind, however numerous they may be, will be steadily rejected. We are aware that our customs are in this respect different from those of some other countries, but every nation has a right to manage its affairs in its own way. The trade carried on with the Dutch at Nagasaki is not to be regarded as furnishing a precedent for trade with other foreign nations. The place is one of few inhabitants and very little business, and the whole affair is of no importance. In conclusion, we have to say that the Emperor positively refuses the permission you desire. He earnestly advises you to depart immediately, and

to consult your own safety by not appearing again upon our coast.' Commodore Biddle's mission was worse than a mere failure. It had the effect of lowering the dignity of his country in the mind of the oriental. . . . Intelligent interest was now aroused afresh in the question of opening Japan. In the year 1848, Robert J. Walker, then Secretary of the Treasury, called public attention to 'Japan, highly advanced in civilization, containing fifty millions of people, separated but two weeks by steam from our western coast. Its commerce,' he continues, 'can be secured to us by persevering and peaceful efforts.' During the next year, Aaron Haight Palmer, of New York, who had accumulated what was at that time a vast amount of information as to oriental nations, in his capacity as director of the American and Foreign Agency of New York (1830-1847), saw the great necessity of establishing commercial relations with the East, and sent memorials upon the subject to the President and the Secretary of State. He was backed by memorials from the principal merchants of New York and Baltimore. In his letter to Secretary Clayton, on the plan of opening Japan, he recommends four measures to be followed: (1) To demand full and ample indemnity for the shipwrecked American seamen who were unjustly treated; (2) to insist upon the proper care of any American who might from any misfortune repair to the coast of Japan; (3) to enforce the opening of ports for commerce and for the establishment of consulates; (4) to claim the privilege of establishing coaling stations, and also the right of whaling without molestation. Mr. Palmer says that, in the event of noncompliance with the above on the part of the Shogun, a strict blockade of Yeddo Bay should be established."—I. Nitobe, *Japanese nation, pp.* 131-139.—"About this time, a newspaper article concerning some Japanese waifs who had been picked up at sea by the barque Auckland—Captain Jennings—and brought to San Francisco, attracted the attention of Commodore Aulick. He submitted a proposal to the government that it should take advantage of this incident to open commercial relations with the Empire, or at least to manifest the friendly feelings of the country. This proposal was made on the 9th of May, 1851. Daniel Webster was then Secretary of State, and in him Aulick found a ready friend. . . . Clothed with full power to negotiate and sign treaties, and furnished with a letter from President Fillmore to the Emperor, Commodore Aulick was on the eve of departure when for some reason he was prevented. Thus the project which began at his suggestion was obstructed when it was about to be accomplished, and another man, perhaps better fitted for the undertaking, entered into his labors. . . . Commodore [Matthew Calbraith] Perry shared the belief in the expediency of sending a special mission for the purpose. When Commodore Aulick was recalled, Perry proposed to the U. S. Government an immediate expedition. The proposal was accepted, and an expedition on the most liberal scale was resolved upon. He was invested with extraordinary powers, naval and diplomatic. The East India and China Seas and Japan were the official designation of the field of service, but the real object in view was the establishment of a coal depot in Japan. The public announcement of the resolution was followed by applications from all quarters of Christendom for permission to accompany the expedition; all these were, however, refused on prudential grounds. . . . Impatient of the delay caused by the tardy preparations of his vessels, Perry sailed from Norfolk on the 24th of November, 1852, with one ship, the Mississippi, leaving the rest to follow as soon as ready. . . . The Mississippi . . . touching at several ports on her way, reached Loo Choo in May, where the squadron united. . . . In the afternoon of the 8th of July, 1853, the squadron entered the Bay of Yedo in martial order, and about 5 o'clock in the evening was anchored off the town of Uraga. No sooner had 'the black ships of the evil mien' made their entry into the Bay, than the signal guns were fired, followed by the discharge of rockets; then were seen on the shore companies of soldiers moving from garrison to garrison. The popular commotion in Yedo at the news of 'a foreign invasion' was beyond description. The whole city was in an uproar. In all directions were seen mothers flying with children in their arms, and men with mothers on their backs. Rumors of an immediate action, exaggerated each time they were communicated from mouth to mouth, added horror to the horror-stricken."—I. Nitobe, *Intercourse between United States and Japan, ch.* 2.

"The appearance of American warships in the bay of Yedo was a mighty shock. Hitherto the alarms of foreign attack had meant but little to the country at large, for it was a long cry to Hakodate or Nagasaki; but now within a day's march of the city of Yedo lay the black hulks of a formidable fleet whose admiral refused to retire until a treaty was signed. Recollection of the Tartar armada flashed through the minds of our grandfathers. Was the samurai to be intimidated in his own waters? . . . The historic spirit that had been smoldering in our national consciousness only waited for this moment to burst forth in a fiery expression of unity. Custom and formalism were alike forgotten in this hour of common danger, and for the first time in two hundred years the daimios were asked by the Tokuwara government to deliberate over a matter of state. For the first time in seven centuries the Shogun sent a special envoy to the Mikado to consult about the policy of the empire, and for the first time in the history of our nation, the high and the low alike were invited to offer suggestions as to what steps should be taken for the protection of the ancestral land. . . . Had it not been for the timely arrival of the American Embassy and the determined attitude which it took in regard to Japan's relations with the outside world, we might have entered upon an era of internal discord culminating in a civil war far worse than anything that preceded the Restoration of 1868."—Okakuro-Kakuzo, *Awakening of Japan, pp.* 110-113.—"As the squadron dropped anchor, it was surrounded by junks and boats of all sorts, but there was no hostile sign shown. A document in French was handed on board, which proved to be a warning to any foreign vessel not to come nearer. The next day was spent in informal conference between the local officials of Uraga and the subordinate officers of the squadron. It was Commodore Perry's policy to behave with as much reserve and exclusiveness as the Japanese diplomats had done and would do. He would neither see, nor talk with, any except the highest dignitary of the realm. Meanwhile, the governor of Uraga came on board and was received by captains and lieutenants. He declared that the laws forbade any foreign communication to be held elsewhere than Nagasaki; but to Nagasaki the squadron would never go. The vexed governor would send to Yedo for further instructions, and the 12th was fixed as a day for another conference. Any exchange of thought was either in the Dutch language, for which interpreters were

provided on both sides, or in Chinese, through Dr. S. Wells Williams, and afterward in Japanese, through Manjiro Nakahama. . . . On the 12th, the Governor of Uraga again appeared on board and insisted on the squadron's leaving the Yedo Bay for Nagasaki, where the President's letter would be duly received through the Dutch or the Chinese. This the Commodore firmly refused to do. It was therefore decided at the court of Yedo that the letter be received at Kurihama, a few miles from the town of Uraga. This procedure was, in the language of the commissioners, 'in opposition to the Japanese law;' but, on the ground that 'the Admiral, in his quality as Ambassador of the President, would be insulted by any other course,' the original of Mr. Fillmore's letter to the Japanese Emperor, enclosed in a golden box of one thousand dollars in value, was delivered on the 14th of July to the commissioners appointed by the Shogun. . . . Fortunately for Japan, the disturbed state of affairs in China made it prudent for Perry to repair to the ports of that country, which he did as though he had consulted solely

COMMODORE PERRY

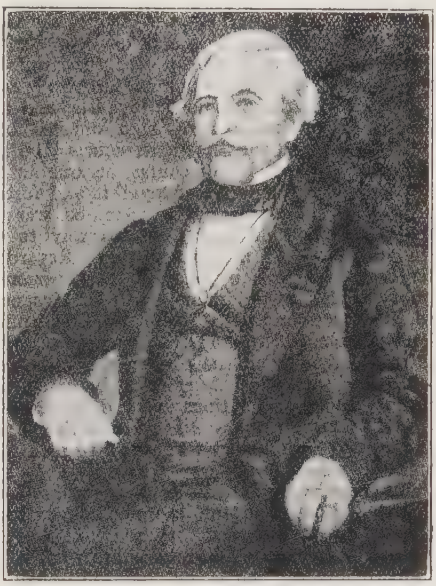
the diplomatic convenience of . . . [Japan]. He left word that he would come the ensuing spring for . . . [an] answer. . . . It was the Taiping Rebellion which called for Perry's presence in China. The American merchants had large interests at stake there—their property in Shanghai alone amounting, it is said, to $1,200,000. . . . While in China, Commodore Perry found that the Russian and French admirals, who were staying in Shanghai, contemplated a near visit to Japan. That he might not give any advantage to them, he left Macao earlier than he had intended, and, on the 13th of February, found himself again in the Bay of Yedo, with a stately fleet of eight ships. As the place where the conference had been held at the previous visit was out of the reach of gun-shot from the anchorage, Perry expressed a desire of holding negotiations in Yedo, a request impossible for the Japanese to comply with. After some hesitation, the suburb Kanagawa was mutually agreed upon as a suitable site, and there a temporary building was accordingly erected for the transaction of the business. On the 8th of May, Commodore Perry, arrayed in the paraphernalia befitting his rank, was ushered into the house. The reply of the Shogun to the President's letter was now given—the purport of which was, decidedly in word but reluctantly in spirit, in favor of friendly intercourse. Conferences were repeated in the middle and latter part of the month, and after many evasions and equivocations, deliberations and delays, invitations to banquets and exchanges of presents, at last, on Friday, the 31st of May, the formal treaty was signed; a synopsis of which is here presented: 1. Peace and friendship. 2. Ports of Shimoda and Hakodate open to American ships, and necessary provisions to be supplied them. 3. Relief to shipwrecked people; expenses thereof not to be refunded. 4. Americans to be free as in other countries, but amenable to just laws. 5. Americans at Shimoda and Hakodate not to be subject to restrictions; free to go about within defined limits. 6. Careful deliberation in transacting business which affects the welfare of either party. 7. Trade in open ports subject to local regulations. 8. Wood, water, provisions, coal, etc., to be procured through Japanese officers only. 9. Most-favored nation clause. 10. U. S. ships restricted to ports of Shimoda and Hakodate, except when forced by stress of weather. 11. U. S. Consuls or agents to reside at Shimoda. 12. Ratifications to be exchanged within eighteen months. . . . His labors at an end, Perry bade the last farewell to Japan and started on his home-bound voyage. This was in June, 1854. . . . No sooner had Perry left, carrying off the trophy of peaceful victory—the treaty (though the Yedo government was in no enjoyment of peaceful rest), than the Russian Admiral Pontiatine appeared in Nagasaki. He urged that the same privileges be granted his country as were allowed the Americans. . . . Soon, the English Rear Admiral, Sir James Stirling, arrives at the same harbor, very kindly to notify the government that there may be some fighting in Japanese waters between Russians and his countrymen."—I. Nitobe, *Intercourse between the United States and Japan, ch.* 2.

Also in: F. L. Hawks, *Narrative of the expedition under Commodore Perry.*—W. E. Griffis, *Matthew Calbraith Perry, ch.* 27-33.

"The immediate effect of the arrival of the American Embassy was to reconsolidate the fast-waning power of the Tokugawa government. Putting in abeyance all minor matters of dispute, the entire nation looked to the Shogun, as the representative of all existing authority, to lead the forces of Japan against what was regarded as a Western invasion. Thus the Tokugawa government was given a new lease of life and its final overthrow postponed for fifteen years, during which time ultra-reformists were kept from running riot and the nation was given a chance to prepare itself for the momentous change which was to come. Had the Tokugawas better understood their own position, they might under this new condition of affairs, have retained their power for an indefinite period of time. . . . At the time of the first American Embassy the reigning Shogun, twelfth of his line, was a young and weak prince who had, however, in the person of Abe-Isenokami, an able prime minister who showed a remarkable grasp of the situation and inaugurated that enlightened policy to which Japan owes her present position. The real significance of his acts has been quite obscured beneath a mass of conflicting criticism and the ignominy which attaches to the statesmen of a fallen dynasty. Even his negotiation of a treaty of amity with Commodore Perry in the face of a dissenting majority has been minimized by his detractors, yet it was this treaty which first brought us in touch with the rest of the world. . . . It is not to be supposed that Abe-Isenokami realized the full importance of foreign intercourse, or even

welcomed it. Like other men of his time, he merely considered it as a necessary evil. His knowledge of the West was but scanty, and he left the burden of treating with the Americans to his minister of foreign affairs, Hotta-Bitchiunokami, who later succeeded to the premiership after the death of Abe. He recognized nevertheless how necessary it was for Japan to acquire Western knowledge, so that she might be able to defend herself against foreign invasion. This he was at length able to impress upon the Tokugawa authorities, and the warlike daimios were prevailed upon to keep quiet during his lifetime. He opened, under government patronage, a school in which various branches of foreign science were for the first time openly taught; the present Imperial University of Tokio is a development from this school. Hitherto the pursuit of foreign knowledge except that of medicine had been interdicted, and students had been obliged to do their work in secret and under great difficulties. Now, however, any one who proved himself worthy was promoted and encouraged in his work, while our soldiers were trained in the Dutch and French systems of drill. Both warships and merchant vessels were ordered from Holland, and young samurai were sent to study their construction and management; this was the beginning of the present Japanese navy. The prohibition against building ships beyond a certain size was revoked, and many daimios, like those of Mito and Satsuma, vied in constructing them. The main idea of Abe-Isenokami seemed to have been to consolidate the Tokugawa rule on a new basis. He appears to have appreciated the fact that a great change had come over the nation, and that the fast-decaying prestige of the Tokugawa government could be saved from complete destruction only by the assimilation of new energy. It was his intention to make the shogunate the center of all the forces that moved the empire. It was with this idea that he initiated the custom of approaching the Mikado and the assembly of daimios on all questions of state."—Okakura-Kakuzo, *Awakening of Japan, pp.* 113-114, 120-125.

1857-1862.—Negotiations between the Shogun and occidental powers.—"The United States Government were as fortunate in the selection of their first representative in Japan [Townsend Harris, who was appointed consul-general in 1857], as they had been in their choice of Commodore Perry. The task which confronted him was one of peculiar difficulty, for he was the first foreign agent to deal on equal terms with the Government of Japan. . . . Like Perry, he had brought a letter from the President of the United States. This he was determined to present to the Tycoon [Shogun] himself, and he requested an audience at Yedo for this purpose. . . . He was also anxious to make some further arrangements in respect to residence and trade, in amplification of Perry's treaty [1854]. . . . In June, 1857, he was able to report the signature of a convention opening Nagasaki (the port which Perry [in 1854] had thought it prudent to overlook) to American vessels, conceding the right of residence at Shimoda and Hakodaté, providing for the appointment of a vice-consul at the latter port, regulating the question of the exchange of American and Japanese currency, and affirming the principle of exterritoriality. Four months later he was received in audience by the Tycoon. Long before his visit to Yedo the United States representative had recognized the desirability of concluding a convention with Japan on a much wider basis than that covered by the Perry Treaty, even when amplified by his own convention of June, 1857. Accordingly on his arrival there he at once opened negotiations with the Japanese ministers on this subject. He found them more open to persuasion than before. . . . The terms of the new treaty were finally settled in February, 1858, but it was decided to refer it before signature to Kioto for the approval of the Throne. . . . [The court party and the Daimyos were opposed to foreign influence, and the messenger who was sent to Kioto with the treaty returned with it unsigned. Soon, however, news was received of the termination of the war in China, and the imminence of a visit from British and French ambassadors to Japan, in order to negotiate treaties. The United States Minister at once proceeded] to Kanagawa, and urged from there by letter the necessity for the immediate signature of the treaty. His representations, assisted by the presence of Ii Kamon no Kami at the head of affairs, had the desired effect, and



TOWNSEND HARRIS

without waiting any longer for consent from Kioto, the treaty was signed at Kanagawa on board the American man-of-war on July 29. The ice having been broken, other treaties followed in rapid succession, all on the same general lines, thus proving the correctness of the opinion given by Harris that what was satisfactory to the United States would be acceptable to other powers. The Dutch signed theirs on the 18th of August, the Russians on the 19th, the British on the 26th, and the French on the 7th of October. The British treaty was negotiated at Yedo by Lord Elgin. All four followed more or less closely the lines of the American convention. . . . The new features of these treaties, which served as a model for later conventions, were the opening of additional ports, the establishment of a tariff, and the introduction of tonnage dues; the concession of the right of travel anywhere in Japan to diplomatic agents and consul-generals; the obligation, on the side of foreigners, to refrain from erecting fortifications or places of strength, and, on the Japanese side, to refrain from enclosing the foreign residential area. . . . In other respects they merely confirmed,

or amplified, the provisions of earlier arrangements. . . . The concession of exterritoriality was more explicitly defined, and was made to apply to civil as well as criminal jurisdiction; and the prohibition of the importation of opium, mentioned in previous Dutch and Russian treaties, was confirmed. . . . It was only after these earlier agreements had been amplified and expanded by the treaties of 1858, to which a fifth power, France, became also a party; after provision had been made for the residence of foreigners in treaty ports, within reach of domestic markets, for trade regulations, and for a tariff, that the way was finally cleared for the development of foreign intercourse and trade. The year 1858 is, therefore, an important date in the history of Japan's foreign relations."—J. H. Gubbins, *Progress of Japan, pp.* 69-71, 73-75.—See also Missions, Christian: Japan.—"The Shogunate Court at last decided its foreign policy, and Senior Minister Naosuke Ii, a man of strong will, concluded the treaties without asking for imperial sanction. This fact made the loyalists furious, and gathering in Kyoto, the capital of Old Japan, they began bitterly to criticize the Shogunate's foreign policy and the arbitrariness of Minister Ii. Thereupon Ii started a wholesale execution of the prominent loyalists, and also punished a large number of high officials both of the Imperial and the Shogunate courts who had opposed his actions. He of course, became an object of hatred to thousands of loyalists and foreign exclusionists, and on March 3, 1860, he was attacked by a band of zealots on his way to the Shogunate Court and was assassinated. Regardless of Ii's death, the foreign policy of the government was not changed. On January 15, 1862, Masanobu Ando, Ii's successor in the Senior Minister's office, was also attacked by assassins, but he escaped. Thus the more difficult the foreign relations grew, the bitterer the internal conflict became; and executions and assassinations were daily happenings."—K. Kawabe, *Press and politics in Japan, pp.* 26-27.—"[Toshimitsu] Okubo's first plan as a unionist in order to do away with the Yedo system and duarchy, was to unite the landless Court Nobles in Kyoto, with the Daimios or territorial barons, in the Government. Only by degrees did the vision of a supreme imperialism dawn on this superb intellect, while the abolition of feudalism, even as an idea, came only after foreigners had been long on the soil. The final issue of the Revolution of 1868 was not only a woeful disappointment to the Samurai, and even to Okubo's co-workers, Saigo and others [see below: 1868-1894], but became a horrible and wholly unforeseen abyss. To put down the opposition, of those who started the original movement of 1868 cost the Mikado the shedding of tenfold more of the blood of his subjects than the Revolution itself, with its battles and sieges. These various influences, the revivals of native and Chinese learning, of pure Shinto, of the Confucian philosophy of Chu Hi (1130-1200), with the doctrines of the Chinese thinker Oyomei (1472-1528), and the critical inquiries of the Historical School becoming more potent as knowledge increased, would in all probability, without foreign contact, making a new world of opinion, have ripened into action, even to the overthrow of the existing system and the creation of a new State. Along with the researches of the Shintoists and the work of the Mito scholars, who produced a massive historical library, proceeded the private investigations into native history by such men as Rai Sanyo, who helped to create the political opinions of Japanese gentlemen in the nineteenth century. Added to these were the patriots who hated the Yedo tyranny and longed to find truth in the world at large. The story of these prisoners of the spirit, whose pinions of desire beat in vain against the bars of the gaol, is full of pathetic incident. A whole library in the vernacular has photographed the experiences of those who were the morning stars of the full day dawn of 1868. Ever shining is the name of Yoshida Shoin, who foresaw the day of Perry's coming, waited long, travelled much, and at risk of life mounted the deck of the American war steamer *Mississippi* at midnight, with his coat stuffed with materials for taking notes of what he should see in the countries of the great world outside. Arrested, imprisoned, but afterward released, he became the teacher of the Marquis Ito and Count Inouye, two relentlessly aggressive prophets of the new dispensation in Japan. Others hoped that Japan might become as England and have representative government, and more than one such prisoner of hope suffered incarceration or death, because of his opinions or acts. Even subterranean Christianity had its martyrs. A large and powerful party, both literary and theological, taught as the political ideal of the nation the restoration of the Mikado to the supreme authority which he had enjoyed seven centuries before, with Shinto as an engine of state. The members of the Satsuma, Choshiu, Tosa and other clans that had never been really conquered but had only yielded in compromise and were but nominally obedient to the Shogun greedily fed their minds upon this idea. Moreover each clansman found this pretext a most convenient mantle under which to hide his own personal ambitions and his yearnings for the supremacy of his own clan. President Millard Fillmore's constructive statesmanship on behalf of the United States and his interposition in the affairs of Japan saved the Empire from civil war. In 1852 everything seemed ready for an explosion from within, which might have so weakened resources as to cripple the nation for modern life, or called in foreign aggression, as in the case of Java, India and China."—W. E. Griffis, *Mikado, pp.* 62-65.

1863-1868.—Shimonoseki affair.—Fall of shogunate and restoration of the emperor.—Reversal of anti-foreign attitude of imperial court and Satsuma and Choshu clans.—"The knowledge of the outer world possessed by the Court of Yedo, though not extensive, was sufficient to assure the Shogun and his advisers that it was vain to refuse what the Western powers claimed. The Court of Kyoto had had no means of acquiring even this modicum of worldly wisdom. According to its view, Japan, 'the land of the gods,' should never be polluted by outsiders, the ports should be closed again, and the 'barbarians' expelled at any hazard. What specially tended to complicate matters at this crisis was the independent action of certain daimyos. One of them, the Prince of Choshu, acting, as is believed, under secret instructions from the Court of Kyoto, fired on ships belonging to Great Britain, France, Holland, and the United States—this, too, at the very moment (1863) when the Shogun's government . . . was doing its utmost to effect by diplomacy the departure of the foreigners whom it had been driven to admit a few years before. The consequence of this act was what is called 'the Shimonoseki Affair,' namely, the bombardment of Shimonoseki, Choshu's chief sea-port, by the combined fleets of the powers that had been insulted, and the exaction of an indemnity of $3,000,000."—R. H. Chamberlain, *Things Japanese, pp.* 143, 160.—"One undesigned benefit resulted from the Shi-

monoseki expedition. . . . The daimyo of Choshu had learned by an expensive experience the . . . bitter lesson [that it was folly to resist modern western armaments]. For the future the two powerful clans [Satsuma and Choshu] might . . . be counted on, not only to oppose the moribund government of Yedo, but to withstand the folly of trying to expel the foreigners who by treaty with an unauthorized agent had been admitted into the country. The Choshu leaders had also taken advantage of their experiences in this conflict with foreigners to put their troops on a better basis as regards arms and organization. For the first time the privilege of the *samurai* to do all the fighting, was disregarded, and a division of troops was formed from the common people, which was armed with foreign muskets and drilled in the western tactics. They went by the name of 'irregular troops' (*kiheitai*), and played no small part in rendering nugatory the efforts of the shōgun to 'chastise' the daimyo of Choshu in 1865 and 1866. . . . While these serious collisions were taking place between Japan and the foreign powers, there was an increasing and irreconcilable animosity developed between the Kyoto and Yedo governments. The ostensible reason, which was put forward on all occasions, was the difference of opinion upon the question of the foreign treaties and foreign intercourse. The Yedo government . . . had been convinced that the task of expelling foreigners and returning again to the ancient policy of seclusion was far beyond the power of Japan. On the contrary, the court of the emperor was a hotbed of anti-foreign sentiment in which all the ancient prejudices of the empire naturally flourished, and where the feudal princes who were jealous of the shogun found a ready element in which to foment difficulties. . . . Two important games were in progress. Yedo was the field on which one of these was to be decided, and the players were the representatives of the treaty powers on the one side, and the shogun's government on the other. Victory had already been virtually declared in favor of an open country and foreign intercourse. The other game was being played at Kyoto between the shogun's friends and his enemies. The stake was a momentous one, namely, to determine whether the present dual government was to continue and who was hereafter to wield the destinies of the empire. . . . But a vast number of the feudal retainers of the daimyos were still bitterly hostile, and took frequent occasion to commit outrages. . . . These repeated outrages disturbed the Yedo government, and led to several attempts to curtail the privileges which by the treaties were secured to foreigners. The last proposition of the kind which was made was one conveyed to the French government by an embassy sent out in 1864. . . . They received no encouragement, however, and returned with their eyes 'opened by the high state of material and moral prosperity which surrounded them,' and reported the complete failure of their attempts at persuasion. . . . It is necessary now to trace the course of events at Kyoto. According to the theory of the government of Japan the emperor was the supreme and unlimited ruler and the shogun was his executive. The maintenance of the emperor and his court was a function of the shogun, and hence it was almost always possible for him to compel the emperor to pursue any policy which he might desire. At the time now under review Komei . . . occupied the imperial throne. He had succeeded to this dignity in 1847 at the age of eighteen. . . . The shogun was Iemochi, who in 1858 had been chosen from the family of Kii, because of the failure of an heir in the regular line. At the time of his election he was a boy of twelve years of age, and was placed under the guardianship of the prime minister Ii Kamon-no-kami . . . [who was assassinated] in 1861. Hitotsubashi Gyobukyo, a son of the daimyo of Mito, was then appointed guardian, and served in this capacity until the shogun's death. Around the court of the emperor were gathered many discordant elements. . . . The expulsion of foreigners was the common subject of discussion and agitation. Although again and again it had been assured that it was impossible to dislodge the treaty powers from their position in the country, the court still continued to direct its efforts to this object. For the first time in two hundred and thirty years . . . [since Iemitsu, grandson of Ieyasu] went up to the Imperial court, the Shogun Iemochi visited Kyoto in 1863 in order to consult about the affairs of the country. . . . Conferences were held between the daimyos who were present in Kyoto and the officials of the court, and in spite of the objections and remonstrances of the Yedo official, an imperial edict was issued and entrusted to the shogun for execution, to expel from the country the hated foreigners. This edict was notified to the representatives of the treaty powers by the Yedo officials. They seemed, however, to regard their duty fully done when this notice was given. . . . The territory of Choshu had become the rendezvous for all the disaffected elements of the empire. The daimyo was looked upon as the patriotic leader of the country, and *ronins* from all parts hastened to enroll themselves under his banner. In the summer of 1864 the Choshu forces, to the number of several thousand, composed not only of the *samurai* of the province, but also of the disaffected *ronins* who had gathered there, and of the 'irregular troops' . . . were encountered by Hitotsubashi . . . [and] after a battle which lasted several days, and which raged chiefly about the imperial palace, the Choshu troops were completely defeated and forced to retire. The troubles in Choshu were finally brought to a close. The efforts of the shogun, although conducted at great expense, were unavailing. Satsuam, when summoned to render aid in crushing the rebellious prince, declined to join in the campaign. Through the efforts of Saigo Kichmoske, a treaty of amity was effected between the two clans. . . . Peace was negotiated between the shogun and the rebels. Thus the Choshu episode was ended . . . with a distinct gain to the cause of the imperial restoration. It had long been recognized that the treaties which had been made by the foreign powers would possess a greatly increased influence on the Japanese people if they could have the sanction of the emperor. . . . A memorial was presented to the emperor in the name of the shogun, setting forth the embarrassment under which the administration of the country had been conducted on account of the supposed opposition of the emperor to the treaties, and begging him to relieve them by signifying his sanction and assuring him that if this is not given, the foreign representatives who are at Hyogo will proceed to the capital and demand it at his hands. It ended in the sanction of the treaties being signified October 23, 1865, by the following laconic decree addressed to the shogun: 'The imperial consent is given to the treaties, and you will therefore undertake the necessary arrangements therewith.' During this critical time the Shogun Iemochi died September 19, 1866, at his castle in Osaka at the age of eighteen. . . . As guardian, Hitotsubashi had taken an active part in the effort to obtain the

sanction of the treaties, and the final success of this important step must in a great measure be attributed to him. After the death of Iemochi without direct heirs, the office of shogun was offered to Hitotsubashi as a representative of Mito, one of the 'honorable families' from whom a shogun was to be chosen in case of a failure of direct heirs. It is said that he accepted the office with great reluctance, knowing the troubles which would surely await him who assumed it, . . . [and] assented only on the command of the emperor. . . . He has thus the distinction of becoming the last of the long line of Tokugawa shoguns, under the name of Tokugawa Yoshinobu. A few months after the death of Iemochi, on the 3d of February, 1867, Emperor Komei also died from an attack of smallpox. . . . His son Mutsuhito, then in his fifteenth year, succeeded him. . . . It was thought that the death of an emperor of strong prejudices and of a mature age would naturally favor a more com-

PRINCE KEIKI TOKUGAWA

plete control by the new shogun [especially as the new emperor was but a youth]. . . . But the shogun and his friends underrated the influences which were gathered at Kyoto, and which now went far beyond an anti-foreign sentiment and were chiefly concerned with schemes for restoring the imperial power and unifying the form of government. . , . The daimyo of Tosa . . . addressed a letter to the shogun in October, 1867, in which he frankly says: 'The cause [of our trouble] lies in the fact that the administration proceeds from two centres. . . . You should restore the governing power into the hands of the sovereign and so lay a foundation on which Japan may take its stand as the equal of other countries.' The shogun being deeply impressed with the wisdom of this advice drew up a document addressed to his vassals, asking their opinion of the advisability of his resignation. . . . 'I propose therefore to surrender the whole governing power into the hands of the imperial court. This is the best I can do for the interests of the empire.' According to this announced resolution, on the 10th of November, 1867, the shogun resigned into the hands of the emperor his authority. This surrender was accepted, and thus a dynasty which had lasted from 1603 came to an end."—D. Murray, *Japan, pp.* 350-357, 359, 366.

Also in: F. Brinkley, *Japan, its history, arts and literature, v.* 3, *pp.* 241-246.—K. S. Latourette, *Development of Japan, p.* 116.

"The Tokugawa Shogunate even before Commodore Perry's visit was destined to be overthrown in the nineteenth century. Since the latter part of the eighteenth century, Dutch books had become popular. The so-called Dutch scholars, enlightened as to the world-situation through these Western literatures, became the pioneer advocates of the open-door policy, and introduced many new ideas into Japan. Scholars of classical learning and of national history disclosed the original national constitution in which the Emperor had been the supreme chief of the state, both *de jure* and *de facto*, and thus impressed the people with the fact that shoguns were merely political usurpers. Subsequently, the number of loyalists rapidly increased, and they boldly discussed the necessity of abolishing the maintenance of the Tokugawa Shogunate. There was still another factor which worked against the maintenance of the Tokugawa Shogunate, i.e. the powerful western *daimyo*, . . . who had been forced to recognize the supremacy of Tokugawa, and had always been awaiting an opportunity to become independent again. At first the Shogunate persecuted the Dutch scholars and their followers who had advocated the open-door policy. But, when it was at last obliged to consent to the demands of the Western powers, the loyalists with their foreign-exclusion doctrine bitterly criticized the Shogunate Court, and then the western *daimyo* availed themselves of this rare opportunity to stand against the Tokugawa Clan. The fanatic loyal foreign exclusionists and the discontented and ambitious western *daimyo* gathered in the Imperial Court of Kyoto and made strong protests against the Shogunate in the name of the Emperor. The prestige and power of the Tokugawa régime were thus rapidly declining, and the visit of Commodore Perry was the last and greatest incentive which precipitated the downfall of the Shogunate. The diplomatic difficulties and the internal disturbances now got beyond the control of the Tokugawa Shogunate. The intelligent *daimyo* became convinced that the Shogunate should restore all political power to the Emperor, and that only under the latter's direct command could the nation be unified to safely meet the international difficulties. Yodo Yamanouchi and Shigenaga Asano first of all had advised Shogun Keiki to that effect. Thereupon the latter convoked a great meeting of all *daimyo* and the influential vassals at his castle in Yedo for discussion. He decided to restore all his political power to the Emperor, and on October 14, 1867, presented a petition to the Throne. It was approved the next day, and October 24, Keiki, the Fifteenth Tokugawa Shogun, resigned his grand political and military posts. Thus the Tokugawa Shogunate, which had been established by Iyeyasu, ended after two hundred and fifty-six years of the most successful feudal régime ever witnessed in history. . . . The political institution of the state again returned to its original form, and the Emperor became the supreme chief. All these great political transformations, however, had been completed before the masses became aware of them. The system of communication was so defective that the happenings in one part of the country were almost unknown in other distant parts, and even the upper classes had met with great difficulty in finding out the real situation before making their

own decisions. . . . When the state of affairs was at last made clear, the people could scarcely believe that the Lord Shogun, of absolute power and the dignity of a god, could have been overthrown in such a short time. The western *daimyo*, the principal force which destroyed the Tokugawa régime, were really the revolutionists, who stood against the long-established Shogunate government, the *de facto* sovereign of the state. But by guarding the Imperial Court, the *de jure* sovereign, they gained the name loyalists, and the Shogun and his followers, on the contrary, were labeled the insurgents."—K. Kawabe, *Press and politics in Japan, pp.* 27-28.

1867-1917.—**Protection of forests.** See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Japan: 1867-1917.

1868-1894.—**From the restoration of the emperor to the beginning of war with China.—Era of political reorganization and constitutional development.—Emperor's charter oath.—Surrender of feudal fiefs.—Attempts to dispossess Samurai.—Formosan expedition and conflict with Korea.—Satsuma rebellion.—Organization of Senate.—Establishment of elective assemblies.—Creation of nobility.—Promulgation of constitution.**—"On the 8th of February, 1868, a nobleman of high rank in the Court delivered to the Diplomatic Representatives of the foreign powers a formal document bearing the sign manual of the Emperor and sealed with 'The Seal of Great Japan' for transmission to their Governments, in which the Emperor announced his intention of thenceforward exercising supreme authority both in the internal and external affairs of the country and of substituting in the treaties his own title for that of the Tycoon [Shogun]. This was followed a week later by a public rescript in which it was proclaimed that 'intercourse with foreign countries shall in future be carried on in accordance with the public law of the whole world,' and, as a first onward step on this path, an invitation soon followed to the Representatives to visit Kioto and be received in audience by His Majesty. . . . It is difficult even for a thinking Japanese of modern days to appreciate the significance of this event or to realise the profound impression which it created on those who had fought and schemed for the renewal of Japan's time-honoured seclusion. The ceremony was destined not to pass without its tragedy. . . . When Sir Harry Parkes, the British representative, who had been the first among his colleagues to recognise the new Government and to give it his strong moral support, was on his way to the palace, two fanatics, maddened at the desecration of the Emperor and of the city, suddenly attacked his English escort and inflicted severe wounds on ten of the men composing it, before they were themselves killed or disabled. The audience had to be postponed till the following day, but the incident, unhappy and tragic as it was, was not without its good results. It gave the young Emperor, who was receiving Europeans for the first time . . . an opportunity for expressing, with the sympathetic tact and dignity which characterized him in after life, his regret at what had happened and of manifesting his desire to prevent its recurrence. . . . An Imperial rescript was issued within a few days ordering the nation:—'to obey His Majesty's will in the fulfilment of the Treaties with Foreign Countries in accordance with the rules of International Law,' and declaring that:—'All persons in future guilty of murdering foreigners or of committing acts of violence towards them will be acting in opposition to His Majesty's express orders and be the cause of national misfortune. They will therefore be punished in proportion to the gravity of their offence, and their names if samurai, will be erased from the roll.' . . . Thenceforward the murder of a foreigner lost the character of a martyr and became a common criminal like any robber or thief. From that day outrages of this nature entirely ceased. . . . The foreign policy of the Emperor having been fully manifested to his people, the domestic policy remained to be declared, and it was soon seen that it was to be no less revolutionised than the foreign. As a first step the Emperor was to see and be seen by his people. . . . His first public appearance was made in a visit to Osaka, the great commercial city of Japan, twenty miles from the capital. Even then his presence among the people was more fictitious than real. Attended by an escort of over 10,000 men, he was carried in a palanquin, the bamboo blinds of which enabled

EMPEROR MUTSUHITO

him to see without himself being seen. From the shore he reviewed the beginning of the Japanese fleet. It consisted of but six ships, all converted merchant steamers, not one of which exceeded 1000 tons or 300 horse power, and not one of them could yet be called his, all being owned by one or other of the great fiefs. The Tokugawas possessed other and more formidable ships, manned by officers and men who had already had some professional training from British officers, but these still lay at Yedo and they never became Imperial property. They were destined to perish at Hakodate in the last fight that was made by the Tokugawa partisans. The task of forming the new system of administration was vigorously pursued. A council of state was formed, seven departments were founded for the administration of the various branches of the Government, and all the feudal lords (daimio) having been summoned to Kioto, the Emperor in their presence and in that of all the Court nobles, assembled in solemn conclave, took what is known as the 'Charter Oath, which as the foundation of modern constitutional liberty holds

the same position in the history of Japan that the Magna Charta does in that of England. He promised, in the Oath, which consisted of five articles, that:—'A deliberative assembly should be formed and all measures decided by public opinion, that civil and military government should no longer be separated and that all classes of the people should with one mind devote themselves to the national welfare; that the rights of all classes should be assured; that the uncivilized customs of antiquity should be abolished and impartiality and justice administered according to universally recognised principles; and that intellect and learning should be sought for throughout the world, so that the foundations of the Empire might be firmly established.' The programme thus outlined was both extensive and ambitious and formulated a task which could only be carried to a successful accomplishment by earnest, courageous and able statesmen. Fortunately such were not wanting. At their head were some of the Court and feudal nobles, but their aggregate did not exceed half a dozen. The rest, about fifty in all, were samurai of the four great fiefs, Satsuma, Choshiu, Tosa and Hizen, men whose ability and courage had brought them to the front; who, though of gentle birth, were low in rank, with no advantages of birth, means or education to differentiate them from tens of thousands of their fellows. Associated with them as their guides in foreign affairs were a few young students of their own class who had the advantage of a short education in Europe. . . . Further reforms were soon made. A new classification of the people was adopted. The old distinction between the court and feudal nobility was abolished and both were merged in one class under the title of *Kwazoku* or nobles, literally *Flower Families*. The remainder of the samurai, irrespective of the many gradations of rank in their own fiefs, were grouped under the title of *Shizoku* or *gentry,* and the rest of the people under that of *Heimin* or *commoners*. Kioto was the acknowledged capital of the Empire, but in the last three centuries Yedo had been the seat of the executive government, and the nation had grown accustomed to regard it as the source of all active authority. It was thought that the new Imperial executive would be more readily recognised if it were administered from the same seat as had been the old, and it was therefore decided that Yedo should in future be the Imperial capital, its name being changed to Tokio or Eastern capital, by which it has since been known."—J. H. Longford, *Evolution of new Japan, pp.* 30-33, 35-39.—"The significant place where the [charter] oath was taken was the Shi-shin-den, or Purple Mystery Hall, a separate edifice of noble proportions and venerable associations. The text was published in the castle of Nijo, the headquarters of the Camp which had long overawed the Throne. In its interior decoration, at least, this was the handsomest building in Kyoto, except possibly some of the gorgeous temples of the Shin, or 'Protestant' sect of Buddhists. In this edifice the assembled Court Nobles and the land holding barons had formed a house of assembly for the discussion of public questions. This 'Charter Oath' formed the basis of the Constitution of 1889. As matter of fact, it was twenty-one years before its provisions were fulfilled, the prerogative of the Emperor limited, the rights of Japanese subjects guaranteed, and their liberties assured. Bitter experience taught the Japanese statesmen that representative government could not be created at once, and that the too hasty introduction of liberal or democratic views in a country whose institutions were essentially aristocratic would only lead to reaction and bloodshed. Nevertheless, here at Kyoto, in 1868, was the visible beginning of constitutional Japan." —W. E. Griffis, *Mikado, pp.* 136-137.—"At the time of the Restoration Japan was not only faced with bankruptcy but was entirely at the end of her tether. Neither the Shogunal, the Imperial, nor the feudal Governments had money or credit, and for a number of years the new Bureaucracy, who may be regarded as the national receivers, were forced to keep the ship of State in action by means of fiat paper money. Nor did the resources of the country or the state of industry give great promise of improvement. Manufactures and commerce had held such a low place in the national esteem that they were relegated to the lowest classes. At the most there were guilds of craftsmen producing many dainty and beautiful articles, which were, however, utterly incapable of sustaining a rejuvenated community. Urgent measures were required, and the Bureaucracy at once set about reorganizing the social fabric. The chief points in their programme were as follows: First, the despatch of agents abroad to study European methods of agriculture and manufacture and to draw up plans for their adaptation to Japan, as well as the engagement of foreign experts to see that such schemes were properly carried out. This included also the founding of experimental stations and laboratories. Second, the inauguration of a very complete system of education whereby the masses could avail themselves of the facts thus acquired, and rearrange their activities accordingly. [See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Japan: Primary.] Third, the establishment, under government auspices, of model factories, foundaries, farms, etc., which were gradually given over to private enterprise, and which were of incalculable benefit to so uninitiative a race as the Japanese. Fourth, the institution of an efficient banking and currency system whereby the development of private concerns could be suitably fostered and controlled."—W. M. McGovern, *Modern Japan, pp.* 223-224.—"One of the most important of the five clauses of the oath was, that intellect and learning should be sought for throughout the world in order to establish the foundations of the empire. This was simply legalizing what had been begun under Tokugawa. In 1863, men of war had been ordered from Holland and Messrs. Enomoto, Akamatsu, Uchida, and others were sent thither as students of naval science. They returned in 1868 in the *Kaiyo Maru,* most of them becoming officers of the navy. Sakuma Chozan was the first Japanese who openly urged that foreigners be invited to come to Japan and teach the arts and sciences of the West, and men of Echizen early held similar ideas. The Yedo Government had already employed engineers and military instructors. A telegraph, lighthouses, ships of war, and various manifestations of the new spirit were already visible. It was in the view of the Imperial oath, also, that native students should be sent abroad. Some, indeed, had surreptitiously already, under assumed names, visited Europe and America. Among them were Ito, Inouye, Terashima, and others who have since become famous. In America, Rutgers College, at New Brunswick, N. J., was at first the point of concourse. . . . Under the Charter Oath, not fewer than five thousand salaried foreigners, men and women, including about twelve hundred American teachers, experts in their several callings, were brought to Japan before the beginning of the twentieth century. . . . Since civil war almost immediately broke out after the *coup d'état* in Kioto, no steps were taken at

first, but in the spring of 1870 Echizen, who, being a relative of the shogun, yet loyal to the Emperor, having already sent students abroad, made application for a staff of five *Yatoi* ["hired aliens"] —a military instructor, a mining engineer, a medical doctor and surgeon, a teacher of the English language, and a college graduate, one proficient in natural science, who could also train up teachers and, as the words of the appointment ran, 'organize schools on the American principle.' No Mom Bu Sho, or Department of Education, was as yet organized. . . . In many cases, the yatoi not only sowed the first seeds of knowledge, but they created new sciences, being original investigators, explorers, or observers. They inaugurated the railroads, telegraphs, lighthouses, the building of steamships and laboratories, organizations of bureaus, and in a thousand ways showed the Japanese how to utilize the forces of nature, develop the national resources, and improve the condition of man. They could not bestow on the Japanese their superb mental powers,—the Creator's gifts were not theirs,—but they did point the way. In thousands of souls they kindled sacred fire. They brought the seed and the natives have raised the flower. They scattered the grain, and the Japanese have reaped the harvest. 'The foreign *employé* is the creator of New Japan,' is the verdict of Basil Hall Chamberlain. The yatoi found a nation ready to go to school, but who made the Japanese people ready? No story of salaried aliens' triumphs would be complete without mention of the American missionaries who entered as early as 1859, and took hold of the boys. During . . . [the Civil War in the United States] and after it, these were compelled, by the financial weaknesses of their societies at home, to be in a measure, or for a time, yatoi. They seeded the Japanese mind, as a field, with the noblest ideas in ethics, political economy, historical development, and told the secrets of national prosperity and democracy. They taught in the first schools hundreds of lads who afterwards became leaders, and have been or are to-day in high station. In these youth, the sacred thirst for science, history, and language was raised. They drove in the plough beam deep, harrowing the fields and getting all ready for the day of national public schools and the secular teachers who came after 1870."—W. E. Griffis, *Japanese nation in evolution, pp.* 334-339.—See also MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Japan.—The change at the restoration "was great and impressive, but it was thrown completely into the shade by one more profound and far-reaching which soon followed it. The Restoration had not yet entailed the abolition of feudalism. The feudal lords still continued to administer their fiefs, to exercise the same *imperium in imperio* as they had done under the Tokugawas for many preceding centuries and to retain their local autocracy unimpaired. No complete unification of the Empire under one supreme ruler could be hoped for while they did so. The lords of the four great fiefs that had been foremost in the Restoration again took the lead, and in a memorial signed by all four they voluntarily surrendered their fiefs to the Emperor and where they led all others had perforce to follow. The memorial appeared in the Official Gazette on the 5th of March, 1869. It was at once accepted, but the mediatisation of the fiefs was not yet complete. At first their former lords were appointed Governors of what they had hitherto owned, and while they acted in the name of the Emperor they continued to collect and administer their own revenues, paying, however, a contribution to the Imperial treasury, and to retain many of their old privileges. To deprive them of all at one stroke would have been too drastic a step for a Government which at the time had neither army nor money and had to rely entirely on the goodwill of these feudatories for the enforcement of its decrees on any among them who might prove recalcitrant, and it was not till two years later that the step was finally completed in its fullest measure. Then the last blow was given to the system of feudalism. On the 29th of August, 1871, all the daimio were ordered to quit their fiefs and take up their residences for the future as private gentlemen in Tokio, without either administrative or executive authority, without even titles to distinguish them from the common herd. Ten per cent. of their former revenues were assigned to them for their support, but they were at the same time relieved from the maintenance of the armies of samurai who had hitherto depended on them. Their castles, munitions and ships were handed over to the Government. Their fiefs were converted into prefectures administered by officials, with no local prejudices, appointed by the central Government; all their revenues were paid into the Imperial Treasury, from which in turn all expenses both for their own and their samurai's pensions and for administration were defrayed. Uniform systems of law and currency were established, and at last a national Government, both in name and fact, was firmly consolidated in the hands of the Emperor and the ministers who acted for him. Then in reality began the modern Empire of Japan."—J. H. Longford, *Evolution of new Japan, pp.* 39-41.

ALSO IN: K. S. Latourette, *Development of Japan, pp.* 118-120.

After the promulgation of the edict which abolished the Daimio clans the *Samurai* still remained to be dealt with. "Feudalism could not be said to have been abolished so long as the *samurai* continued to be a class apart. These men numbered four hundred thousand and with their families represented a total of about two million souls. They were the empire's soldiers, and in return for devoting their lives to military service they held incomes, some for life, others hereditary, and these emoluments aggregated two millions sterling annually. No reformer, however radical, would have suggested the sudden disestablishment of the *samurai* system or advocated the wholesale deprivation of incomes won by their forefathers as a reward for loyal service to the State or to the fiefs. The Government dealt with this problem much as it had done with the problem of the feudatories. In 1873, an Imperial decree announced that the treasury was ready to commute the *samurai's* incomes on the basis of six-years' purchase in the place of hereditary pensions and four years for life-pensions, half of the money to be paid in cash and the remainder in bonds carrying eight per cent. interest. This measure was in no sense compulsory; the *samurai* were free to accept or reject it. Not a few chose the former course, but a large majority continued to wear their swords and draw their pensions as of old. . . . A more perplexing problem now (1873) presented itself, however. The Korean Court, . . . [sent] an offensive despatch announcing a determination to cease all relations with a renegade from the civilization of the Orient. It may well be imagined how indignantly this attitude of the neighbouring kingdom was resented by Japan. The prominent leaders of national reform at that time were Sanjo and Iwakura, originally Court nobles; Saigo and Okubo, *samurai* of Satsuma, and Kido, a *samurai* of Choshu. In the second rank were several men destined afterwards to attain great celebrity—the late

Prince Ito, Marquis Inouye, Count Okuma, Count Itagaki—often spoken of as the 'Rousseau of Japan'—and several others. The first five, however, were pre-eminent at the moment when Korea sent her offensive message. . . . In Saigo's eyes an oversea war offered the only chance of saving the *samurai* [as the empire's only soldiers], since the conscription law had not yet produced any trustworthy soldiers. He therefore voted to draw the sword at once, and in this he obtained the support of several influential men who burned to avenge the nation's disgrace. On the other hand, those in favour of peace insisted that the country must not venture to engage in a foreign war during the era of radical transition. The discussion was carried to the Emperor's presence; the peace-party prevailed, and Saigo with three other Cabinet ministers resigned. . . . Before these curious conditions bore any practical fruit, Japan found it necessary to send a military expedition to Formosa. That island was claimed as part of China's domains, but it was not administered by her effectively, and its inhabitants showed great barbarity in their treatment of castaways from the Ryukyu, or Loochoo, Islands. The Chinese Government's plain function was to punish these acts of cruelty, but as the Peking statesmen showed no disposition to discharge their duty in that respect, Japan took the law into her own hands. A double purpose was thus served. For the expedition to Formosa furnished employment for the Satsuma *samurai*, and, at the same time, assured the Ryukyu islanders that Japan was prepared to protect them. . . . After a long interchange of despatches the Tokyo Government sent an ambassador to Peking, and a peaceful solution was found in the payment of a small indemnity, and the recognition of Formosa as a part of the Middle Kingdom. [See also FORMOSA: 1874-1910.]—The Formosan expedition took place in 1874, and, in the fall of 1875, a Korean fort opened fire on a Japanese warship which was engaged in surveying the coast. Such an insult could not be tamely endured. Japan marshalled an imposing number of warships and transports, but, following the example set in her own case by Commodore Perry, she employed this flotilla to intimidate Korea into signing a treaty of amity and commerce and opening certain ports to foreign trade. Thus, Korea was drawn from her hereditary isolation, and to Japan fell the credit of having become an instrument for extending the principle of universal intercourse which she had herself so stoutly opposed during two and a half centuries. It was a clever *coup*, but it earned little credit with the *samurai*. They regarded such a settlement as derogatory to their country. It was at this stage that the Tokyo Government felt itself strong enough to resort to conclusive measures in the cases of the *samurai*. Three years had now passed since the wearing of swords had been declared optional and since a scheme for the voluntary commutation of the *samurai's* pensions had been elaborated. The leaders of progress felt that the time had now come to make these measures compulsory, and, accordingly, two edicts were issued in that sense. The edicts, especially their financial provisions, imposed a heavy sacrifice. But it is very noticeable that the momentary question evoked no protests. It was to the loss of their swords that a number of *samurai* objected strenuously. . . . It has already been shown that the sovereign's so-called coronation oath did not contemplate a national assembly in the Western sense of the term. The first assembly convened in obedience to the oath consisted of nobles and *samurai* only, and was found to be a virtually useless body. Not till 1873, when Itagaki Taisuke, seceding from the Cabinet on account of the Korean complication, became a warm advocate of appealing national questions to an elective assembly, did the people at large come to understand what was involved in such an institution. Thenceforth Itagaki became the centre of a more or less enthusiastic group of men advocating a parliamentary system, some from sincere motives, and others from a conviction that their failure to obtain posts was in a manner due to the oligarchical form of their country's polity. When the Satsuma rebellion broke out, . . . this band of Tosa agitators memorialized the Government, charging it with administering affairs in despite of public opinion; with ignoring popular rights, and with levelling down instead of up, since the *samurai* had been reduced to the class of commoners, whereas the latter should have been educated to the standard of the former. But the statesmen in power insisted that the nation was not yet ready to enjoy constitutional privileges. They did not, indeed, labour under any delusion as to the ultimate direction in which their reforms tended, but they were determined to move gradually, not precipitately. They had already (1874) arranged for the convention of an annual assembly of prefects who should act as channels of communication between the central authorities and the people in the provinces. This was designed to be the embryo of representative institutions, though obviously it bore that character in a very limited degree only. In the following year (1875), the second step was taken by organizing a Senate (*Genro-in*), which consisted of official nominees and was charged with the duty of discussing and revising laws and ordinances prior to their promulgation. But it had no power of initiative, and its credit in the eyes of the nation was more or less injured by the fact that its members consisted for the most part of men for whom no posts could be found in the administration and who, without some steadying influence, might have been drawn into the current of discontent. At this stage, an event occurred which probably moved the Government to greater expedition. In the spring of 1878, the great statesman, Okubo Toshimitsu, who had acted . . . a prominent part on the stage of the reformation drama, was assassinated. His slayers were avowedly sympathizers of Saigo, but in their statement of motives they assigned as their principal incentive the Government's failure to establish representative institutions. They belonged to a province far removed from Satsuma, and their explanation of the murder showed that they had little knowledge of Saigo's real sentiments. But the nation saw in them champions of a constitutional form of government, and the authorities appreciated the necessity of greater expedition. Thus, two months after Okubo's death, the establishment of elective assemblies in the prefectures and cities was proclaimed. . . . [The] . . . principal function [of these assemblies] were to determine the amount and object of local taxes; to audit the accounts for the previous year; and to petition the Central Government, should that seem expedient. These assemblies represented the foundations of genuinely representative institutions, for although they lacked legislative power, they discharged parliamentary functions in other respects. In fact, they served as excellent training schools for the future Diet. But this did not at all satisfy Itagaki and his followers. They had now persuaded themselves that without a national assembly it would be impossible to oust the clique of clansmen who monopolized the prizes of power. Accordingly, Itagaki organized an association called

Jiyu-to (Liberals), the first political party in Japan. Between the men in office and these visionary agitators a time of friction, more or less severe, ensued. The Government withheld from the people the privileges of free speech and public meeting, so that the press and the platform found themselves in frequent collision with the police. Thus, little by little, the Liberals came to be regarded as victims of official tyranny, so that they constantly obtained fresh adherents."—F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people, pp.* 682-685, 689-690.—Some scores of the Samurai attacked the castle of Kumamoto, "killed or wounded three hundred of the garrison, and then died by their own hands. Here and there throughout the Empire a few equally vain protests were raised, and finally the Satsuma Samurai took the field. This insurrection in the south severely taxed the resources of the Central Government. The Satsuma *samurai* were led by Saigo Takomori, but it has always been claimed for him that he undertook the command, not for the purpose of overthrowing the *Meiji* Government, but in the hope of restraining his followers. Ultimately, however, he seems to have been swept away by the tide of their enthusiasm. The insurgents numbered some forty thousand; they all belonged to the *samurai* class, were fully trained in Occidental tactics, and were equipped with rifles and field-guns. Their avowed purpose was to restore the military class to its old position, and to insure to it all the posts in the army and the navy. Fighting began on January 29, 1877, and ended on September 24th of the same year. All the rebel leaders fell in battle or died by their own hands. During these eight months of warfare, the Government put sixty-six thousand men into the field, and the casualties on both sides totalled thirty-five thousand, or thirty-three per cent. of the whole."—F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people, pp.* 685-686.—"Ever since his retirement from office, and his withdrawal to his native province in 1873, the elder Saigo had remained in Kagoshima, the chief town of Satsuma. Here he had established an institution which, in order to disguise its object, was called a 'private school.' In reality it was a military college. In its central quarters in that town, and in branches elsewhere, the youth of the clan received a military training. . . . By this time much uneasiness prevailed. Public apprehension found free expression in the Press, which said that the nation was divided into two parties, one being for the Government, the other for Satsuma, and asked what could be done to preserve peace. . . . Early in 1877 the rebellion broke out. Some excitement had been caused in Satsuma by the rumour of a plot to murder Saigo, and the Government thought it prudent to endeavour to remove a part at least of the stores in the Kagoshima arsenal. The execution of this plan was prevented by cadets of the 'private school,' and an officer sent from Tokio in the middle of January to arrange matters met with a hostile reception, and was obliged to return without landing. War was now certain."—J. H. Gubbins, *Making of modern Japan, p.* 130.—"In August 1883 Ito Hirobumi returned from Europe and set himself to the task of drawing up a Constitution and of remodelling the Cabinet system. Ito had remained abroad about eighteen months for the investigation of political institutions in the West. His longest sojourn was in Germany. It is said that while he was there he became a great admirer of Prince Bismarck, and attentively studied the administrative methods of that eminent statesman and the Prussian bureaucracy. His first step towards the establishment of a constitutional *régime* was the rehabilitation of the nobility. . . . In July 1884, the new orders of nobility—prince, marquis, count, viscount, and baron—were instituted by Ito's advice after Western fashion and conferred upon the old Court nobles and ex-feudal chiefs according to their old ranks; while those who had rendered signal service in the Restoration were raised to the rank of the nobility. The number of peers then created, old and new together, was 505. This rehabilitation of the nobility was a great success, and Ito's popularity was overwhelmingly increased among the nobles and the official class. His next step was the remodelling of the Cabinet system, so that it might suit the working of the Constitution which he then contemplated. Hitherto, the administrative business of the government had been considerably confused, there being no clear division between the various departments, so that the work

PRINCE ITO

of one department often overlapped that of another. Yet one departmental Minister was almost independent of the other, and no Minister was responsible for the entire administration of State. The Premier, or *Daijo Daijin*, issued all important laws and notifications, but he did not direct the policy of the State. Under the new Cabinet system the Minister President (*Naikaku sori Daijin*) was, like the Chancellor of Germany, responsible for the entire administration of the State, while all departmental Ministers were subjected to his direct guidance and at the same time accountable for all the affairs of their own departments. Ito himself became the first Minister President under the new Cabinet system. Another great reform then brought forward by Ito was the introduction of the Civil Service examination system for official appointments. Hitherto official appointments

had been largely a matter of personal favour; it had been hardly possible for any one to attain a high official position without much wire-pulling. This was one source of discontent among the political agitators, and from it they drew much political capital in attacking the government. The reform, though it had no direct reference to the new constitutional system of government, then under contemplation, had a deterrent effect upon official favouritism, and led to great improvements in the machinery of administration. . . . On December 25, 1887, the Peace Preservation Law (*Hoan Jorei*) was promulgated, the most repressive measure ever enacted since the Restoration. Under this Act all secret meetings and associations were strictly prohibited, and any person who violated this was punished by one month to two years' imprisonment, with in addition a fine of from 10 to 100 *yen*. . . . But it must be kept in mind that the government adopted this exceptionally harsh measure chiefly because it desired to suppress public criticism on the treaty question. Indeed, in Japan criticism of foreign policy is always severely treated by the government; while the people themselves are extremely sensitive on the subject of national prestige. It seems that the government was fully conscious of the unusual severity of the measure and aware of the aggravation of popular irritation. Therefore, as a means of reconciliation, the government invited Count Okuma, who had invariably sided with the people, to take the portfolio of Foreign Affairs and reopen the negotiations for Treaty Revision. Okuma accepted the invitation and returned to office in February 1888. Meanwhile the government steadily prepared for the opening of the constitutional *régime*. On 28th April [1888] the Privy Council (*Sumitsuin*) was established as an advisory board to the sovereign. On the 30th, Ito resigned his post of Minister President in favour of Kuroda, the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, and became the President of the newly-created Privy Council, so that he might preside over the deliberations of the draft Constitution, which had been compiled under his direction, and was just then about to be submitted to the Privy Council for approval and final completion. The Constitution was approved by the Privy Council after consideration and sanctioned by the Emperor."—G. E. Uyehara, *Political development of Japan, pp.* 100-101, 104-105.—"It may indeed be asserted that during the decade immediately prior to the opening of the national assembly, 'an anti-Government propaganda was incessantly preached from the platform and in the press.' The Tokyo statesmen, however, were not at all discouraged. They proceeded with their reforms unflinchingly. . . . The civil and penal laws were codified. The finances were placed on a sound footing. A national bank with a network of subordinate institutions was established. The foundations of a strong mercantile marine were laid. A system of postal saving-banks was instituted. [See Postal savings banks: 1875.] Extensive schemes of harbour improvement, roads, and riparian works were planned and put into operation. The portals of the civil service were made accessible solely by competitive examination. [See Civil service reform: Japan.] A legion of students was sent westward to complete their education, and the country's foreign affairs were managed with comparative skill."—F. Brinkley, *History of the Japanese people, p.* 691.—"On February 11, 1889, the constitution was promulgated. With its accompaniment of important laws of election, finance, organization of the Houses, and local government, this document was the greatest constructive production of Ito's life. By the gift of the constitution the Emperor, in some degree voluntarily, began the breaking of the road to national self-government, and placed within popular reach privileges and responsibilities great indeed to a people hitherto unaccustomed to representative government. Not that the people received the controlling power. Rather the foundations were laid upon which an edifice of representative government might later be raised. It then remained for legal and extra-legal forces to rear the superstructure and to establish the institutions of self-rule. Something of this has subsequently been accomplished and much still remains to be accomplished. Amendments to the constitution not only require Imperial sanction; they must be proposed to the Diet by Imperial order. Debate upon them cannot be begun unless two-thirds of the members of the House are present, and passage requires the affirmative vote of two-thirds of those present. No amendment may be proposed during a regency. . . . As a written document the Japanese constitution is a model of brevity and clear expression. It is also remarkable for the skill with which, while appearing to establish many new and democratic forms, it preserved old and autocratic facts. If we are justified in assuming that Japan will press forward to attain Western responsible government, Ito's constitution must be regarded as a master instrument for the transitional period. It expresses the political concepts of the Genro; it preserves authority that can be relied upon until such time as another authority can be developed and trained to take its place. [For text of the constitution, see Japan, Constitution of.] We find in the Japanese character and traditions the explanation of the matter-of-fact way in which the people have accepted the work of the leaders in their constitutional development. The skill with which the Ruling House and the Dynasty have retained the loyalty of the people and led the classes and factions as one united nation through the vicissitudes of fundamental change without revolution all but baffles Western comprehension. We can to some extent, however, understand the results of these forces and we cannot fail to admire the spirit of coöperation, of working together for the great national interests, which the Japanese have exhibited."—S. K. Hornbeck, *Contemporary politics in the Far East, pp.* 130, 144-145.

Also in: W. W. McLaren, *Political history of Japan during Meiji era.*

1871-1873.—Organization of national education.—Establishment of Department of Education.—Educational code. See Education: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Japan: Primary.

1871-1883.—Introduction of system of conscription.—Reorganization of army. See Military organization: 35.

1876.—Treaty with Korea. See Korea: 1866-1894.

1876.—Founding of Imperial Engineering College.—Art department. See Education, Art: Modern: Japan.

1880.—Criminal Code, and Code of Criminal Procedure. See Codes: 1880.

1894.—Chilean arrangement for sale of the *Esmeralda* through Ecuador. See Ecuador: 1888-1899.

1894-1895.—War with China. See China: 1894-1895.

1894-1895.—Effect of Chino-Japanese War on international status of Japan.—The war with China, which was declared in August, 1894, resulted in victory for Japan. "On 18th April, 1895,

the Chinese agreed to accept the terms imposed by Japan in the Treaty of Shimonoseki. . . . Never was the victory of one Power over another more strikingly complete, and never was a complete victory more clearly reflected in the terms of Peace. At one bound Japan had advanced to the foremost place in the Far East. The explanation of that victory must be sought in the astounding revolution which in the preceding quarter of a century had been accomplished in that country. . . . But a Europeanised Japan was now confronted by the jealousy and hostility of the European Powers. The rapidity and completeness of Japan's victory over China seemed to threaten the political equilibrium in the Far East. Russia was, of course, the Power primarily concerned by Japan's conquest of Southern Manchuria, upon which Russia had herself always looked with envious eyes. Germany and France were in this matter temporarily in accord with Russia and with each other, and the three European Powers insisted that Japan must not be permitted permanently to occupy the territories on the mainland of China, ceded to her by the Treaty of Shimonoseki. The possession of Port Arthur, so it was contended, would dominate Pekin, and so would prove detrimental to the maintenance of peace in the Far East. Japan, therefore, yielding ostensibly to 'the dictates of magnanimity' but in reality to stern necessity, accepted the advice of the three Powers and surrendered Port Arthur and the Liao-Tung Peninsula. She received as a solatium an increased indemnity, but no money could compensate for the loss of her territorial acquisition, and she withdrew, only to cherish in her heart a bitter animosity against the Power which had been primarily instrumental in robbing her of the fruits of victory, and to prepare for the struggle *à outrance* which was bound sooner or later to come."—J. A. Marriott, *Europe and beyond, pp.* 174-176.—See also CHINA: 1894-1895; SHIMONOSEKI, TREATY OF.—The Chino-Japanese war opened the eyes of the foreigner to the fact that, at all events as far as strategy was concerned, the Japanese had really profited by their studies. The complete and overwhelming success of the Japanese, however, came as such a shock to the average foreigner that he has been wont to date the progress of Japan from that time only, and to ignore the steady and conscientious educational 'grind' which the people of that country had been undergoing at the hands of their European and American instructors quietly and unostentatiously for the five-and-twenty years which preceded that event. We are told that before the war the Japanese were diffident, gentle and courteous to the foreigner, that they recognised his superiority, and so on. Now it is said that at the present day they have lost all these qualities, and that they are bumptious and self-assertive. The fact of the matter is that, until the war took place, the Japanese had not had an opportunity of demonstrating either to themselves or to the world in general the headway they had made. . . . As victorious countries go, Japan behaved, even immediately after the war, with wonderful clear-headedness and tact. Excesses she may have committed—excesses of exuberance, excesses of speech, and excesses of expenditure—but she did not lose her head, and, on the whole, her behavior after her victory was exemplary."—S. Ransome, *Japan in transition, pp.* 179-181.

1894-1912.—Political development during first era of foreign expansion.—Struggle for ministry responsible to the people.—Death of Emperor Mutsuhito (Meiji Tenno), 1912.—"The Sino-Japanese War . . . [made Japan] once more a military nation. When civil affairs were of paramount importance, none could rival Ito in influence. But with war came the opportunity of Yamagata, the arch-militarist, the genius of the army, who then became the active head of the bureaucracy. Hitherto he had been simply a soldier. Now, taking advantage of the patriotic spirit aroused by the war, he rose to the position of greatest power in the nation. Yamagata himself did not remain long in a position of supremacy. But he ruled for years from the background (from his position as an Elder Statesman) placing his puppets in office. . . . [At the opening of the war, Ito was premier. But even with the aid of an Imperial edict ordering party peace, he was unable to overcome opposition and] decided to compromise. He gave Itagaki, leader of the Tiyu-to, an important place in his cabinet and thus won the support of that party. At this

PRINCE YAMAGATA

point, too, the Sino-Japanese war made necessary a truce in the internal political conflict. After the war, Matsukata became premier again in September, 1896. Following the example of Ito, he compromised with a party. He flirted with the Kaishin-to and gave Okuma a cabinet position. The opposition of the Tiyu-to, which had a plurality though not a majority in the House, was not enough to embarrass him more than slightly. Ito succeeded Matsukata in January, 1898, with the support of the Tiyu-to. After five months, however, the party deserted him and for this and other reasons he resigned. Then in July, 1898, the bureaucrats tried an experiment. They permitted the party leaders to form a cabinet. Okuma they made premier and Itagaki minister of home affairs, and the government was known as the Wai-Han, a combination of the initials of these two men. In the House of Representatives the Jiyu-to [liberals] and the Kaishin-to (now known as the Shimpo-to [pro-

gressives]) consolidated under the name Kensei-to [constitutionalists]. They did their best to get on without the bureaucrats and to open the way for party government, but they could not succeed. After five months, two groups in the Kensei-to found that they could not get along together, and the scheme was wrecked. Yamagata now resumed the premiership in November, 1898. He could not resume his former complete antagonism to the parties. He chose as his allies the Jiyu-to group of the Kensei-to and made with them a bargain which did much to align the political parties in Japan on the side of the growing class of capitalists. He refused to permit the party men to participate in the work of the government and he maintained the rigid civil service rules which kept the administration in the hands of the machine bureaucrats; but he permitted the parties to participate in the graft associated

MARQUIS SAIONJI

with local improvements and with subsidies, and he tolerated connections between party leaders and favored industries. . . . Over a long period of years the bureaucrats found themselves struggling against a growing tendency toward democracy. It will be interesting to follow the evolution of their method of combat, for conditions have changed since the early Meiji period, and methods have changed also. . . . They did not lack skill, . . . in fighting their enemies of the lower house. They pressed to the utmost their autocratic interpretation of the constitution, declaring that since the Emperor has the sole right to appoint the ministers, the lower house has no right to criticise his choice. Bureaucratic premiers repeating this theory, ignored votes of lack of confidence. The only recourse remaining to the House of Representatives was a direct petition to the Emperor to remove the offending official. As soon as the bureaucrats saw this coming they would dissolve the House and order a new election. . . . The bureaucrats did not scruple to use bribery and coercion in further support of their cause. At this period the officials were the wealthiest class, and they easily succeeded in bribing members of the lower house and candidates for office. Then, too, by taking advantage of their control of the police, they could force the people in the local election districts to vote for the right man or suffer for insubordination. In spite of all this, the Japanese people clung to their idealism, and the political parties increased in influence. Prince Ito himself, seeing how difficult it had become to succeed in politics without the support of the parties, changed his views and became himself the founder of a party, the Seiyukai, in 1900. This introduced a period of compromise between the bureaucrats and the parties. At this stage (the opening of the twentieth century) Prince Katsura, the protégé of Yamagata, was the chief leader of the bureaucrats. Although he was a general, Katsura was not intolerant of the parties, and he entered into an agreement with the Seiyukai whereby he alternated in the premiership with the Seiyukai leader, Marquis Saionji [1906-1913]. The compromise was successful. At this period the party men sought to invade the field of the bureaucracy by amending the civil service laws, but this the bureaucrats refused to permit. The ambition of the party men was satisfied by an alliance with the capitalists, just then rising to power. The bureaucrats permitted the alliance and even cooperated with the party men to the extent of granting government subsidies to the corporations of which the party men became directors. . . . In 1901 the first Japanese Social Democratic Party was founded by S. Katayama, I. Abe and K. K. Kawakami, who . . . is . . . well known . . . as a writer on Japanese affairs. The party was immediately dissolved by the bureaucratic government, which thereafter saw to it that no radicals or laborites were permitted to start political action. The socialists then proceeded to spread their propaganda by means of secret societies. They saw that there was no hope for them in politics, and they were therefore driven to thoughts of direct action. During the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) these societies carried on an active pacifist agitation. They managed to publish a daily, which was constantly being suppressed. They got in touch with the Russian revolutionists, with whom they exchanged resolutions hoping that both sides would lose the war. They gained a number of converts in Japan, no doubt, but the opposition of the government and the loyalty of the population was too strong for them. Shortly after the close of the war a group of anarchists and nihilists, led by Denjiro Kotoku, attempted to assassinate the Emperor. This outrageous act, which shocked the entire nation, caused the government to inaugurate a complete suppression of everything resembling socialism. All radical books were strictly suppressed and no one dared, thereafter, to call himself a socialist. . . . [In 1912] came the death of the Emperor Meiji [Mutsuhito] . . . and the succession of the Emperor Taisho [Yoshihito]. The bureaucrats at that time were forced temporarily into the background, and the parties took over the reins of government. This fact gave rise to the term Taisho Revolution, applied to the events of that period by some students, who consider that the death knell of the bureaucrats was then sounded."—U. Iwasaki, *Working*

forces in Japanese politics, pp. 60, 91-92, 54-57, 114, 56.—"The passing of the Meiji Tenno and the accession of his only son, Yoshihito, whatever else it may have involved, was the signal for a political unheaval such as had not been seen in Japan since 1873. . . . The era of Meiji had ended in a period of absolute political calm, as befitted the end of the reign of the great monarch during whose lifetime Japan had been transformed from an unknown island State in the Pacific to a great Power which promised to dominate Asia. But the calm presaged a storm of almost unprecedented violence. Within three months after the Emperor's funeral it had burst over the nation, threatening to uproot all the former institutions and place the control of the nation's destinies in the hands of the people's representatives. When the fury of this political typhoon had subsided, and the wreckage was cleared away, it was found that the fabric of the government remained intact. The clan system, built up on the Constitution, had evinced its immense strength, surviving both a quarrel within the oligarchy and a popular assault from the combined forces of the Opposition. The Genro had shown themselves almost as inviolable as the Emperor, for, having set up a Prime Minister who was howled down within a month and a half, they had immediately brought forward another, and their new nominee was straightway accepted. The Constitution had never even been called into question, but had been appealed to by the staunchest advocates of popular liberty. So far from being regarded as a stumbling-block in the path of progress, it had held its place as 'an immutable law.' The military bureaucrats had triumphed in the formation of the Yamaoto Cabinet, and all that had been accomplished under the most favorable circumstances by the advocates of popular government was merely a change from one faction of the military party to the other, from the domination of Choshu to that of Satsuma, from a policy of military to one of naval expansion."—W. W. McLaren, *Political history of Japan, pp.* 343-351.

1894-1914.—Period of foreign expansion and conflict.—Emergence of Japan as a world power. —"By 1894, as we have seen, the work of the internal reorganization of Japan had been brought to a point where it no longer needed the entire attention of the nation, and where it was not only safe but necessary to take a more active part in international affairs. The new Japan was certain to enter a period of expansion in population, industry, and commerce. This expansion, together with her intense patriotism and the existing conditions in the Orient, was certain to bring on serious clashes with other countries. The first trouble was in Korea, and out of it was to come a long train of events which has not yet ended, which has been momentous for the entire world. . . . The ex-samurai of those former fiefs of the South [the Satsuma and Choshu clans] succeeded in controlling the fighting arms of the nations, and now with the great program of preparedness, exerted a much stronger influence than formerly over all the policies of the government."—K. C. Latourette, *Development of Japan, pp.* 164-169.—"The war between Japan and China, though the details of it attracted at the time comparatively little attention in Europe and America, was fraught with the most momentous consequences. Of the Far-Eastern Powers which remained independent or *quasi*-independent, the most important were China and Japan. The Chinese represented the Conservative and civilian the Japanese the Progressive and military forces still uncontrolled by Europeans and Americans. In China change was disliked, in Japan it was welcomed. Mutsuhito succeeded where Hideyoshi had failed. China was defeated. The Japanese in the War secured useful strategical information for any future campaigns in Korea, the Liao-tung peninsula, and Manchuria, and they established a moral ascendency in those regions which was afterwards to be of immense value to them. From the Pescadores and Formosa the Japanese Island Empire now stretched northeastward from the latitude of Hong-Kong to that of Vladivostock. It barred egress from Northern and Middle China, Korea, and Southern Siberia into the Pacific. [In the period which followed the Chino-Japanese War, an important agreement was reached with Great Britain, which not only accepted Japan as a great power, whose friendship was worthy of recognition by western nations; but also recognized her peculiar interest in Korea. The agreement imposed neutrality on both nations in case either was attacked. (See below: 1895-1902.)] The Chino-Japanese War, owing to German intrigues, led to the Russo-Japanese War, when the Mikado engaged himself and his Army and Navy in a struggle with the Power to prepare against whose possible advance on India Lord Roberts had devoted, and Lord Kitchener was then devoting, all their talents, time, and energy. . . . The events attending the expansion of Japan have taken place concurrently with her elevation to the status of a World-Power; they have, therefore, been rapid, and geographical conditions have compelled each successive step to be enacted in full view of a critical audience. There were no new continents for Japan to occupy and she had to extend her empire over lands immediately adjacent and already populated. These have presented widely divergent problems in colonisation, which might well have taxed the capacity of a more experienced nation. As the growth of Japan has had to take place at the expense of her neighbours, it is inevitable that it should be resented in many quarters. When to this circumstance have to be added mistakes such as no country has been able to avoid entirely in its colonial history, we need not be surprised that criticism, by laying emphasis on details, has been able to create considerable prejudice against the Japanese. The verdict of history will accord to these considerations their true value, and its estimate of Japan as a colonising Power will be largely guided by the use to which she has put her opportunities—in other words, by the fruits of her expansion. This is the standard by which Japan would elect to be judged, and the one to which consciously she adjusts her policy. Whatever may have been the shortcomings which have evoked criticism, there can be no doubt that, alike in Formosa and Korea, the advent of Japanese rule has made for order and progress. . . . Twenty years' government has wrought striking changes in Taiwan (Formosa). The pacification of the aborigines has been completed, conditions of life have become normal, and the productive capacity of the island has been increased until it has been launched on its career as a profitable colony independent of the Imperial Exchequer. [See FORMOSA: 1874-1910.] . . . Japan went to war with China for the purpose of eliminating Chinese interference with Korea. Her victory was followed by an attempt to maintain the independence of the latter country, while effecting its reformation. Russia, however, in her steady expansion eastwards, had by this time appeared on the scene, and took up the *rôle* that

China had been forced to abandon. . . . The Russo-Japanese War (1904) followed, and Russia acknowledged by the Treaty of Portsmouth that Japan possessed in Korea paramount political, military, and economic interests, and engaged neither to obstruct nor to interfere with the measures of guidance, protection, and control which Japan might find it necessary to take. Japan was at last left with a free hand in Korea. She was content at first with establishing a Protectorate over the country. In 1910 Japan formally annexed the peninsula. The Imperial rescript stated that the efforts of the Japanese Government to promote reforms in the administration of Korea had in a degree been attended with success. But the existing *régime* of government in that country had shown itself hardly effective to preserve peace and stability, and in addition a spirit of suspicion and misgiving dominated the whole peninsula. . . . Korea abuts on Manchuria, which since the Russo-Japanese War has been within Japan's sphere of influence. Japan contends that the position she holds there has been acquired for her own preservation and in the interests of peace in the Far East. She disclaims any desire for territorial expansion. . . . In Karafuto, the portion of the island of Saghalien lying south of the 50th degree of latitude ceded by the terms of the Treaty of Portsmouth, Japan has a task more straightforward than that offered either by Taiwan or Chosen. Few aliens are present to offer complications. At the time of the cession Japanese formed the bulk of the inhabitants, and since 1910 others have migrated to the territory at the rate of from 5,000 to 6,000 annually."—R. P. Porter, *Twenty years of new Japan* (*Transactions and Proceedings of the Japan Society, v.* 15, *pp.* 66-70).

Also in: I. Nitobe, *Japanese colonization* (*Transactions and Proceedings of the Japan Society, v.* 17, *pp.* 42-51).—K. K. Kawakami, *Japan in world politics.*

1895 (April).—Treaty of Shimonoseki. See Shimonoseki, Treaty of.

1895-1902.—Growth in international importance.—Abrogation of territorial rights.—Friction with Russia.—Anglo-Japanese Alliance.— From 1895, when the military branch began to supersede civilians in the administration, Ito and Inoue giving way to Yamagata, Katsun, and their friends, Japan "very greatly enlarged both her Army and Navy, and made strenuous efforts to become industrially and financially independent of the West in order that she might be able to wage war and compete economically with any one of the great European Powers. These endeavours were attended with success, so that in the Boxer trouble, when all the leading nations sent expeditions to guard foreign interests in Peking, the Japanese contingent was considered equal in all respects to the others. [See China: 1900.] From this time on Japan was regarded as a definite factor to be counted upon, or, in fact, as a new Great Power."—W. M. McGovern, *Modern Japan, p.* 199.—"Four years after the Restoration, Japan, having grown in stature and increased in importance, found it essential to her dignity to revise the humiliating treaties concluded by the Shogunate with the Western Powers. For a long time, though often hindered by more urgent domestic and Korean problems, the question of Treaty revisions had been the chief cause of popular emotion, and exercised as disturbing an influence upon the politics of Japan as the Home Rule question once did in Great Britain. Many a Ministry had been upset, and the strongest Cabinets Japan could produce . . . failed to cope with the problem."—S. Okuma, *Fifty years of new Japan, v.* 1, *p.* 101.—"By the treaties which Japan had signed with foreign Powers, aliens were exempted from the jurisdiction of the Japanese law-courts, and Japan was permitted to impose only very low duties on imports. So long as these galling restrictions remained in force, Japan was the vassal of foreign capitalists. Several attempts were made to revise the treaties, but only in 1894, on the eve of the Chino-Japanese War, did Great Britain consent to revision. Her example was followed by other Powers, and by 1899 Japan may be said to have shaken off most of her tariff and juristic shackles. She had already codified much of her law and organized her law courts after European models. Her victory over China forcibly demonstrated that she was a progressive State, entitled fully to regulate her own fiscal affairs."—R. P. Porter, *Japan, pp.* 120-121.

Also in: W. W. McLaren, *Political history of Japan during Meiji era, p.* 237.

Yet foreigners resident in Japan have to submit to certain restrictions. "With some exceptions of no great significance the foreigners living in Japan enjoy the same status as native subjects, so far as right and privileges are concerned. At the same time the foreigners are just as amenable to the criminal laws and punitive provisions of the realm as the Japanese. The exceptions mentioned above relate first to mining concessions which are granted only to native subjects or to companies formed according to Japanese laws. Foreigners may therefore enjoy the mining right by becoming shareholders of a company so formed. Then certain companies or banks that stand in special relation to the Government, for instance the subsidized steamship companies as the Nippon Yusen Kaisha or the banks under special protection as the Bank of Japan, are not allowed to take foreigners as shareholders. In regard to the right of ownership of land this right was denied to individual foreigners. . . . By the Law promulgated April 1910 [but not put into operation] this question has received radical modification. It imposes various restrictions on the foreign ownership of land, as follows:—(1) Hokkaido, Saghalien and Formosa are exempted from the operation of the Law. (2) It is impossible for the right to be granted in any district declared to be reserved for purposes of national defence. (3) The Law makes it incumbent on any foreigner who owns land in a district newly declared to be within a fortified zone to divest himself of that property within one year on pain of sequestration. (4) The Law only grants the right of ownership to those foreigners who maintain a household or lodging in the country, or to those foreign juridical persons who keep an office here. (5) It compels any foreign landowner who may leave the country and thus fail to maintain a household or lodging to sell his property within five years on penalty of its reversion to the National Treasury. The date of putting the Law in operation still remains unfixed."—*Japan Year Book,* 1921-1922, *p.* 37.

While Japan was establishing her prestige with Occidental nations, a new enemy was threatening the position which she claimed on the continent. Russia, being on good terms with defeated China, was occupying Southern Manchuria and proceeding with the Trans-Siberian railway which gave her control of the interior of northern Asia, and an outlet to the Pacific ocean. (See also Manchuria: 1900-1901.) In her apprehensions and ambitions Japan had the sympathy of England

(who felt her commercial supremacy in the East threatened by Russia) and of America whose newly acquired position in the Philippines gave her an interest in Far Eastern affairs. "It was the probable effect of a continued occupation of Manchuria by Russia upon their business interests which led Great Britain and America to wish that the repeated Russian assurances of good faith toward China and toward all foreign nations should manifest themselves in works. The case could not be wholly the same with Japan. Her interests of trade were, indeed, if not at the time so large, more close and vital than those of any other nation outside of China. But her other interests were incomparable. So that when Russia failed to carry out her engagements, even under a convention which was so much in her favor [see CHINA: 1901-1902], there was a revival of suspicion and apprehension on the part of the Japanese Government and the Japanese people. Manchuria and Korea both pointed an index finger of warning directed toward Russia. It was to further a peaceful adjustment of all the disturbed conditions of the interests of Russia and Japan in the Far East that Marquis Ito went, on his way home from his visit to the United States, at the end of 1901, on an unofficial mission to St. Petersburg. The failure of the overtures which he bore discouraged those of the leading Japanese statesmen who were hoping for some reconciliation which might take the shape of allowing Russian ascendency in Manchuria and Japanese ascendency in Korea. It also strengthened the conviction which prevailed among the younger statesmen that the St. Petersburg Government regarded Manchuria as not only its fortress in the Far East, but also as its path to the peninsula lying within sight of Japan's shores. 'The Japanese Government,' says Mr. D. W. Stevens, 'at last felt that the vital interests of Japan might be irrevocably jeopardized in Korea as well as in Manchuria, if it continued to remain a mere passive spectator of Russian encroachments; and in August, 1903, it resolved to take a decisive step. In the most courteous form and through the usual diplomatic channels Japan intimated at St. Petersburg that her voice must be heard, and listened to, in connection with Far Eastern questions in which her interests were vitally concerned.' The answer of Russia was the appointment of Admiral Alexeieff as Viceroy over the Czar's possessions in the Far East, with executive and administrative powers of a semi-autocratic character. . . . Negotiations having in view the peaceful adjustment of the conflicting interests of Russia and Japan in the Far East, which were begun by the latter country in the summer of 1903, were further continued. Mr. Kurino, the Japanese Minister at St. Petersburg, was informed by Baron Komura, who was then Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs, that the recent conduct of Russia at Peking, in Manchuria, and in Korea, was the cause of grave concern to the Government at Tokyo. 'The unconditional and permanent occupation of Manchuria by Russia would,' said Baron Komura, 'create a state of things prejudicial to the security and interests of Japan. The principle of equal opportunity would thereby be annulled, and the territorial integrity of China be impaired. There is, however, a still more serious consideration for the Japanese Government; that is to say, if Russia was established on the flank of Korea it would be a constant menace to the separate existence of that empire, or at least would make Russia the dominant power in Korea. But Korea is an important outpost in Japan's line of defence, and Japan consequently considers its independence absolutely essential to her own repose and safety. Moreover, the political as well as the commercial and industrial interests and influence which Japan possesses in Korea are paramount over those of other Powers. These interests and this influence Japan, having regard to her own security, cannot consent to surrender to, or share with, another Power.' In view of these reasons, Mr. Kurino was instructed to present the following note to Count Lamsdorff, the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs: 'The Japanese Government desires to remove from the relations of the two empires every cause of future misunderstanding, and believes that the Russian Government shares the same desire. The Japanese Government would therefore be glad to enter with the Russian Imperial Government upon an examination of the condition of affairs in the regions of the extreme East, where their interests meet, with a view of defining their respective especial interests in those regions. If this suggestion fortunately meets with the approval, in principle, of the Russian Government, the Japanese Government will be prepared to present to the Russian Government their views as to the nature and scope of the proposed understanding.' The consent of Count Lamsdorff and the Czar having been obtained, on August 12th articles were prepared and submitted by the Japanese Government which it wished to have serve as a basis of understanding between the two countries. The essential agreements to be secured by these articles were: (1) A mutual engagement to respect the independence and territorial integrity of the Chinese and Korean empires, and to maintain the 'open door' in these countries; and (2) a reciprocal recognition of Japan's preponderating interests in Korea and of Russia's special interests in Manchuria. These demands were not altered in any very important way by Japan during all the subsequent negotiations. It was their persistent rejection by Russia, together with her long delays in replying while she was meantime making obvious preparations of a warlike character, which precipitated the tremendous conflict that followed some months later."—G. T. Ladd, *In Korea with Marquis Ito, ch.* 10.

While negotiations were pending between Japan and Russia an agreement was concluded between Great Britain and Japan, inspired by a common desire to restrain Russia in China. The text of this agreement is as follows:

The Governments of Great Britain and Japan, actuated solely by a desire to maintain the *status quo* and general peace in the extreme East, being moreover specially interested in maintaining the independence and territorial integrity of the Empire of China and the Empire of Corea, and in securing equal opportunities in those countries for the commerce and industry of all nations, hereby agree as follows:

Article 1. The High Contracting Parties having mutually recognized the independence of China and of Corea, declare themselves to be entirely uninfluenced by any aggressive tendencies in either country. Having in view, however, their special interests, of which those of Great Britain relate principally to China, while Japan, in addition to the interests which she possesses in China, is interested in a peculiar degree politically, as well as commercially and industrially, in Corea, the High Contracting Parties recognize that it will be admissible for either of them to take such measures as may be indispensable in order to safe-

guard those interests if threatened either by the aggressive action of any other Power, or by disturbances arising in China or Corea, and necessitating the intervention of either of the High Contracting Parties for the protection of the lives and property of its subjects.

Art. II. If either Great Britain or Japan, in the defence of their respective interests as above described, should become involved in war with another Power, the other High Contracting Party will maintain a strict neutrality, and use its efforts to prevent other Powers from joining in hostilities against its ally.

Art. III. If in the above event any other Power or Powers should join in hostilities against that ally, the other high contracting party will come to its assistance and will conduct a war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with it.

Art. IV. The High Contracting Parties agree that neither of them will, without consulting the other, enter into separate arrangements with another Power to the prejudice of the interests above described.

Art. V. Whenever, in the opinion of either Great Britain or Japan, the above-mentioned interests are in jeopardy, the two Governments will communicate with one another fully and frankly.

Art. VI. The present agreement shall come into effect immediately after the date of its signature, and remain in force for five years from that date. In case neither of the High Contracting Parties should have notified twelve months before the expiration of the said five years the intention of terminating it, it shall remain binding until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the High Contracting Parties shall have denounced it. But if, when the date fixed for its expiration arrives, either ally is actually engaged in war, the alliance shall, ipso facto, continue until peace is concluded. In faith whereof the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed this agreement, and have affixed thereto their seals.

This agreement was renewed in 1905. See below: 1905-1914.

1896-1917.—Growth of shipbuilding.—Commercial relations with United States.—Exports. See COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1896-1917.

1897.—Treaty with Russia and United States regarding pelagic sealing in Bering sea. See BERING SEA QUESTION.

1898.—Protocol recognizing independence of Korea. See KOREA: 1895-1898.

1899.—Represented at first Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Constitution.

20th century.—Education: Primary, secondary, higher and technical schools. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Japan; ASIA: European influences: 1.

20th century.—Capitalistic enterprises. See CAPITALISM: 20th century: Japan.

1900-1907.—Anti-Japanese agitation in California.—Segregation of Asiatic students in California schools.—Emigration to Canada.—Restrictions in South Africa and Canada. See CALIFORNIA: 1900-1920; IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Japanese emigration problem; RACE PROBLEMS: 1903-1908; 1904-1909.

1900-1915.—Naval expenditures. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1900-1915.

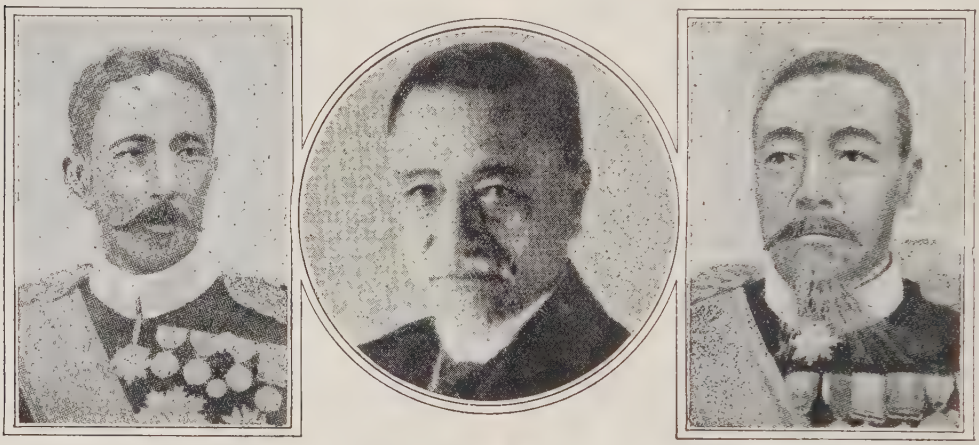
1900-1919.—Interest in Korea.—Bismarckian policy.—Oppression. See KOREA: 1900; 1910-1919.

1902-1905.—Period of Russo-Japanese War.—Relation of Anglo-Japanese Alliance to Russo-Japanese War.—Beginning of hostilities in 1904.—Details of Russo-Japanese War: Battle of Port Arthur, battle of Mukden, naval victory in Straits of Korea.—"By this time Japan had grown sufficiently strong to be able to cope with any *one* of the foreign Powers, but was naturally unable to carry on a struggle with a combination. She was afraid that France would come to the aid of Russia in case of war. In the eyes of this school there was only one way to prevent this—an alliance with England. If England and Japan would promise to come to one another's assistance in case of attack by more than one Power, Japan would be permitted to wage war with Russia alone without danger from France or elsewhere. England, on the other hand, would welcome such an alliance as freeing her from risk of Russian aggression in India and China. She could expect that Japan would be able to keep the Tzar's hands tied for many years to come. These arguments found favour in both countries, though there is much evidence to show that the idea was fostered by the Kaiser for reasons of his own. However this may be, the Anglo-Japanese alliance was patched up, and signed on January 20, 1902. [See above: 1895-1902.] Germany was, of course, notified, but contrary to opinion in certain circles showed no intention of joining the alliance, for a reason not difficult to fathom. Had she done so Russia would have dropped all Oriental designs and devoted her entire energies to the European danger. Once the treaty of alliance was signed Japan was able to move fairly swiftly, but various negotiations took up another two years, and it was January 13, 1904, before Japan sent an ultimatum to Russia regarding her Far Eastern policy. On February 6, no answer having been received, the Japanese ambassador at St. Petersburg asked for his passports. Generally speaking, the sympathy of the entire world, with the exception of France, was with the Japanese, but as in the case of the Chino-Japanese War, uninformed public opinion greatly overestimated the strength and resources of Japan's opponent. Quite apart from the corruption and inefficiency of both of her services, the military forces which Russia possessed had for the most part to be kept in Europe and but a small proportion could be sent to Manchuria, which from first to last was the scene of battle. No victory in the East could offset a disaster on her Western front, and it was notorious that the German General Staff had a fully prepared plan of invasion in case the Russo-German frontier was weakened. Germany was in alliance with Austria and Italy. She had a close understanding with Turkey and the Balkan States. Relations between France and England were not overfriendly at this time, and those between Russia and England were worse. The smaller countries, such as Sweden, had unfulfilled grudges to pay at the expense of the Muscovites. The Russians were by no means independent in matters concerning finance or ordnance, and even those arsenals which she possessed were in close proximity to German territory and had to be closely watched. An even more important consideration was that the Trans-Siberian Railway had not been entirely completed. Even though she had been able to spare them, Russia had no means of transporting more than a small number of men across the immense distances to the scene of hostility. Accordingly, notwithstanding her immense nominal man-power, at no time during the war which followed had

Russia more than a million men east of Lake Baikal, and in 1904, at the commencement of hostilities, there were in the Far East only some 83,350 men, including 70,000 infantry, 4,200 cavalry, and 196 guns. Opposed to her was Japan, whose insular position everywhere secured her from attack. The only other Powers capable of harming her were England and America, both sympathetic. France was powerless to injure. The battlefield was far enough away from home to preclude the threat of invasion, and near enough to insure easy transportation of men and food. Not only were her men splendidly equipped and trained, but in February, at the outbreak of the war, Japan possessed 850,000 trained soldiers, while the untrained material numbered some 4,250,000 souls, practically all of whom could be despatched wherever occasion demanded. It is estimated that during the war she landed 1,500,000 men in Manchuria. From the naval point of view Japan was in an even more favourable position. Of available naval bases Russia possessed but two—Port Arthur, where the docks were incapable of receiving battleships, and Vladivostock, which was ice-bound part of the year. The Japanese had four excellent bases, in addition to her numerous harbours and straits, which served as pre-eminently suitable bases of operation. In ships available for the Pacific she had an overwhelming preponderance. Russia was in a ferment of internal discontent. Most of her subjects opposed the war. The Japanese were seething with militarism and enthusiasm for martial enterprises. Knowing above all that they were fighting for 'hearth and home' (or their Japanese equivalents), it is no wonder that they won all along the line."—W. M. McGovern, *Modern Japan, pp.* 201-204.—"It is not possible to explain the Russo-Japanese War, as the Chino-Japanese War can be explained, as a diversion of the popular interest from domestic to foreign politics. . . . [Katsura's] interests had been and were in the Army and Navy, and he consented to play the rôle of the Minister President of State to further the military party's designs, not those of the civil party. The war with Russia was to him, therefore, not connected with domestic politics; it was undertaken with strictly militarist ambitions, not as a means of producing harmony at home. It was a national policy in the sense that Yoshida Shoin's had been, the extension of the Empire to include large portions of the continent of Asia. 'On to Lake Baikal' was the plan of the General Staff, which gradually filtered down to the people and became the national ambition. Korea, Manchuria, Mongolia, and all Siberia east of Lake Baikal were to be absorbed. . . . The causes of the war are to be looked for in the weakness of Korea and China, and in the ambitions of Japan and Russia. . . . From 1895 until the outbreak of the war with Russia, Japan was a nation preparing for an inevitable conflict, the issue being predominance in the Far East: the various shifts of Russian and Japanese policy which fill that decade are to be explained as the preliminaries to the struggle. . . . Japan's ambitions for predominance in the Far East were at the root of the conflict with Russia in 1904-6, but her militaristic demand for a 'place in the sun' was not something with which the Powers were likely to sympathize, hence Japan's rôle as the defender of China's integrity and Korea's independence was advertised abroad in 1904, as well as the plea of national defence. These were objects which Europe and America could understand, and doubtless the United States and Europe, outside of France perhaps, were willing enough that Japan's should be the hand to check Russia's Asiatic pretensions. The English, for instance, could perceive from their own policy in Belgium and the Netherlands the necessity for Japan's insistence upon an independent Korea, for with Russia dominant in that peninsula Japan's position would be perilous in the extreme. When the conflict began, Japan had therefore not only the sympathy of the Anglo-Saxon world, but its active support."—W. W. McLaren, *Political history of Japan during the Meiji era, pp.* 289-290, 292.—"In April 1902 a treaty was concluded between Russia and China, under which treaty the former Power undertook to withdraw her troops from Chinese territory. This withdrawal was delayed, in spite of protests from China, and further concessions in Manchuria demanded by Russia were refused by the Chinese Government in April 1903, after Great Britain, the United States, and Japan had protested against the terms of the demands. Japan was at this time given cause for alarm about Russian influence in Korea. [See KOREA: 1903.] . . . Accordingly negotiations were commenced in August 1903, which led to no solution of the difference between the two Powers, and on the 5th of February 1904 the Japanese minister was recalled from St. Petersburg. . . . The main Japanese fleet was concentrated at Sasebo, ready for action under the command of Admiral Togo. . . . The main Russian fleet was at Port Arthur under Vice-Admiral Stark, who was under the orders of Alexeieff. . . . At the outbreak of the war with China in 1894, the Japanese could put only seven divisions in the field, but by 1904 the strength of her field army had been increased to thirteen divisions, including one Guard Division. To every division was attached an extra reserve brigade called a Kobi brigade, and during the war four extra divisions were raised, with their corresponding Kobi brigades. The strength of a Kobi brigade was about 3500, and of a Kobi brigade, mixed, 5000 men."—G. G. Aston, *Letters on amphibious wars, pp.* 218-219, 240-243.—"Taking into account the unequal strength of the two fleets in the Far East, it seemed obvious that Russia's sole chance of securing the command of the sea lay in concentrating the whole of her naval forces and destroying the enemy's fleets in detail. Admiral Alexeieff and his colleagues were distinctly to blame for precipitating war when, as was the case, three armoured cruisers, one protected cruiser and an auxiliary cruiser, and seventeen torpedo-boats under Rear-Admiral Baron Stakelberg were at Vladivostok, the protected cruiser *Varyag* with the gunboat *Koreetz* was at Chemulpo, and the rest of the fleet under Vice-Admiral Starck (with the exception of two gunboats) was at Port Arthur."—R. P. Porter, *Japan, the rise of a modern power, pp.* 163-164.

"Apart from the situation created by geographical conditions, the prospects of this particular war were unique and remarkable in several points. . . . All chance of success depended for the Japanese in the first place on victory at sea, and yet they knew that they had none of the means of making good losses to their fleet such as their opponents would enjoy. At that period the Japanese dockyards had not been sufficiently developed to build even one 'capital ship,' and every vessel of modern design in their navy, large or small, had been launched from a foreign slipway. . . . Russia possessed no port whatever of her own between the Baltic and the Yellow Sea, and could not possibly send ships of war to the East during a period of war unless by the

connivance of some ostensible neutral or neutrals whose neutrality was not above suspicion. Japan reposed some confidence at first in the protection which this seemed to afford, but it proved to be misplaced in the end. . . . For some years before the diplomatic *impasse* reached in 1904, both countries had been making great efforts to increase their fleets. The Japanese devoted a large part of the indemnity received from China after the previous war to placing shipbuilding contracts in Europe and the United States, with the result that six fine battleships were in commission under the Japanese flag. Individually four of these were better than any Russian battleship in Pacific waters, while the remaining pair were quite up to the Russian average. . . . The chief command afloat was vested in Admiral Togo, who abundantly proved his fitness for this great responsibility, and earned the right to a place among the foremost figures in the history of the war. . . . To the ordinary reader the distinguished Japanese admiral is usually remembered only as the victor of Tsushima. That in itself would doubtless constitute a lasting claim to renown, but Togo did much more than win one great battle. Tsushima was merely the consummation of a long period of such strain and labour as few men could have endured. From the very outset he was confronted by a problem the like of which no other admiral in history has ever been called upon to face. The imperative interests of Japan required that he should undertake and maintain the offensive against a navy nearly double in numbers to that of his own country, without any reserves at his disposal from first to last. Such a problem could only be solved by defeating the enemy in detail, and this he did, but a single important reverse at any stage of the process would have ruined the whole. . . . The Japanese had been extremely anxious to keep the peace, and stretched their readiness to compromise to its farthest limits, but when hostilities could no longer be averted they struck at once and struck hard. . . . Togo proposed to deliver a night attack with his destroyers on any vessels in the roadstead and follow this up by an attack with his whole fleet at daybreak; if this proved to be possible without unduly exposing his ships to the fire from the batteries on shore."—G. A. Ballard, *Influence of the sea on the political history of Japan, pp.* 193-195, 198-199, 204.—"On the 8th February a Japanese squadron, escorting transports, arrived off Chemulpo, where two Russian vessels were lying at anchor unprepared for hostilities. Given the choice of being attacked in the harbour or fighting outside, the Russian commander chose the latter alternative. His two vessels were no match for the squadron they encountered. Driven back into port badly damaged, one was sunk and the other blown up by its crew. The same night Admiral Togo, the Japanese naval Commander-in-Chief, delivered a torpedo attack on the Russian fleet at Port Arthur. In this action two Russian battleships and a cruiser sustained severe damage. On the following day the Japanese troops (some four battalions) which had arrived under naval escort at Chemulpo landed, and occupied the Korean capital. The first actions of the war thus resulted in favour of Japan. At this early stage it became apparent that Russia's superiority at sea was greatly nullified by the faulty disposition of her squadrons. While her main fleet in Far Eastern waters was stationed at Port Arthur, a powerful squadron remained isolated at Vladivostok. . . . Two other obstacles the Russian commanders had to contend with: the ice-bound condition of Vladivostok for several months in the year, and the almost insurmountable difficulty of repairing vessels owing to the absence of adequate dockyard facilities. In all these respects Japan had an advantage. Her harbours were free from ice. She was well provided with naval arsenals, and with dockyards for the repair of her ships. On the outbreak of war, too, her fleet was at once concentrated at Sasébo, the naval arsenal near Nagasaki, a detached squadron being posted in the Korean straits, whence it could watch Vladivostok. From the first, therefore, the Russian naval forces in the Far East were separated, nor throughout the war were they ever able to effect a junction. Moreover, whereas the Russian home fleet took no part in the war until it was drawing to a close, the Japanese navy early in the struggle received a welcome reinforcement in the shape of two new battleships acquired in Europe from a neutral Power. . . . The Japanese operations on land began with the disembarkation of the 1st Army of three divisions under General Kuroki at the mouth of the Ta-tong river and the occupation of the important town of Ping-yang, where the Chinese army had made its first stand

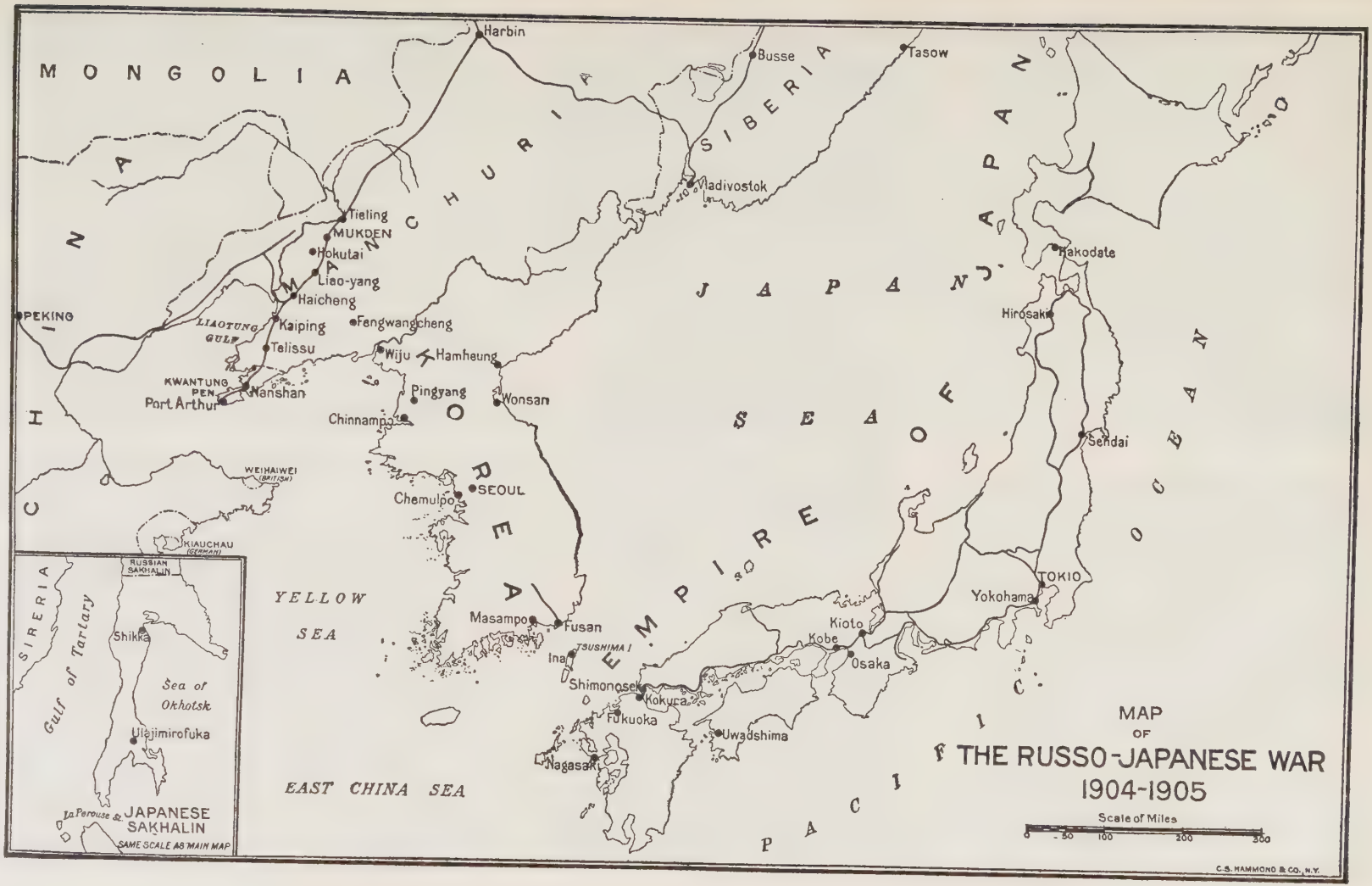


GENERAL NOZU ADMIRAL TOGO GENERAL OKU

in the war of 1894-5. The few Russian troops in the neighbourhood fell back on the Yalu river, the boundary at this point between Korea and China. Here in a strong position on the Chinese side of that river, and at its junction with a tributary stream, the Ai-ho, a Russian army of some 20,000 men under General Zasulich awaited attack."—J. H. Gubbins, *Making of modern Japan, pp.* 258-260.—"The events of . . . [the] first twelve hours of the war had furnished the Japanese with an invaluable bit of information; for the refusal of the Russians to quit the support of their shore defences made it evident that they had no intention of assuming the offensive at sea. . . . [But as long as the Russian ships could enter and leave Port Arthur, the landing of Japanese troops in Korea was attended with danger. Admiral Togo therefore decided to close the harbor, if possible.] By the 24th [February] the first blocking expedition for Port Arthur was ready. Five cargo steamers . . . [heavily] laden, and each fitted with self-sinking explosive arrangements, were despatched after dark to make for the entrance, where their crews were to blow them up and trust to escape as best they could to an accompanying flotilla of torpedo-boats. The night was stormy, and . . . the attempt was a failure, . . . although made with great gallantry. For a time the Japanese were ignorant of this, but their hopes were dashed within a very few days by the emergence of some of the larger Russian ships. These did not go beyond the covering range of the fortress guns, the support of which they had no immediate intention of leaving, but their appearance proved that the entrance was free from obstruction, and it suggested, moreover, that a new spirit was animating the councils of the defence. This new spirit was due to the arrival of Admiral Makaroff—the ablest officer on the Flag List of the Russian Navy—early in March to take over the command afloat. Makaroff was a fine seaman, and a resolute and enterprising leader, with energetic and clear-headed methods of administration. Realizing that the fleet placed under his orders was inferior to that of the enemy in every respect except in number of battleships, he threw all the weight of his powerful and attractive personality into raising its tone and efficiency as a first step towards its further use. For the only time in his distinguished career Togo was now confronted by an opponent whose qualifications for high command were equal to his own. . . . It became a frequent habit with the Russians to come out and practise manœuvres, and when the main Japanese fleet was not in sight these movements were often extended a considerable distance to seaward, although in full view of the Japanese lookout vessels. . . . On March 27 everything was ready for the next attempt to close the entrance—that is to say, just a little more than a month after the first. On that night the five steamers to be sunk were despatched on their last voyage, accompanied as on the previous occasion by a rescuing division of torpedo-boats. . . . Once again, however, the sight of Russian battleships emerging from the harbour next day intimated to the Japanese that their sacrifices had been in vain. By this time, thanks in the main to Makaroff's energetic measures, the *Tsarevitch* and *Retvizan* had been repaired and were ready for service. . . . The bait of a Japanese flotilla in sight by broad daylight . . . brought him out in his own flagship with other battleships. A skirmish took place, followed by a chase as the Japanese destroyers retreated in accordance with their orders, and then the Japanese battle fleet appeared on the horizon. Not wishing to engage at that period, the Russians turned homeward, and in crossing the mined area the battleship *Petropavlovsk* was blown up with nearly all hands, including the gallant Makaroff, while another, the *Pobieda,* also struck a mine and was disabled."—G. A. Ballard, *Influence of the sea on the political history of Japan, pp.* 205, 209-211, 213.—"Something resembling a panic set in. The fleet took refuge in the harbour, where it was again bombarded on the 15th. A third and more elaborate effort to block the entrance to Port Arthur was made on May 3. The Japanese displayed extraordinary heroism, but once more failed to achieve their object. In the meantime Admiral Jessen had taken command of the Vladivostok squadron, and, as he exhibited more activity than his predecessor, Kaimamura with his ships steamed northward to hold him in check. Jessen sunk near Gensan a Japanese transport, the *Kinshu Maru,* with troops on board; and Kaimamura, to interfere with Jessen's movements, laid mines outside Vladivostok. On land, too, the contest during February, March, and April had gone in favour of the Japanese."—R. P. Porter, *Japan, p.* 167.

An attack "was delivered by the Japanese after some preliminary skirmishing on the 30th April, and resulted in the defeat of the Russians with the loss of over twenty guns, their casualties being far greater than those of the victors. A few days later the 2nd Japanese army under General Oku landed at Pitzuwo, a place on the east coast of the Liaotung peninsula some sixty miles from Port Arthur, and cut the railway line connecting that fortress with Liao-yang, the town chosen by General Kuropatkin, the Russian Commander-in-Chief, for the concentration of his forces. The disembarkation of this army was covered by the Japanese fleet, which had made the Elliot islands its advanced base. In the middle of May another Japanese force, which afterwards formed part of the 4th Army led by General Nodzu, landed at Takushan, midway between Pitzuwo and the mouth of the Yalu [to close in the gap between the armies commanded by Kuroki and Oku]. At the end of that month the 2nd Army, after a severe struggle, defeated a Russian force entrenched in a formidable position at Nanshan, on the isthmus of Chin-chou, which connects the two peninsulas of Liaotung and Kawntung. The position captured was of importance, as guarding the approaches to Port Arthur. On this occasion the Japanese took many siege guns, but their casualties were much heavier than those of the Russians. The landing of Oku's army was followed early in June by that of the 3rd Army under General Nogi, to whom was assigned the rôle of besieging Port Arthur. Soon afterwards [June 14] the repulse by General Oku of a Russian force sent to relieve the fortress enabled the 3rd Army to begin the execution of its task. Meanwhile further Japanese reinforcements had reached Takushan, and in July General Nodzu arrived and took command of the 4th Army, the formation of which was by this time complete. This, and the 1st Army under Kuroki, then moved westwards on parallel lines through the mountain passes of Southern Manchuria, driving before them the Russian forces which they encountered; while General Oku with the 2nd Army moving from the south-west struck northwards, the objective in each case being Liao-yang, where General Kuropatkin had established his head-quarters. At this stage the campaign in Manchuria divided itself into two distinct and inde-

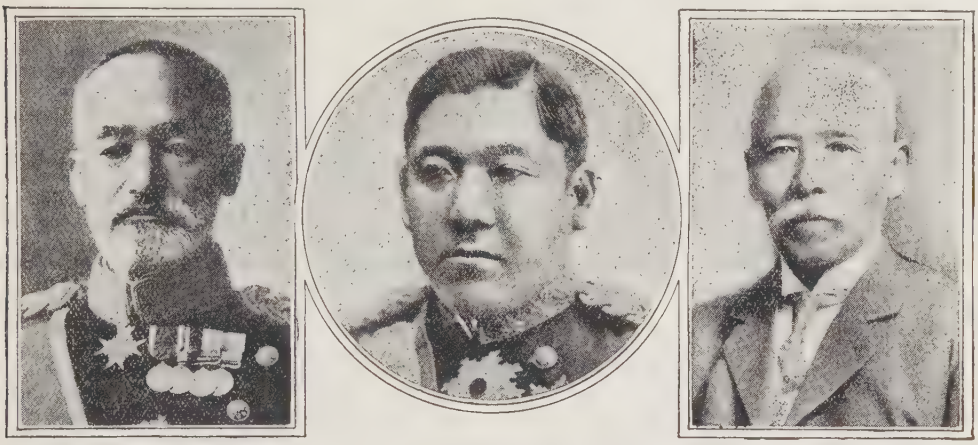
pendent operations: the advance north and west of the three Japanese armies under Generals Oku, Kuroki and Nodzu in a converging movement towards Liao-yang; and the investment of Port Arthur by the 3rd Army under General Nogi."—J. H. Gubbins, *Making of modern Japan, pp.* 260-261.—"At the beginning of June, the positions of the Russians and Japanese were as follows: Oku's Army (the Second) was opposed by Stakelberg with 30,000 infantry, 3,000 cavalry, and 100 guns. Stakelberg's advanced cavalry was in the region of Telissu, some fifty miles south of Kaiping; the remainder of his force was north-west of Kaiping, between the latter town and Neuchuang, at the mouth of the Liao-ho. Telissu is roughly half-way between Nan-shan and Kaiping. The troops of Stakelberg, south of Kaiping, were in hilly country, with their backs to a sea of which the Japanese had secured the command. The main road and the railway from Port Arthur leave the vicinity of the coast near Kaiping and proceed north-eastwards along the eastern edge of the great plains between the Mongolian and Manchurian mountains. . . . The aim of the Japanese staff was to bring Oku's Army to Kaiping, and pivoting on Kaiping, to strike with Nodzu and Kuroki the main line of the Russian communications, the railway and road from Kaiping to Mukden. . . . But Kuropatkin's main communications with Mukden and Harbin were between the Liao-ho and the Manchurian mountains. On the other hand, the Japanese in June 1904 had still to drive the Russians from the passes, and the roads up which they were moving were bad. The best consisted of the road from Chin-chou through Kaiping to Liao-yang, that from Takushan through Hsiuyen to Haicheng—a town between Kaiping and Liao-yang—and the highway from Antung on the Yalu through Feng-huang-cheng over the Motienling to Liao-yang. Lateral communications between the three roads were poor in the extreme. Further, the mountain passes were open only in summer, but then the flooded valley of the Liao-ho, Oku's objective, was a morass. Kuropatkin's plan was to remain on the defensive, to leave Port Arthur isolated and to await the arrival of the large reinforcements being sent along the Trans-Siberian Railway to Liao-yang. Unfortunately for him and the Russians, the Viceroy of the Far East was persuaded that Port Arthur must at all costs be relieved. The loss of the Russian fleet interned in the harbour would mean that the war could not be brought to a victorious issue, and Admiral Alexeieff over-estimated the power of the Japanese speedily to reduce the fortress. A council of war at St. Petersburg supported Alexeieff, and Kuropatkin was ordered at once to relieve Port Arthur. He proceeded to do so with a force very insufficient for the purpose. Stakelberg, with 35,000 men and 94 guns, was sent down the Kaiping-Port Arthur railway. He was headed and decisively beaten by Oku at the battle of Telissu on June 14. The Russians lost 3,772 men killed, wounded, and missing, and 16 quick-firing guns, the Japanese only 1,064 killed and wounded. Oku pursued Stakelberg, and on July 9 drove him from Kaiping. The Russians retired to a strong position on the edge of the Manchurian plain at Tashih-chiao, twenty miles or so north of Kaiping, covering the main road and railway. . . . To relieve Port Arthur it was necessary for Kuropatkin to break through the armies of Oku and Nodzu. . . . What immobilized him was the menacing advance of Kuroki through the Manchurian mountains in the direction of Liao-yang. Nine days after the battle of the Yalu, on May 10, Kuroki had taken up a position in and in front of Feng-huang-cheng, which had been occupied by his cavalry on the 6th. . . . On May 7 Rennenkampf, with a brigade of Cossacks, had reached Saimachi to guard against a turning movement from that direction. . . . [In the middle of May] Count Keller took over the command of the Russian left wing from Zasulich. Through the remainder of May, Rennenkampf manœuvred round and in front of Saimachi, while Kuroki made preparations for the advance of one of his divisions to that place, of another to the foot of the Motien Pass, and of the third, forming his left wing, to a point south-west of it. On June 24 Kuroki's preparations were complete, when he, too, received news of the sortie of the Russian fleet from Port Arthur, and that the anticipated battle near Liao-yang was to be postponed till after the rainy season. Like Kawamura, Kuroki had already set his columns in motion, and he obtained permission to seize the Motien Pass. This, in spite of deluges of rain which fell between June 27 and July 5, proved an easier task than was expected. Keller abandoned the pass, the Japanese advance guards secured the summit at the end of June, and Kuroki was now within forty miles of Liao-yang. . . . On July 28 Oku dispatched a division to join Nodzu, who had moved up along the Takushan-Hsiuyen road against the Russian position at Hsi-mu-cheng, which covered Haicheng on the south-east. Zasulich and Mishchenko, with 36½ battalions, 36 squadrons, and 86 guns, were posted there. Assisted by Oku's Fifth Division, Nodzu, with the Tenth Division and a brigade of reserve troops—a force in all of 33 battalions, over 6 squadrons, and 84 guns—forced Zasulich back on Haicheng (July 31 to August 2). Kuroki, west and north of the Motienling, had on July 31 again beaten the Russians, who had lost over 2,400 men and the gallant Count Keller. Kuroki had . . . gained possession of the valley of the Lan-ho, which enters the Tai-tzu-ho above Liao-yang. On August 3 Oku occupied Haicheng. His and Nodzu's forces were united, and separated by less than forty miles of, it is true, very mountainous country from Kuroki's. With the exception of Port Arthur the Russians had no longer any harbour in the Yellow Sea. Corea, the Liao-tung peninsula, and the passes leading to the Tai-tzu river were in the hands of the Japanese. 'As the result of the successes,' observes the British Official History of the War, 'which had been gained all along the Japanese line, the front of the three Japanese armies had been reduced from 150 to 45 miles.' Nevertheless, though the Japanese had been victorious on land and sea, the struggle still remained undecided. The Russian men-of-war in Vladivostok and Port Arthur might be reinforced by the Russian fleet which was in European waters. Port Arthur was untaken, and Kuropatkin himself had not been defeated. The Vladivostok squadron had shown enterprise. On June 15, in the Corean Straits, it had sunk the transports *Izumi Maru* and *Hitachi Maru,* the latter with 2,000 troops and siege guns destined for Port Arthur on board. Another transport, the *Sado Maru,* had been seriously damaged. The Russians eluded the pursuit of Kaimamura's squadron, and on the 20th re-entered Vladivostok. During the same period Russian torpedo-boats captured the *Hatsuku Maru* and burned two junks. From the 20th to the 30th of July Admiral Jessen passed through the Tsugaru Straits and preyed on Japanese and neutral shipping approaching or leaving the eastern coast of Honshiu. The termination of Jessen's activities was close at hand, but, before describing the battle


MONGOLIA
MANCHURIA
SIBERIA
CHINA
JAPAN
Harbin
Busse
Tasow
Vladivostok
Tieling
MUKDEN
Hokutai
Liao-yang
Haicheng
PEKING
LIAOTUNG GULF
Kaiping
Fengwangcheng
Talissu
Wiju
Hamheung
KWANTUNG PEN.
Port Arthur
Nanshan
Pingyang
Wonsan
Chinnampo
KOREA
WEIHAIWEI (BRITISH)
Chemulpo
SEOUL
KIAUCHAU (GERMAN)
YELLOW SEA
Masampo
Fusan
TSUSHIMA I.
Ina
Shimonoseki
Kokura
Fukuoka
Nagasaki
EAST CHINA SEA
Uwadshima
Hakodate
Hirosaki
Sendai
TOKIO
Yokohama
Kioto
Kobe
Osaka
EMPIRE OF JAPAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
RUSSIAN SAKHALIN
SIBERIA
Gulf of Tartary
Shikka
Sea of Okhotsk
Ulejimirofuka
La Perouse &
JAPANESE SAKHALIN
SAME SCALE AS MAIN MAP
MAP OF THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR 1904-1905
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 200 300
C.S. HAMMOND & CO., N.Y.

in which his squadron was put out of action, it is necessary to return to Port Arthur. . . . The Japanese bombardment commenced on August 7. On the 8th Ta-ku-shan and on the 9th Hsiao-ku-shan were captured by the Japanese. After the loss of these hills the position of the Russian fleet in the harbour was precarious, and Admiral Vitgeft had to contemplate the possibility of his fleet being sunk at anchor by the enemy's batteries. On August 7 he had received a telegram from Alexeieff that he was to take the squadron out of Port Arthur, and a direct order from the Tsar to break through to Vladivostok. Two days later Japanese shells inflicted damage on the *Retvizan* and the *Peresvyet*. The time for hesitation was over. On August 10 Vitgeft, with 6 battleships, 3 protected cruisers, the *Novik*, and 14 torpedo-boat destroyers steamed out of the harbour. He was met by Togo with 5 battleships, 4 armoured cruisers, 9 protected cruisers, 17 destroyers and 29 torpedo-boats. The Russians had 15 as against 20 12-inch, 8 as against 2 10-inch, 88 as against 120 6-inch, 6 as against 77 4-inch guns. They had no 8-inch guns to oppose to the 20 of that calibre possessed by Togo. From the point of view of weapons they were at a hopeless disadvantage. Vitgeft's aim was to reach Vladivostok, overpowering or avoiding Kaimamura's squadron in the Corean Straits. At first it looked as if he might succeed. At 12.10 p. m. the battle commenced, but it was not till 5.45 p. m., when a shell, bursting on the *Tzesarevitch* and killing Vitgeft, threw the Russians into confusion, that Togo began to get the upper hand. Gradually the majority of the Russian ships were headed and driven back to Port Arthur. They arrived there severely damaged, with only three destroyers accompanying them. The *Askold* escaped to Shanghai, where she was disarmed by the Chinese, the *Novik* reached the German port of Kiao-chau, coaled, steamed round the east of Japan and entered Korsakovsk Bay, at the south of the island of Sakhalien. She was engaged there on the 20th by the *Tsushima,* and so seriously injured that the captain decided to submerge her. The *Diana,* on the 25th, reached the French port of Saigon and was disarmed; the *Tzesarevitch* had been disarmed and interned at Kiao-chau on the 11th. The Japanese fleet had not escaped unscathed, and the losses on the *Mikasa* had been very heavy. The victory of Togo on August 10 was speedily followed by a victory won by Kaimamura over Jessen. On the 12th Jessen had left Vladivostok to join the Port Arthur squadron. Just before dawn on the 14th he reached the latitude of Fusan. He was that day engaged by Kaimamura with a superior force. The Russians fought magnificently, but unavailingly. The *Rurik* was voluntarily sunk by its commander, to prevent its falling into the hands of the Japanese, and the *Rossiya* and *Gromoboi* limped back to Vladivostok. They played no further part in the war. The battles of August 10 and 14, known as the battles of the Yellow Sea and Ulsan, gave the Japanese command of the sea. But the capture of Port Arthur and the defeat of Kuropatkin's great army at Liao-yang, which was being daily reinforced from Europe and Siberia, had yet to be accomplished."—R. P. Porter, *Japan, pp.* 180-182, 186-192.

"By the end of August [1904] the war had lasted for nearly eight months, and the events [already] related . . . gave a fresh stimulus to Japanese efforts, and in some respects a new direction to the efforts of their enemies. . . . Abandoning any idea of further sorties, the naval command threw itself into the work of assisting the troops; the damaged ships being relieved of every gun that could be mounted in a useful position on shore, and large portions of their crews allotted to sections on the line of defence. . . . With the Japanese a new idea took shape. It was resolved to press the attack on Port Arthur with redoubled energy, in the hope of capturing the ships inside in time enough to refit them for service under the Japanese flag before the fleet from the Baltic could arrive. . . . The Japanese therefore began by trying negotiations for surrender, and on August 16 sent in a message under a flag of truce pointing out that the fall of the fortress was inevitable, and suggesting capitulation to save useless sacrifice of life. They offered also a free exit to all neutrals and non-combatants whether the proposal for surrender was entertained or otherwise, but the Russians rejected both offers. Nothing remained, therefore, but to continue the siege, and at the end of the month a special general assault was delivered lasting for several days, in which the Japanese columns were hurled against salient points, only to be beaten back again and again after suffering 15,000 casualties and leaving acres of ground in front of the defences covered with their unburied dead. . . . The failure was to some extent compensated for in other directions by the great battles of Liao-yang and Sha-ho in Manchuria, where the Japanese forced a Russian retirement over a large area never regained by the enemy. These victories, however, although effectually frustrating any intentions Kuropatkin might have entertained of relieving Port Arthur, did nothing to expedite its actual capture. In September the besiegers brought a new weapon into play in the shape of 11-inch howitzers, and as the pulverizing impact of their huge shells demolished everything on which they fell, preparations were made for another grand assault in October. This was delivered at the end of that month, but, although conducted with reckless courage, met with no better success than the first. . . . Meanwhile the outcoming fleet from the Baltic had actually started at last from Libau on October 16. . . . Realizing that their hopes of capturing the Russian vessels inside in time to fit them for early service as units in the Japanese Fleet had now no chances of fulfilment, instructions were given to the military authorities commanding the siege to make every effort to destroy them. . . . A third general assault was therefore delivered with heroic valour at the end of November, and when that failed like the others —after the extermination of entire Japanese battalions—the besiegers turned their immediate attention towards the capture of . . . a steep double-peaked eminence known on the Staff maps as '203-Metre Hill.' . . . The capture of this short ridge of bare and broken ground was only successful after one of the bloodiest struggles of the siege, but its value to Japan at that stage of the war could not have been greater had it been paved with gold, for now every shell from the attacking batteries could drive a nail in the coffin of the Russian Pacific fleet. . . . The Japanese made immediate use of their new point of vantage, and on the morning of the day after it passed into their hands opened fire from their heavy howitzers under direction from a 'spotting' post on the hill connected by telephone with the batteries. In a few hours the Russian battleship *Retvizan* was sunk. On the next day the battleships *Pobieda* and *Peresvyet* and the light cruiser *Pallada* all suffered the same fate. Two days later, again, it was the turn of the *Bayan.*

This left no armoured vessel remaining except the *Sevastopol*, for the *Poltava* had already been sunk by a chance 11-inch shell in her main magazine before the hill was taken. . . . [The *Sevastopol* ran to the outside roads, and after a brave defence was sunk by the commander on orders from Port Arthur. The fortress itself capitulated on January 2, 1905.] Thus the Japanese once again entered into possession of the great naval base after a siege of 154 days, watched with the closest interest by the whole civilized world, and conducted from first to last for the vital purpose of weakening the enemy's maritime position. The effort had cost the victors 60,000 men, and compelled them to undertake their Manchurian campaign with a much smaller force than would have otherwise been available, but it disposed of all the Russian Pacific Fleet and left the enemy with only one fortified seaport in the East. The prestige attaching to such a feat of arms was necessarily immense, and the practical benefits were proportionate."—G. A. Ballard, *Influence of the sea on the political history of Japan, pp.* 251-256, 260.—"The two great offensives of Kuropatkin in fact, it was about to turn them on the west. Of the existence of Kawamura's Army, Kuropatkin appears to have had little or no suspicion. The Japanese army numbered some 400,000. According to Japanese calculations, Kuropatkin had 300,000 infantry, 26,000 cavalry, and 1,368 guns with which to parry Oyama's blows. The Russians were divided into four armies. The Second, under General Kaulbars, was on the right wing, occupying a line sixteen miles long. Cavalry detachments prolonged Kaulbars's right across the Liao-ho. East of Kaulbars was Bilderling with the Third Army astride the Liao-yang-Mukden railway. The left wing was formed by the First Army under General Linievitch, disposed along a thirty-mile front, reaching to the head waters of the Sha-ho. South and east of the Upper Sha-ho were detached bodies operating in the mountainous region between the Sha-ho and the Tai-tzu-ho. The Fourth Army, known as the 'General Reserve,' was south of Mukden. To mystify Kuropatkin and to weaken the forces holding this fifty-seven mile long line between the Liao-ho on the west and the headwaters of the Sha-ho on the



©Underwood & Underwood

COUNT NOGI MARQUIS OYAMA GENERAL KUROKI

had failed, but, owing largely to the energy of Prince Khilkoff, a constant stream of reinforcements from Europe was flowing into Manchuria, and Kuropatkin would soon have on the Sha-ho an army of half a million men. If Oyama delayed his attack till April, the break-up of winter, by rendering the ground impassable, would enable the Russians to complete their entrenchments round Mukden [where they had fallen back after their defeats in August]. . . . Oyama proposed, before the roads became impassable, to strike at the Russians, and the Mikado and his ministers responded energetically to his requests. Reserve brigades were added to the divisions of Oku, Nodzu, and Kuroki. A new army (the Fifth) under General Kawamura, formed of reservists, was secretly brought up and placed on the Japanese right wing, and Nogi's victorious forces from Port Arthur were with equal secrecy sent to reinforce Oyama's left. They were kept well in the rear of Oku and Nodzu until Kawamura's turning movement had produced the desired psychological effect on Kuropatkin's mind. To deceive the latter, a portion of Nogi's troops operated with Kuroki, and he was led to believe that the Japanese army from Port Arthur was trying to turn his lines on the east, when, east, the Japanese commander-in-chief employed two devices. The activities of the mounted brigands in Mongolia were stimulated, raids in February being made against the Harbin-Mukden railway. Reports reached Kuropatkin that a force of over 10,000 troops was in Mongolia preparing to cut the line on which the safety of his whole army depended. Alarmed for his rear, he weakened his field army to strengthen the line-of-communication troops. The second device consisted in the landing of Japanese troops in Northern Corea who might attack Vladivostok. . . . These feints of Oyama exercised considerable influence on the series of battles known as 'The Battle of Mukden,' which began on February 23. Between the last-mentioned date and February 28 the left wing of the Russian army in the mountainous region between the Tai-tzu-ho and the Sha-ho was attacked by unexpectedly large bodies of the enemy, including troops from Nogi's Army. It was Kawamura's Army, driving Rennenkampf's detachment before him, and turning Linievitch's left. Believing that the Japanese were about to repeat their manœuvre at Liao-yang, Kuropatkin heavily reinforced Linievitch and Rennenkampf. On the 28th he learnt, however, that masses of infantry and cavalry, afterwards ascertained to

be Nogi's Army, were marching between the Liao-ho and the Hun-ho towards the west of Mukden. The objective of Nogi was the Russian communications between Mukden and Harbin. To counter him, reinforcements of more than fifty battalions were added to Kaulbars's Army, and Kaulbars was ordered to take the offensive. In the fighting that ensued Kaulbars was generally unsuccessful, and Nogi's turning movement each day became more menacing. On March 7 Kuropatkin drew back Bilderling and Linievitch to the fortified positions south of Mukden. From March 9 to March 16 a desperate battle raged round the capital of Manchuria. With the greatest difficulty Kuropatkin extricated himself from his perilous position and effected his retreat on Tiehling, whence he retired to a position between Tiehling and the River Sungari. The Russians had lost, according to Oyama's reports, 27,700 killed, 110,000 wounded, and a vast quantity of war material; the Japanese losses up to March 12 were estimated at 41,222. Kuropatkin, who in his report to the Tsar very honourably stated that he considered himself 'the person principally responsible' for the defeat, was superseded by Linievitch on the 20th. A single-minded patriot, Kuropatkin consented to serve under his erstwhile subordinate."—R. P. Porter, *Japan, pp.* 203-205.—"The greater part of the Russian Atlantic fleet under command of Admiral Rovjestensky [Rojdestvensky] left Libau on October 12th, 1904, for the seat of war in order to go to the assistance of Port Arthur. The capture of the fortress and the destruction of the fleet here struck a severe blow at this maritime enterprise, but did not decide its fate. It was possible for the Russian squadron to destroy the Japanese fleet which equalled theirs in number, or at least to reach Vladivostok and thence to conduct surprise attacks on the Japanese coast, and endanger the transports of Japan on their way to the seat of war. Part of the Russian fleet took the route round the Cape of Good Hope, and another part that through the Mediterranean. At the request of Admiral Rovjestensky, the Czar despatched the rest of the Atlantic fleet on February 5th, and it took the shorter Mediterranean route. The Russian squadrons met off the coast of Annan, and proceeded together to the north. The Japanese fleet had secretly taken up its position in the straits of Korea. Vladivostok could be reached by three routes: through the straits of Korea, through the straits of Tsugaru between the islands of Honto and Ezo, and through the straits of Soya, between the islands of Ezo and Saghalien. It was impossible for the Japanese navy to defend all three straits at one time, for they would not when divided have been equal to the Russian fleet. Togo reckoned that the enemy, through the strictest secrecy regarding the Japanese position, would take the nearest route through the straits of Korea. His assumption was correct. The Russians had no knowledge of the whereabouts of the Japanese fleet, and proceeded up the straits of Korea. At 5 a. m. in the morning of May 27th, one of the guardships posted in the south, sent the following message to Admiral Togo by wireless telegraphy: 'The enemy's squadron has been sighted at point No. 203. The enemy is apparently steering towards the eastern passage.' Between 10 and 11 o'clock the cruiser squadron under Vice-Admiral Kataoka, the division under Rear-Admiral Dewa came into touch with the enemy between the islands of Iki and Tsushima. They did not answer their fire and contented themselves by telegraphing every moment all details of the enemy's position to Admiral Togo. Thus Togo knew before he came in sight of the enemy's fleet that its fighting line consisted of the whole strength of the second and third Atlantic squadron which were accompanied by about seven special service ships, that the ships were formed in two fore and aftlines, that the chief strength was at the head of the right line and the service ships were at the end, and that the whole armada was steering north-east at a speed of about 12 knots, Togo could now make plans in accordance, and give his orders. The battle was begun at 2 o'clock by the Japanese, near Okinoshima. Togo signalled to all ships in sight the following message: 'The existence of the Empire depends on this battle. Japan expects this day the courage and energy of every officer and every man in the fleet.' Togo with the chief strength, the Dewa and Uriu divisions, went against the head of the left column; the cruiser squadron and the Togo (Masaji) squadron steered south and attacked the enemy in the rear. The Russian fleet fell into disorder, the two columns came to blows, and sought in vain to free themselves and escape from the net prepared for them by the Japanese. Battle lasted till sunset. At 20 minutes past seven Togo ordered his fleet to assemble at the island of Ullong. The issue of the fight was decidedly favourable to the Japanese. A large number of the finest Russian ships were sunk, the rest were almost without exception badly damaged. The Japanese suffered no losses. In the night the destroyers and torpedo boats began to be active, and showed great boldness; some of them approached so close to the Russian ships that the latter could not shoot at them. The Japanese did an enormous amount of damage, but themselves only lost 3 torpedo-vessels. The next morning (May 28th) the Japanese fleet with its whole strength continued the work of destruction. At half-past 10 the Russian fleet was entirely surrounded at a point 18 nautical miles south of Takenoshima. Soon after the Japanese opened fire, Rear-Admiral Nebugatov declared the surrender of the 4 ships under his command. The battle against the rest continued until noon. Then the destroyer Bjedovie, on board of which was Admiral Rovjestensky [Rojdestvensky] and his staff, hoisted the white flag. Of the whole Russian fleet which had consisted of 38 ships, only two returned to Vladivostok. Of the rest, 23 were sunk, 7 were captured and 6 disarmed at Shanghai. The Japanese lost only the 3 torpedo-boats. This brilliant and remarkable naval victory signified not only the end of the Russian fleet, but also the end of the severe and momentous struggle. In spite of her heavy losses and of the revolution that had taken place at home during the war, the great Russian empire was not by a long way at the end of her power. It was not difficult for Russia quickly to reinforce and increase her Manchurian army, and in spite of the defeats she had suffered, to make a successful stand against victorious but exhausted Japan. But the terrible impression of the last Japanese naval victory deprived Russia of courage to prosecute the war farther and inclined her to consider proposals for peace."—H. Saito, *History of Japan, pp.* 245-248.

Also in: Great Britain, *Official history of the Russo-Japanese War.*—N. L. Klado, *Russian navy in the Japanese War.*—H. M. E. Brunker, *Story of the Russo-Japanese War.*—*Official history of the Russo-Japanese War.*

1904.—Influence of Russo-Japanese War on China. See China: 1900-1908.

1904-1905.—Work of Young Men's Christian

RETREAT OF THE RUSSIANS AFTER THE BATTLE OF MUKDEN

(After the original drawing by R. Caton Woodville)

Association during Russo-Japanese War. See Y.M.C.A.: 1854-1905.

1904-1905.—**Conventions with Korea, establishing a protectorate.—Arrangement for submitting financial and diplomatic affairs to Japan.** See KOREA: 1904-1905.

1904-1909.—**Formation of submarine flotilla.** See SUBMARINES: 1900-1918.

1905.—**Treaty negotiations with Russia.**—"The uselessness of further struggle had been long apparent to the rest of the world, as well as to the Russian and Japanese statesmen. Russian armies had not shown the slightest promise of ability to turn back the Japanese, and on the other hand, evidently it would be difficult, perhaps impossible, for the bearers of the Sunrise Flag to carry their standard into Russia. In this situation, . . . President Roosevelt suggested to both governments the desirability of negotiations, between plenipotentiaries of the contesting nations, to ascertain whether a treaty of peace might not be mutually acceptable. The suggestion was accepted, and after some deliberation Washington was chosen as the meeting-place; but in summer Washington is hot, so the peace conference met near Portsmouth, New Hampshire, in the General Equipment Building of the Navy Yard. The Tsar sent Count Sergius Witte, and the Ambassador to Washington, Baron Roman Romanovitch Rosen; the Japanese, Baron Jutaro Komura and the Minister to Washington, Mr. Kogoro Takahira. The negotiations began August 5th, and were conducted in secret. But from day to day the large corps of newspaper correspondents ascertained the proceedings, and the accuracy of their information, in general, is confirmed by both parties. Baron Komura proposed a number of conditions, which were refused in bulk by the Russian commissioners, whereupon the Japanese proposed consideration of each condition in detail. To the greater number of the demands of Japan the Russians acceded, with little debate. The contested paragraphs, as they came up for discussion, were deferred until the last. The main points of difference were the question of an indemnity of perhaps $600,000,000, to be paid by Russia, and the cession of the island of Sakhalin to Japan. Before these points had been decided, Mr. Sato, the first secretary of the commission, had announced to the correspondents that he expected a favorable issue of the conference. But during the discussion of them there ensued a period of gloom. Neither side seemed disposed to relinquish its standpoint. But after several conferences at Washington between the President and Baron Rosen and Baron Kaneko, a special envoy from Japan, the Russians agreed to cede half of Sakhalin, and the Japanese agreed to forego the cession of the other half, and the indemnity. This concession came to pass on August 26th, and a treaty was forthwith drawn up and sent to the Mikado and the Tsar for ratification. As published, October 16th, the agreement consists of fifteen articles. Russia acknowledged Japan's paramount interest in Korea; transferred the lease of Port Arthur, Ta-lien, and the adjacent territory, and the railway connecting Port Arthur with Chang-chung-fu and Kuan-chang-tsu, as well as the coal mines in the neighborhood, and the southern part of Sakhalin, below the 50th parallel, with the proviso that no military measures should be taken by the Japanese which might impede navigation in the straits of La Perouse and Tartary. The contracting Powers mutually agreed to evacuate Manchuria—excepting the Liao-tung Peninsula—within eighteen months, and to restore the control thereof to China; not to obstruct any commercial measures, common to all countries, which China might take in this region; and to develop their railways for commercial purposes only, except in the Liao-tung Peninsula. Russia was to arrange with Japan for the granting to Japanese fishermen of rights to pursue their trade in the Japan, Okhotsk, and Bering seas, and the Japanese agreed to respect the rights of Russian subjects in the ceded territory. Finally, both Powers were to make estimates of the cost of taking care of prisoners, and Russia agreed to pay to Japan the difference caused by the large number of Russian prisoners who fell into Japanese hands. In both Japan and Russia this treaty was badly received. A large party in Russia desired to continue the war, feeling that, with an available army of perhaps 600,000 men opposed to the Japanese, Russia was not yet defeated. The Japanese people had hoped for an indemnity and the whole of Sakhalin, and in Tokyo there were serious riots. Martial law had to be proclaimed, and stones were thrown at Marquis Ito, who was held accountable for the concessions to Russian demands. But rebellion, which threatened to be revolution, in Russia at once threw the Japanese question into the shade. And in Japan the agitation calmed as the people saw how much more they had gained than they had demanded at the beginning of the war. The result of the struggle put Japan in the position of a first-class Power—the dominant Power, indeed, in Eastern affairs."—D. Murray, *Japan, pp.* 449-453. —For text of treaty, see PORTSMOUTH, TREATY OF.

1905.—**Report on opium problem in Formosa.** See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1905.

1905 (December).—**Treaty with China relative to Manchuria.** See CHINA: 1905 (December); 1905-1909.

1905-1909.—**Administration in southern Sakhalin.** See SAKHALIN: 1905; 1905-1909.

1905-1909.—**Korea under Japanese control.—Rule of Prince Ito.—Insurrection and its suppression.** See KOREA: 1905-1909.

1905-1909.—**Disputes with China.—Fa-ku-menn and Antung-Mukden railway questions.—Japanese ultimatum.** See CHINA: 1905-1909; MANCHURIA: 1905-1908.

1905-1914.—**Consolidation and expansion of power and beginnings of racial conflict.—Second Anglo-Japanese Alliance (1905).—Root-Takahira agreement (1908) concerning "open door" and territorial integrity of China.—"Gentlemen's agreement."—Russo-Japanese convention of 1910.**—"As in 1895, the conclusion of the war only marked the commencement of a period of enormous military and naval increase. At this time Japan had no rival in sight. Russia was weakened, England was her ally, America had certainly no hostile intentions at this early date. France, Germany, and Italy were prevented geographically from collusion. Nevertheless Japan straightway went about doubling her Army and Navy, though she loaded herself with debt in order to do so. Her dockyards were so improved that in addition to repairs she could build all of her own ships, up to the largest Dreadnoughts. The scanty iron resources were developed so as to enable her arsenals to be independent of imports, her trade increased so that she should suffer from no financial dependence or inferiority. In all these endeavours Germany had been more and more her model. German science, art, customs, codes, tactics, philosophy, were diligently studied and admired. It is no small wonder that the popularity of the Anglo-Saxon began to

wane. From 1905 to 1914 the world was several times agitated by the possibility of a Japan-American war, while the Anglo-Japanese alliance which had been hailed with such enthusiasm in 1902, and which had subsequently been revised and reratified, was looked upon as a burden by a large portion of the population. At the same time the policy of a 'forward movement' (as it was called) in Asia began to play a very important part in the national councils. Korea was annexed notwithstanding previous promises to maintain its independence, and great efforts were made to secure the control of Manchuria. By their victory over the Russians the Japanese acquired not only Port Arthur and Dairen, but also the section of the Manchurian Railway south of Changchun. This they used as a means of furthering their influence. The new railway was run by a South Manchurian Railway Company, half of whose £20,000,000 capital was subscribed by the Government. This company soon exercised such rights in Manchuria as the old East India Company had done in India. It undertook the management of the Dairen harbour, the working of the Fushun collieries, the laying out of the new towns, the establishment of hotels, and the general development of the industrial, commercial, and the agricultural resources. Japan secured the right for her consuls to act as commissioners of the Chinese Government. Their powers have grown so wide that they include all matters appertaining to an ordinary State, such as justice, education, public health, and communications."—W. M. McGovern, *Modern Japan, pp.* 206-208.—See also MANCHURIA: 1905-1908.—A second result of the Russo-Japanese War was the renewal of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance (in 1905) with important modifications which indicated the new status of Japan in the Far East. The text of the agreement follows:

AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND JAPAN.

"PREAMBLE. The Governments of Great Britain and Japan, being desirous of replacing the agreement concluded between them on the 30th of January, 1902, by fresh stipulations, have agreed upon the following articles, which have for their object—

"(*a*) The consolidation and maintenance of the general peace in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India.

"(*b*) The preservation of the common interests of all powers in China, by insuring the independence and integrity of the Chinese Empire and the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations in China.

"(*c*) The maintenance of the territorial rights of the high contracting parties in the regions of eastern Asia and of India, and the defense of their special interests in the said regions.

"Article I. It is agreed that whenever in the opinion of either Great Britain or Japan any of the rights and interests referred to in the preamble of this agreement are in jeopardy, the two governments will communicate with one another fully and frankly and will consider in common the measures which should be taken to safeguard those menaced rights or interests.

"Art. II. If by reason of unprovoked attack or aggressive action, wherever arising, on the part of any other power or powers either contracting party should be involved in war in defense of its territorial rights or special interests mentioned in the preamble of this agreement, the other contracting party will at once come to the assistance of its ally and will conduct the war in common and make peace in mutual agreement with it.

"Art. III. Japan possessing paramount political, military, and economic interests in Korea, Great Britain recognizes the right of Japan to take such measures of guidance, control, and protection in Korea as she may deem proper and necessary to safeguard and advance those interests, provided always that such measures are not contrary to the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations.

"Art. IV. Great Britain having a special interest in all that concerns the security of the Indian frontier, Japan recognizes her right to take such measures in the proximity of that frontier as she may find necessary for safeguarding her Indian possessions.

"Art. V. The high contracting parties agree that neither of them will without consulting the other enter into separate arrangements with another power to the prejudice of the objects described in the preamble of this agreement.

"Art. VI. As regards the present war between Japan and Russia, Great Britain will continue to maintain strict neutrality unless some other power or powers should join in hostilities against Japan, in which case Great Britain will come to the assistance of Japan and will conduct the war in common and make peace in mutual agreement with Japan.

"Art. VII. The conditions under which armed assistance shall be afforded by either power to the other in the circumstances mentioned in the present agreement, and the means by which such assistance is to be made available, will be arranged by the naval and military authorities of the contracting parties, who will from time to time consult one another fully and freely upon all questions of mutual interest.

"Art. VIII. The present agreement shall, subject to the provisions of Article VI., come into effect immediately after the date of its signature and remain in force for ten years from that date. In case neither of the high contracting parties should have notified twelve months before the expiration of the said ten years the intention of terminating it, it shall remain binding until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the high contracting parties shall have denounced it. But if when the date fixed for its expiration arrives either ally is actually engaged in war the alliance shall *ipso facto* continue until peace is concluded.

"Japan's foremost aspiration to-day is to become a great factor in the commerce of the world. If she succeeds in this direction she will be enabled to support more comfortably than hitherto her increasing population upon the comparatively small area of land at her disposal. If her carrying trade increases, as it probably will, in proportion to her industrial expansion, half a million Japanese will eventually be living on her merchant ships alone. It is, therefore, but natural that she should make supreme efforts to become a dominant economic factor in China. She sees in that country of two million square miles untold resources as yet little exploited. She sees in the four hundred million souls of China the possibility of creating a vast market for her merchandise. These are the bottom facts which afford impetus to Japan's Chinese measures, though her ambition on the Asian continent must at times have seemed political rather than economic. In pursuing this policy Japan has no intention of hindering American

activities in China."—K. K. Kawakami, *Japan in world politics, p.* 141.—"The importance of China to Japan from the economic point of view is enhanced by the following significant fact:—Japan needs raw material. Apart from foodstuffs, she requires cotton, oil, and coal, and the greatest handicap to her industries is that they depend upon foreign iron and steel."—N. Golovin and A. D. Dubnow, *Problem of the Pacific in the twentieth century, p.* 33.—Toward the ambitions of Japan in China, the Western Powers maintained an attitude of watchful acquiescence, which was confirmed, not only by the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, but by a treaty between France and Japan which was signed on June 10, 1907, and the Root-Takahira Agreement (November 30, 1908). By the terms of the Franco-Japanese Treaty France recognized the rights of Japan in Korea and her special interests in Manchuria, and Japan, on her side, promised not to interfere with French possessions in Siam and Indo-China. The text of the Root-Takahira Agreement is as follows:

"I. It is the wish of the two Governments to encourage the free and peaceful development of their commerce on the Pacific Ocean.

"II. The policy of both Governments, uninfluenced by any aggressive tendencies, is directed to the maintenance of the existing *status quo* in the region above mentioned, and to the defense of the principle of equal opportunity for commerce and industry in China.

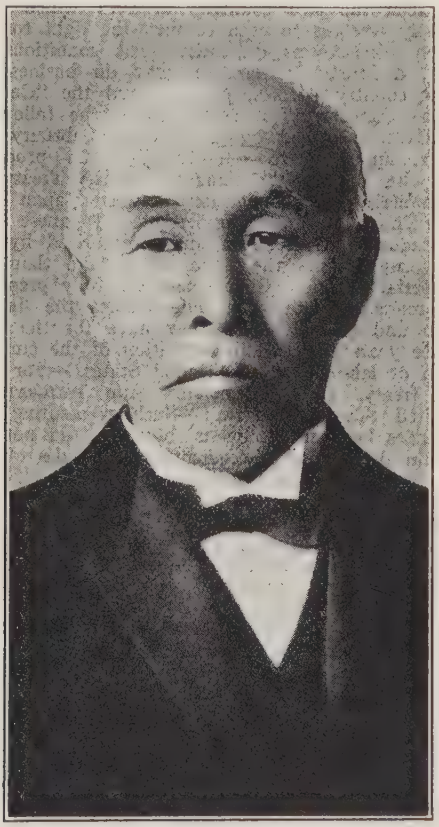
"III. They are accordingly firmly resolved reciprocally to respect the territorial possessions belonging to each other in said region.

"IV. They are also determined to preserve the common interests of all Powers in China by supporting, by all pacific means at their disposal, the independence and integrity of China and the principle of equal opportunity for commerce and industry of all nations in that Empire.

"V. Should any event occur threatening the *status quo* as above described, or the principle of equal opportunity as above defined, it remains for the two Governments to communicate with each other, in order to arrive at an understanding as to what measures they may consider it useful to take." In addition there was an oral agreement between the United States and Japan, called the 'Gentleman's Agreement,' entered into in 1908 by Secretary Root and Ambassador Takahira, in accordance with which the Japanese Government would itself withhold passports from all laborers who might desire to go to the United States. In other words, the only restriction upon Japanese immigration is a voluntary one on the part of Japan, which of course can be terminated at any time by that Government. At first it was an oral agreement, but later was embodied in a memorandum, and then in 1911 supported by . . . [a] written pledge."—W. B. Pitkin, *Must we fight Japan? p.* 457.—See also CALIFORNIA: 1900-1920.

The Root-Takahira Agreement touches, as gently as possible upon two questions which, during the following years became the paramount issues in the relations of the countries bordering upon the Pacific, and especially between Japan and America, the most powerful of them all—(1) the economic development and political integrity of China, and (2) the penetration of lands held by white men (in Australia, Canada, and the United States) by Japanese laborers. The segregation of Japanese children in the San Francisco schools and the riotous attacks on Japanese laborers in British Columbia and the State of Washington (1906-1907) were answered by a bitter wave of anti-foreign and especially anti-American feeling. At the same time it must not be forgotten that there is quite as much discrimination in Japan against the white man as in America against the Japanese. The United States is not the only country which objects to the importation of coolie laborers. "Australia and Canada exclude all Orientals. Japan herself will not permit aliens to own land. It will not permit Chinese or Korean coolies to settle in Japan as farm-laborers, the reason being that it would lower the wages of the Japanese."—W. B. Pitkin, *Must we fight Japan? p.* 474.—The mutual attitude of Japan and America in this matter is recognized in the revision of the commercial treaty between the two countries in 1911 which "expressly reserves to each country the right to say upon what terms or under what conditions, if any, a foreign corporation may do business in that country."—*Ibid., p.* 456.—And the "Gentleman's Agreement" is confirmed in the following declaration, signed by Y. Uchida, February 21, 1911, appended to the Treaty. "In proceeding this day to the signature of the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Japan and the United States, the undersigned, Japanese Ambassador in Washington, duly authorized by his Government has the honor to declare that the Imperial Japanese Government are fully prepared to maintain with equal effectiveness the limitation and control which they have for the past three years exercised in regulation of the emigration of laborers to the United States."—For text of treaty, see IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1862-1913.—Such re-assuring exchanges between diplomats, however, did not restrain the mutual ill-feeling on both sides of the Pacific, and when California instituted anti-Japanese legislation in 1913, intense feeling was thereby engendered. "The guns of Tsushima, of Port Arthur, and of Mukden have reverberated throughout the British Empire. Australia, conscious of her huge and unpeopled territories, has been brought by a dread of an Asiatic invasion to recognize her own helplessness, and to take some steps for her own defence. In Canada the victors were feared not as warriors but as labourers, and the situation created by the anti-Japanese riots in Vancouver in 1907 would have been dangerous but for the calmness of the authorities at Tokyo. The commercial treaty of 1894 between Great Britain and Japan confers upon the subjects of either nation the right to enter, travel, or reside in the dominions of the other; the Japanese availed themselves of these rights to settle in British Columbia to the real or fancied detriment of the white men who had to compete with them. Disturbances followed, and British Columbia passed an anti-immigration act which conflicted with the privileges conceded by treaty to Japan. The Japanese Government preserved its dignity by insisting on the formal recognition of its rights, but it quelled the agitation by consenting not to exercise them in a way to cause friction; the difficulty was solved by restricting the number of emigrants allowed to leave Japan for Canada. . . . In Australia legislative restrictions have practically closed that country to Japanese labour."—R. P. Porter, *Japan the new world-power, pp.* 115-116, 151.—"In 1910 the Russo-Japanese Convention of July 1907 was superseded by a further convention, according to the terms of which the contracting parties agreed to abstain from railway competition in Manchuria, to maintain the *status quo* in

Manchuria, and to exchange communications in case anything threatened the existing arrangements in Manchuria. In 1911 the Anglo-Japanese Alliance was modified once more, the annexation of Korea making the Korean clause in the instrument of 1905 no longer necessary; the *rapprochement* of Britain and Russia removed the necessity for the clause which referred to India, and the Arbitration Treaty between Great Britain and the United States necessitated the deletion of the article which bound the contracting parties to come to each other's assistance in case of an unprovoked attack on either by another Power. The emasculated Alliance, which provided for the maintenance of the peace in the Far East, was



COUNT OKUMA (SHIGENOBU)

regarded with little favour in Japan. It was called 'unilateral' by the *Nichi Nichi,* and the *Hochi* declared that 'Japan is now America's slave and India's policeman.' The net result of these various treaties and conventions was to consolidate and strengthen Japan's position in Asia. But if the European Powers with interests in Asia were, for reasons of their own, not unwilling to recognize and even further Japan's ambitions, the United States regarded the paramountcy of the Island Empire in the Far East with some anxiety. But it is doubtful if any open conflict of interests would have arisen had it not been for the action of the State of California in raising the so-called 'school question,' which developed into an agitation against the admission of Japanese labourers into the United States."—W. W. McLaren, *Political history of Japan during the Meiji era, p.* 322.

1905-1922.—Occupation of Manchuria.—Commercial expansion in Asia.—"The lease of South Manchuria lapsed to Japan by the Portsmouth Treaty concluded in 1905. The original term was to expire in 1923 but was extended till 1997 by the Sino-Japanese Treaty signed on May 25th, 1915. Kwantung Province forms the southern part of Liaotung Peninsula. . . . The area covers, including the 40 islands adjacent to the peninsula, 218,757 square ri. [including the free port of Dalny]. . . . At the same time that Japan began her territorial expansion, her foreign trade increased enormously. The commercial importance of the Asiatic Continent in . . . [the foreign trade of Japan] has become more and more pronounced. In 1882 Europe stood at the head of the list in the volume of Japan's exports followed by America and Asia, while in imports Europe headed the list followed by Asia and America. Coming to 1889 the relative positions of these great divisions were reversed, and in exports Asia came first followed by America and Europe. In imports also Asia occupied the same position, after which came Europe and America. This relation . . . [was] further strengthened [after the Great War]." —*Japan Year Book,* 1921-1922, *pp.* 608, 398.—See also MANCHURIA: 1900-1910; 1905-1908; 1905-1914; 1919-1923; DAIREN.

1907.—Represented at second Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

1907-1909.—Visit of United States fleet. See U.S.A.: 1907-1909.

1908.—Represented at maritime conference in London. See LONDON, DECLARATION OF.

1909.—International opium commission. See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1909 (February).

1909-1914.—Naval status. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909-1914.

1909-1921.—Japanese question in California.—Heney-Webb law.—Legislation of 1920. See CALIFORNIA: 1900-1920; RACE PROBLEMS: 1913-1921.

1910.—Formal annexation of Korea. See KOREA: 1910.

1911.—Anglo-Japanese Alliance. See ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.

1911.—Treaty of commerce and navigation with United States. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1862-1913.

1911.—Member of consortium to give financial aid to China. See RAILROADS: 1905-1921.

1911.—Lieutenant Shirase's expedition to South Pole. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1911.

1911.—Agreement with United States, England and Russia regarding pelagic sealing. See FISHERIES: 1911-1912; PRIBILOV ISLANDS.

1911.—Child labor law. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1911-1919.

1911.—Customs agreement with Canada. See CANADA: 1911-1913.

1912.—Rumor of acquisition of naval base on Magdalena bay. See U.S.A.: 1912 (July).

1912.—Conspiracy case. See KOREA: 1912.

1914 (Sept. 5).—Baron Kato's address to Imperial Diet. See WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: c.

1914-1918.—Okuma and Terauchi cabinets.—Growing desire for more liberal government.—In 1914, after the fall of the Yamamoto cabinet, following on a bribery and attempted blackmail incident known as the "naval scandal," Prince Tokugawa "refused to accept the hard rôle of organizing a new cabinet. . . . Viscount Kiyoura, the next choice, willingly accepted the imperial command [but he was unsuccessful in organizing his cabinet, and resigned]. It became manifest that the political situation had undergone a radical transformation and that the power of the press

and public opinion had at last got control of national politics to a great extent, so that even the elder statesmen were no more the sanctuary of political institution in Japan. The elder statesmen were extremely surprised at the failure to organize the Kiyoura Ministry. After a careful scrutiny they failed to find any other clan statesman or other bureaucrat who was sufficiently popular to control the situation, and, discouraged and embarrassed by attempts, they were at last obliged to appeal to Marquis Okuma, who had been isolated from ministerial politics for a long time. . . . The public looked upon this great old man as their savior at a critical time. Inspired by this recognition, the man of eighty at last emerged from his long seclusion at Waseda and became the champion of the popular form of government. . . . Premier Okuma himself did not prove to be a practical statesman, although he was a great idealist and perhaps the most popular leader of public opinion. . . . Regardless of the mistakes committed during its administration, however, [notably its harsh diplomacy in 1915 in the treaty negotiations with China] the Okuma Cabinet always enjoyed the support of the majority of the newspapers. Thus, with the help of the press, and also because of the serious international situation connected with the Great War, the Cabinet survived for three years, a long life for a Cabinet in Japan. At the end of that time the public tired of its mediocre administration, and the Terauchi Ministry, a reactionary bureaucracy, replaced it. . . . The Terauchi Ministry did not make any particularly serious blunder; but the day for a distinctly bureaucratic government had already passed, and the people could not be contented with it. During the last decade the general atmosphere of Japan [had] grown distinctly democratic, especially since the outbreak of the Great War. The people have begun to seek a more liberal government than that of the past. In view of this, Count Terauchi at last resigned; and on September 29, 1918, the Hara Cabinet was organized on a purely party basis with members of the Seiyu-Kai."—K. Kawabe, *Press and politics in Japan, pp.* 148, 149, 152, 164.

1914-1918.—Military power.—Army organization. See WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: a; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 35.

1914-1918.—In the World War.—Declaration of war.—Services in the war.—"When Great Britain declared war against Germany, Japan, in compliance with the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, addressed an ultimatum on August 15, 1914, in which it was stated that all German warships should withdraw from Japanese and Chinese waters and deliver up Kiaochau, which would be eventually restored to China. As no reply was given, Japan declared war on August 23."—F. H. Davis, *Japan, p.* 287.—For Imperial Rescript, see WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: b.—"The Japanese troops and their fleet . . . lent invaluable help in the protection of trade, a fact which was recognised by a special despatch, dated October 22, 1914, from the First Lord of the Admiralty to Admiral Yashiro, the Minister of Marine at Tokio. On November 9, the fall of Tsing-tau, the capital of Kiao-chou, was reported, whereby German power ceased to exist in the Far East."—W. Crewdson, *Japan our ally, p.* 31.—"Owing to the strong pro-German feeling among the military and civil Bureaucrats in Japan, the German Government hoped to have Japan abrogate the Anglo-Japanese alliance and come in on her side. In fact at the beginning of hostilities a favourable demonstration was made before the Japanese Embassy in Berlin on the rumour circulating that she had actually done so. Fortunately for the Allies, however, Japan decided to live up to her treaty obligations. . . . [In Asia her movements were] as follows: (1) The capture of Tsingtau and the seizure of the surrounding portions of the Shangtung Peninsula; (2) the capture of the German island possessions in the Pacific; (3) the guarding of the Pacific; and, finally (4), the Siberian expedition."—W. M. McGovern, *Modern Japan, p.* 209.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: d; IX. Naval operations: g; g, 3.—"In the single year of 1915 Japan supplied Russia with munitions to the value of $100,000,000. Of rifles alone Japan shipped no less than 750,000, a number sufficient to arm fifty-two divisions. Upon the fall of Warsaw in August of that year, Japan redoubled her energies in producing arms and munitions for Russia. Without this prodigious effort on the part of Japan, Alexeieff could not have conceived or Brusiloff carried out the superb offensive which began on June 4, 1916. . . . In addition to naval assistance to her allies, Japan placed at their disposal a large fleet of merchant vessels. In April, 1918, she agreed to turn over to the United States sixty-six ships aggregating 514,000 tons. Of that number twenty-four ships, with a total tonnage of 150,000, were immediately chartered by the American Shipping Board. In this transaction the Japanese Government had to pay Japanese ship owners $9,000,000, representing the difference between the inter-allied charter rates and the rates paid by the Shipping Board. Even before this agreement was made no less than fifty Japanese steamers had been chartered by various foreign governments and individuals. Japan's financial contribution to the winning of the war must perforce be small, for she is a poor nation. Yet her loans to England amount to $265,000,000. To France she advanced $77,500,000 and to Russia $127,000,000. To this should be added $110,000,000, representing Japanese foreign loan bonds and company debentures redeemed in foreign markets."—K. Kawakami, *Japan and world peace, pp.* 16-17.

1914-1921.—Effects of World War on shipping.—Trade relations with India.—Exportation of sugar as compared with that of Formosa. See COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1914-1921; INDIA: 1912-1922; FORMOSA: 1906-1919.

1915 (January).—Japan's twenty-one demands from China.—Violation of Japan's Monroe Doctrine. See CHINA: 1915; MONROE DOCTRINE: Japan's Monroe Doctrine for Asia; U.S.A.: 1907-1917.

1916.—Represented at Allied economic conference. See WORLD WAR: 1916: XII. Political conditions in belligerent countries: a; TARIFF: 1916.

1916.—Peace proposals.—Peace note of December 12.—Allied reply to Central Powers.—Allied reply to President Wilson's peace note of December 18. See WORLD WAR: 1916: XI. Peace proposals: b, 2; b, 3.

1916.—Interest in China. See CHINA: 1916-1917.

1916 (July).—Russo-Japanese treaty for maintenance of peace in the Far East. See RUSSO-JAPANESE TREATY.

1917.—Effect of Burnett Act in United States upon Japanese emigration. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1917.

1917 (November).—Lansing-Ishii agreement with the United States concerning China. See U.S.A.: 1907-1917; CHINA: 1917 (November).

1917-1918.—Interest in Philippine islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1917-1918.

1918.—Japan in Siberia.—Secret agreement with China.—"In the military intervention of the Allied and Associated Powers in Siberia Japan took a prominent part. The course of events in Russia after the revolution caused uneasiness in Great Britain and France. When the Bolsheviks gained control of affairs, the German and Austro-Hungarian prisoners of war, who, owing to the disintegration of the former Russian armies had regained their liberty, and were free to uphold German ambitions, made common cause with them; and it was felt that there was danger of these combined forces spreading through Central and Eastern Siberia. How best to meet this danger, and at the same time to relieve the Czecho-Slovak troops, composed of ex-prisoners of war, who had refused to join the Bolsheviks and were retreating along the Trans-Siberian Railway, was a question which forced itself on the attention of the Governments concerned. The idea of sending an expeditionary force for this double purpose was first mooted in the summer of 1917, but it was not until a year later that an understanding was effected. In this military intervention six of the Allied and Associated Powers were represented, Japan, owing to her nearness to the scene of action, being the first to place troops on the spot. Meanwhile, in view of the same danger and for the same objects, the Japanese and Chinese Governments had some months before (in May, 1918) concluded a secret military Agreement for Common Defence for the duration of the war, by which arrangements were made for the co-operation of Japanese and Chinese troops both in Chinese and Russian territory. In the following September 'detailed stipulations' were attached to the Agreement. One of these provided that Chinese troops when operating in Russian territory should be under the control of a Japanese commander. A similar Naval Agreement was concluded at the same time. In pursuance of the Military Agreement considerable Japanese and Chinese forces were mobilized and employed in operations in Chinese territory and across the Russian border."—J. H. Gubbins, *Making of modern Japan*, *pp.* 281-282.—See also WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: c; e; e, 2; SIBERIA: 1917-1919; CHINA: 1918.

1918.—Exportation of opium to China.—Profits. See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1918.

1918.—Represented at London and Paris scientific conferences. See INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

1918.—World War casualties. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 3.

1918 (September).—Peace proposal of Austria-Hungary. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: k.

1918 (September-November). — Armistice terms with Bulgaria, Turkey, Germany, and Austria-Hungary. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: c; d; e; f; also 1918: XI. End of the war: a, 4; a, 12.

1918-1921.—As one of the great world powers.—Character of the bureaucracy.—"Genro."—Electoral reform.—Rice riots, August, 1918.—Industrial and political unrest.—The internal history of Japan following the war is the history of every one of the victorious nations—an era of inflation, profiteering, and industrial unrest, followed by financial depression. The special character which this took in Japan was due to the singular union of all industrial and political power in the hands of the government. For the encouragement of industry and commerce, from the first introduction of western ways, the government committed itself to a policy of what may be termed imperial socialism. "If Imperial Socialism means co-ordinated unification of industry more or less under the supervision of the Government, we may begin by saying that control is exercised in two different ways and with consequently two different results. The first of these is by methods of legislative regulation, and is to be seen in the elaborate codes which have been formulated to regulate in detail the exact conduct of all industries and trades, compared with which all English and American laws are as nothing. The farmer with his agricultural code is told exactly what he may and may not do—how his fields must be cultivated, what conditions are prohibited, and along what lines he is encouraged to go. The Government runs experimental stations and informs him as to the best lines to be pursued. Most of this advice he is more or less compelled to carry out. The trader and the manufacturer are, along their respective lines, the same, so that the Government stands as the great umpire insisting upon mutual application of those principles which are supposed to stand for efficiency and success. Government action by no means stops here, for we find that the second method adopted is by actively engaging in the organization of each particular industry, forming companies under its own auspices, stimulating the manufacture of this and of that product, arranging and insisting upon mutual co-operation among the principal industries on all important points, and, in fact, acting generally as manager of the drama of economic life. . . . In most cases all important concerns started as absolute Government monopolies, generally as State experimental factories, and were only gradually and under certain conditions handed over to private enterprise. Thus, in the early days, we find Government factories were started for the manufacture of cement, of paper, of steel, of matches, of printing type, of textiles, of silk, and the preparation of such things as salt, sugar, tobacco, and camphor. The Bureaucracy inaugurated iron foundries, and machine shops, docks, and printing plants, shipbuilding plants, railroad stock manufactories, and all the thousand and one other features of industrial life. In each and every case of this type the factories were kept in Governmental hands until the experimental stage was over, and until it was shown not only that it was a practicable idea, but also that the best means had been devised for their most convenient, economic, and efficient production, and only then, one by one, suitable companies were organized under Government auspices for the acquirement of the industry concerned. . . . As things are at present, we may divide all the important industries into three classes—viz.: (a) Government monopolies, (b) semi-monopolies, (c) autonomous concerns under the general supervision of the Government. Under the first head would come those affairs which are vested solely in the Government and in which private enterprise has no part whatsoever. Such are the railroads, the manufacture and sale of tobacco, salt, camphor, and in Formosa of opium. These are still run for the purpose of securing revenue, and on the whole have proved successful, though the charge of Government profiteering is not altogether unjustified. Under the second category come those firms which, while not mere Government departments, yet are subsidized by the Government, and given general protection and encouragement in return for submission to the broad outlines of its policy. On smaller and less important points they are of course left free to

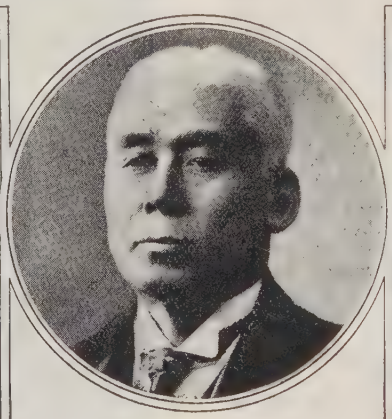
choose for themselves, and it is rather spontaneous co-ordination with the Government than in the nature of a formal bond compelling them to carry out certain orders or decrees. Of this nature are . . . three great shipping companies, the N.Y.K. [Nippon Yusen Kaisha], the T.K.K. [Toyo Kisen Kaisha], and the O.S.K. [Osaha Shosen Kaisha], as they are generally known among foreigners, which own the vast majority of Japanese boats. The Mitsubishi dockyards, and one or two other large shipbuilding companies are in the same class, as is also the great Mitsui concern, which has almost secured a monopoly of the major portion of the wholesale import and export trade, and is by far the largest and most powerful of Japanese firms, having branches and agencies everywhere. Many of the mining companies, the iron foundries, and certain of the textile (*i.e.*, spinning) companies have a similar relationship, though so gradually does the second category shade off into the third that it is difficult to draw a sharp line of demarcation between them. In most of the companies of the former class, however, the Government or the Imperial Household Department holds a large number of shares, and in return they receive money grants from the State, or its equivalent. All are forced to keep from cut-throat competition, to comply with general and uniform directions, and to place their facilities at the disposal of the Government in case of war. All the remaining concerns come, of course, under the third class, and consist either of firms started purely by private enterprise or, more usually, of companies formed under the auspices of the Government for the purchase of model factories, as we have mentioned previously, though in many cases corporations have been established under Government stimulation without this preliminary step. A group of people are forced to be interested in a certain line —hats, let us say. Arrangements are made for the formation of a company. Government-inspired banks promise the necessary capital. An expert or a body of experts is sent abroad to study the hat-manufacturing industry; machinery is bought; a plant installed, and in a few years the company is flooding Japan and bit by bit the rest of Asia with cheap hats. Naturally in many cases the bonds between the individual firm and the Government tend to become very lax. . . . There are, however, two factors which counteract any such laxity; which make it easier for the various firms to keep abreast of one another by keeping in touch with the Government. One of these is the question of scientific research, and the other is the peculiar organization of the banking system. Regarding the first we may say that from many points of view in matters concerning the national recognition of and provision for scientific and industrial research Japan leads the world. . . . In the application of general knowledge to specific problems to the advancement of industry, in the analysis of soils in order to know what fertilizers to use and what crops to grow, in research as to how the river systems of Japan may be used for hydro-electric power, how chemicals found in large quantities can be utilized commercially, that her success has been so marked and is in many ways unique. In addition to the central research laboratory, which is more or less in touch with all such phases of scientific advance, we find special institutions for carrying on research on agriculture, on forestry, on chemistry and the chemical industry, on physics, on bacteriology; special bureaux for analysis, for synthesis, and for improvement of manufacturing processes. The information thus acquired is purveyed to each particular firm for its own use and benefit, so that the Bureaucracy continues to be regarded as the fount of initiative and inspiration. . . . The banking system is also so arranged as to foster the same result. . . . First, of course, comes the Bank of Japan, which is the keystone of the whole [Japanese] banking world, and upon which even the nominally private banks depend. Next comes the Yokohama Specie Bank, which has almost a monopoly of the foreign exchange. Then come the Hypothec Bank, with its innumerable branches and agencies, which is the backbone of agricultural economics; and the Bank of Commerce and Industry, which performs a similar function for the manufacturers and merchants. Almost all firms working on a large scale sooner or later are forced to come to one or another of these banks for money, and money is only advanced on the fulfilment of certain conditions, and upon conditions which are sometimes extremely severe. With this whip-hand over it no company, however restive, can get entirely out of hand. . . . It is unusual in the larger industries for a man to begin at the bottom and gradually rise up. He finds his sphere according to his education, and though the poor man with special training may rise to any height, without it he has little chance to be more than a cog in the machine. This has many disadvantages, of course, but at least it has meant that managers are usually men of a very high education and general training, acquainted with the theory as well as the practice of industry or trade, and with consequent greater grasp of any situation which may arise."—W. M. McGovern, *Modern Japan, pp.* 161-169.

MALE COURT DANCER IN ANCIENT DRESS

"During the entire Meiji Era (1868-1912), and part of the Taisho Era (1912-), the government of Japan was a pure bureaucracy; that is, the power of government was in the hands of an official class, which held all the administrative offices. These bureaucrats were the ruling class, and all

others were simply their tools. Even now the power of the bureaucrats has been broken only in part by the rise of the political parties. . . . The modern class of bureaucrats is a continuation in time of a section of the feudal class of samurai. All the bureaucrats who leaped into power at the Meiji Restoration had been samurai of the powerful clans. . . . The Genro, many of the present-day peers, the generals and the admirals are really part of the bureaucratic class. . . . [But] it is not fair to the bureaucrats to condemn them as destructive reactionaries. They did much good. In a period of transition someone must take the helm, and they were expert pilots. But the period of transition is now over. . . . One of their greatest strongholds is the House of Peers. Upon the promulgation of the constitution it became necessary for the bureaucrats to seek a stronghold in the legislative branch of the government. They turned to the House of Peers rather than to the House of Representatives . . . because the traditions which hung over from the feudal period made the upper house at that time more influential, in the loyalty to the bureaucracy of which he was a part. As a result of this system any cabinet minister not a bureaucrat found difficulty in getting the co-operation of the members of his department. . . . Over a long period of years the bureaucrats found themselves struggling against a growing tendency toward democracy. . . . They did not lack skill . . . in fighting their enemies of the lower house. They pressed to the utmost their autocratic interpretation of the constitution, declaring that since the Emperor has the sole right to appoint the ministers, the lower house has no right to criticise his choice. . . . Many professors of the Imperial University who had studied in Germany upheld the bureaucratic theory of the constitution, [and] the advocates of democracy were not so learned, and were easily vanquished in argument."—U. Iwasaki, *Working forces in Japanese politics* (*Columbia University Studies, v.* 97, *no.* 1, *pp.* 51-55).—"Under the original Election Law of 1890, the qualifications of an elector were that he must be a male Japanese subject over 25 years of age, residing more than one year in the district where

BARON JUTARO KOMURA



TAKASHI HARA

PRINCE TARO KATSURA

popular estimation, than the lower. . . . The Privy Council, which, because of its direct connection with the Emperor, can act as a sort of overseer to the cabinet, is another fortress of the bureaucracy. Even now there are no party men in the Privy Council. All its members are bureaucrats, samurai of the great clans, who always bear in mind the welfare of the clans and of the bureaucracy through which they exercise their power. . . . The solidarity of the Choshu and Satsuma clans is a third source of strength to the bureaucrats. In the feudal days the clans gained a strength which will endure for years, . . . [and] the clan system is still an integral part of Japanese society. . . . Not satisfied with these advantages, the bureaucrats have framed a civil service system which preserves them from attacks upon their power. No government office lower than that of cabinet minister can be filled by any but those who have passed the civil service examinations in their youth, entered the service as subordinate clerks, and grown up in harness. This rule was invented by Ito in 1885, not as a harmful restriction, but as a means of preserving equality of opportunity in the civil service, but the bureaucrats under Yamagata turned it to their own advantage. . . . The bureaucrats took advantage of this civil service system to instill into the heart of every young clerk a feeling of

he votes, and paying direct national tax to the amount of not less than Y15 per annum; and the qualifications of a candidate were about the same, except that he had to be over 30 years of age. The members of the House of Representatives were then 300 and elected for a four years' term. . . . [Later the property qualification for candidates was abolished.] The number of voters was approximately 500,000 out of the population of 42,000,000. In 1900, the law was revised and the number of voters increased to about 1,500,000. . . . Again in 1920, an Electoral Reform Bill was passed, and the Election Law now in force was formulated. By this revised Law, the property qualification of a voter has been lowered from Y10 to 3; the number of voters increased from 1,500,000 to approximately 2,860,000; and the number of seats from 381 to 464, which are now distributed among 374 electoral districts."—*Japan Year Book*, 1921-1922, *p.* 58.—"It seems not a mere coincidence that the inauguration of a liberal cabinet at Tokyo came simultaneously with the decline of Germany's military prowess. When the Terauchi Cabinet, generally accredited with conservatism, was ready to resign in September, 1918, Marquis Okuma, for many years identified with the liberal movement in Japan, informed the Emperor that war had brought a great change in the sentiments

of the people, as it has widened the gulf between the wealthy classes and the masses. This, he said, created a dangerous tendency which if ignored might undermine the social foundations of the empire. [Consequently Hara, the "commoner of Japan" was asked to organize a new ministry.] . . . As soon as it was organized, the new Cabinet made it plain that it intended to abolish anachronistic practices of the bureaucracy.—K. K. Kawakami, *Japan and world peace, pp.* 19, 20.—The diffusion of western education among all classes, and the increasing influence of the press had by this time tended to increase the popular demand for a more liberal form of government, a demand which was made much more insistent by the events of the war. "Independent of the puny socialist movement, . . . the germs of a more truly proletarian movement were developing among the laborers of the cities. The unrest, which was . . . chaotic and without direction, took the form of a popular clamor against the government of the bureaucratic clans, Choshu and Satsuma. Riots in Tokyo, especially in the last days of the Katsura régime, were frequent. This movement, was, of course, utilized by the political parties in their fight for the control of the government. In August 1918, out of a clear sky came the first real uprising of the Japanese proletariat for proletarian ends: the rice riots. This outburst was the result of a tremendous rise in the cost of rice—the price tripled in less than two months—which was due, in turn, to under-production and to war-time speculation. Throughout the summer of 1918 the Japanese masses suffered patiently while the price of their staple food went higher. The Terauchi cabinet, through its minister of agriculture and commerce, Mr. Ren Nakashoji, tried in vain to check profiteering and to lower the cost of living. Stories were printed in the newspapers of the great wealth and the reckless spending of the speculators. Popular feeling slowly became uncontrollable. On August 3, a hundred fishermen's wives in the little northern village of Toyama got together and decided that they had had enough of this. They went in a body to the rice dealers, and asked them to reduce their prices. Some one told them that a train load of rice was about to be moved away from their village, and they immediately ran to the railroad, jumped frantically upon the tracks in front of the train, and cried for rice. They pillaged the rice shops and when their leaders were arrested, they swarmed around the police station and freed the prisoners. On August 5 and 6 the riots continued. The news of the disorders in Toyama spread rapidly over the nation. The people promptly reacted to the tidings, and the disorders spread to the large cities. In quiet Kyoto, where in feudal days the nobles of the Imperial Court practiced their lovely and peaceful arts, the people now raided the rice shops and demolished the police stations. In Kobe the trouble was most violent. The offices and warehouses of the great Suzuki Company, which the rioters believed had been guilty of profiteering, were burned. Rioting spread to Osaka, Nagoya, Hiroshima and Kure. Finally it reached Tokyo, and echoes of it were heard in Korea and Formosa. The police lost control completely, and the army was called out. Finally the Imperial Household, with a contribution of three million yen, started a fund for the relief of the sufferings of the poor. The capitalists of the nation contributed. With this fund the government opened shops, and, with the aid of soldiers and policemen as storekeepers, distributed rice among the people. The fury, extent and spontaneity of this uprising make it peculiarly significant. It was the first uprising against the rich that modern Japan has ever seen. Its great violence is largely due to the fundamental excitability of the Japanese, who lack discipline in public demonstration, and who are extremely susceptible to the suggestions of violence that make mobs dangerous. The party politicians made it appear that the rioting was an expression of indignation against Terauchi and the bureaucratic government. They succeeded in getting themselves sufficiently believed to cause the downfall of the cabinet. This was the only immediate effect of the rioting. In the long run, however, it will doubtless appear that the riots did more than overthrow a cabinet. They demonstrated to the workers the effectiveness of mob action, and the futility of the government in the face of it. The workers have felt their power, and they know now that they can give battle to the police and the soldiers. The generosity of the rich men, who were quick to give money when the peace of the nation appeared to be in danger, may have suggested to many that riots among the dissatisfied poor would make the rich surrender. Thus the workers have learned that although they can neither vote nor strike, they have a weapon. This is the dawn of an effective Japanese labor movement."—U. Iwasaki, *Working forces in Japanese politics* (*Columbia University Studies, v.* 97, *no.* 1, *pp.* 114-117).—Some at least of the trouble was due, as the complex international problem which has arisen in the Pacific is due, primarily to the excess of the population in Japan. According to the census of 1920 the islands of Japan— . . . a total area of 148,756 square miles —have a population of 55,961,140. In other words, 375 per square mile, a density almost equal to that of the British Isles and almost double that of France. . . . Although she is essentially an agricultural country she is compelled to import foodstuffs. Thus in 1919 Japan imported food to the value of 250,000,000 yen. The masses of the population are dependent upon the rice crop, because the area under cultivation cannot be increased. . . . In the course of thousands of years the Japanese people has grown in a kind of enclosure formed by three islands: Nippon, Shikoku, and Kiu-shiu. It is only during the last fifty years that Japan began to colonise Jesso, where about 1,500,000 people have been sent. Competent authorities have long since noticed that Japanese emigration towards the North has been very slow, and have come to the conclusion that extensive Japanese emigration is possible only to countries South of the forty-fifth parallel. The experience of the colonisation of Southern Sakhalien is another striking proof of the difficulties encountered by Japan in her endeavours to colonise the North. This territory was ceded to Japan by Russia in 1905. In fifteen years, in spite of many efforts, the population there has reached the insignificant figure of 75,000, of whom only 17,000 actually inhabit the island . . . while the rest only come to Sakhalien for the summer. It is to be noted that Jesso and Sakhalien offer another fundamental condition which the Japanese people cannot renounce. The Japanese is essentially an islander; he is organically bound to the sea, to its industries and climate. . . . The tremendous demands [created by the war had] caused the rapid establishment of new industrial concerns and the hurried development of the existing ones. The Bank of Japan (Nippon Ginko) reckoned that in the first quarter of 1916 the total investment in new enterprises amounted to 660,000,000 yen, and in the first quarter of 1917 870,000,000 yen were spent on the development of existing concerns. . . . The ton-

nage of the mercantile fleet also grew rapidly. In 1908 it was 1,500,000 tons, and in 1918 it exceeded 3,000,000 tons. These exceptionally favourable circumstances do not, however, constitute a healthy condition for the conversion of the country to industrialism, especially as the growth of industry and commerce had been stimulated by the success of Japan's policy of conquest. Gold flowed in an interrupted stream into the chests of Japan. From 300,000,000 yen in 1914 the Japanese gold reserve grew to 1,600,000,000 yen in 1918. The profits of joint-stock companies were colossal. The yearly dividends of most shipping and transport companies reached 60 per cent. Other business concerns also made similar profits. Japanese millionaires, who before the war were but a handful, can now be counted by the thousand. In a word, the war has enriched the Exchequer and the Capitalists. On the other hand, the welfare of the masses has not improved. The Japanese Liberal Party (Sei-yu-kai) which advocated the extension of suffrage, succeeded in reducing the value of property entitling to a vote from fifteen yen—yearly tax on landed property—to three yen. As a result, 2,860,000 voters gained access to the polls. Instead of increasing their wealth, the masses of the people were impoverished during the war. The influx of gold into the country resulted in a rise in the cost of living. The prices of rice, fish, clothing, fuel rose 250-300 per cent. . . . Meanwhile, wages did not increase considerably for the same period. In 1920, the average pay of an ordinary workman varied from 2.50 to 3.00 yen a day. Thus Japan has tasted alongside with the sweetness of rapidly growing industrialism the bitter fruits of capitalism. Labour troubles, hitherto unknown in Japan, compelled the employers to agree to increased wages. In the first nine months of 1921 there . . . [were] sixty-three strikes affecting over 2,000 men each. The biggest strike occurred in Kobe, where tens of thousands of workmen went on strike. It lasted over a month, whereas all previous strikes hardly survived ten days. Another novel feature of the strike was the procession of over 30,000 workmen which marched through the streets of Kobe in perfect order, thus displaying their solid organisation. One of the leaders of the Labour movement in Japan, Sudzuki, thus comments upon that strike: 'A strike similar to the Kobe one would have been smashed by the Government a few years ago. I consider that the Government has been wise in refraining from such action, as it would only have embittered the conflict between the workmen and the capitalists.'" —N. Golovin and A. D. Dubnow, *Problem of the Pacific in twentieth century, pp.* 27-29.

The war left Japan with considerable accessions of territory in the Pacific, and with the problem of racial discrimination unsettled. The California Land Act of 1914 continued to cause friction. "This discrimination between the Japanese and other aliens, who, unlike them, are eligible for naturalization as American citizens, remains a sore point with the Japanese people, and is a stumbling-block in the relations between Japan and America. [See CALIFORNIA: 1900-1920; RACE PROBLEMS: 1913-1921.] Opposition to Japanese labour immigration was not confined to the United States. Similar anti-Japanese feeling arose in Canada. [See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Canada: 1920.]"—J. H. Gubbins, *Making of modern Japan, p.* 267.—See above: 1905-1914.—Unrest over Japanese power in the Pacific affected Australia and New Zealand also, and caused Sir John Findlay, former minister of Justice of New Zealand to say, "The mandate given Japan over islands which were formerly German has increased the sense of uneasiness on the part of Australia and New Zealand as to the future expansion of Japan in the Pacific. . . . Australia and New Zealand are committed to a white policy and will resist the influx of Asiatics." Since a main source of conflict between Japan and other powers in China was the lending of money to China on the part of Japan in return for concessions—on terms which led to the farther undoing of China—it was informally agreed at the Peace conference to internationalize the lending of money and to found a consortium for financing China which should include the four powers who had interests in the country—France, Great Britain, the United States, and Japan. "The new consortium was initiated by the Department of State when in June, 1918, it requested J. P. Morgan & Co., Kuhn, Loeb & Co., National City Bank, Chase National Bank and Guaranty Trust Company, all of New York, Lee, Higginson & Co., of Boston, and Continental & Commercial Trust & Savings Bank of Chicago, to lend their good offices to the formation of an American banking group, to be made up of banking houses and institutions throughout the country, in order to aid in a plan which the Department had in mind for international co-operation in the assistance of China; the then Secretary of State explaining to the foregoing in a letter dated July 9, 1918, that: 'This war has brought the countries of Great Britain, France, Japan, the United States and some others into a state of harmony and helpfulness, and has supplanted an intense spirit of competition by a spirit of mutuality and co-operation in matters relating to their interests abroad.' The firms and institutions to which this request was preferred acceded to it; and thereupon was organized the American banking group, to membership in which were invited, with the approval of the Department of State, thirty-seven of the leading banks and banking houses throughout the country. . . . Following the successful formation of the American group the Department of State proposed to the Governments of Great Britain, France and Japan that they should encourage in their respective countries the formation of similar groups; all such groups, if and when formed, to constitute the international consortium, to pool for the common benefit such concessions, if any, as the individual members might hold in China, and to work together as a free and full partnership for the larger ends in question. The final organization of the consortium was somewhat delayed in order to clarify the situation created by the fact that the Japanese banking group, at the instance of its Government, proposed certain reservations as to the operation of the consortium in the Chinese Provinces of Manchuria and Mongolia. These reservations having been withdrawn early in 1920, during the course of a visit made to Japan and China by Thomas W. Lamont of the American group, a meeting of all the international delegates was held in New York City and on October 15, 1920, the international consortium was finally organized. . . . The consortium also adopted the principle that, in the case of any loans that it might grant to the Government of China, some machinery must be established by which assurance could be had that the proceeds of the loans were expended for the purposes for which they were intended. Experience having shown that the proceeds of certain former loans made to the Chinese Government for specific purposes of improvement had been expended in unproductive ways, the members of the consortium—though having great faith in the

fundamental integrity of the Chinese people—felt that they could not offer Chinese Government securities to the investment communities of their several countries unless they could give assurance that the loan proceeds would be expended properly by the Chinese Government. Beyond the assertion of this principle the consortium has not gone, and the statement, not infrequently made, that the consortium seeks the financial control of China is entirely without foundation. On the contrary, it seeks to avoid any possible responsibility beyond that of being properly assured that, in any loan operation that it may undertake, it is rightfully discharging its double responsibility: First, that towards the Chinese people of providing funds only for constructive purposes; second, that towards the investment communities of making certain that any loans made by them to China shall be properly safeguarded. Another statement, not infrequently made, that the consortium is seeking to force a loan upon China is exactly contrary to the fact. The consortium has never even offered a loan to China, and China's friends should understand that no loan to China can or will be made by the consortium except at the expressed desire of the Chinese Government."—T. W. Lamont, *Nature and purposes of the new Chinese Consortium* (*Economic World, Dec.* 17, 1921).—See also CHINA: 1919: Consortium agreement; EUROPE: Modern: New balance of power.

1918-1921.—Policy in the Pacific.—Conflicting interests with Australia.—Interest in the Philippines. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1918-1921; 1919-1921; AUSTRALIA: 1919; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1918-1921.

1919.—Awarded control of Shantung by Treaty of Versailles.—Shantung controversy.—Effect on United States. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part IV: Section VIII; CHINA: 1919: Shantung controversy; U. S. A.: 1919-1921.

1919.—Represented at conference for International Union of Academies. See INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES: Conference called by French Academy.

1919.—Mandatory control of Caroline islands. See CAROLINE ISLANDS: 1899-1920.

1919 (March).—Treaty with Ecuador. See ECUADOR: 1919.

1919 (April).—Decree encouraging agriculture. See FOOD REGULATION: 1918-1920.

1919 (June).—Represented at Paris conference.—Treaty of Versailles. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1919 (June).—Treaty of Allies with Poland for protection of minorities. See POLAND: 1919 (June 28).

1919 (September).—Treaty of St. Germain with Austria. See ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF.

1919 (November).—Treaty of Neuilly with Bulgaria. See NEUILLY, TREATY OF.

1919-1920.—Chinese boycott of Japanese goods. See CHINA: 1919-1920.

1919-1920.—Suppression of independence movement in Korea. See KOREA: 1919-1922.

1920.—Labor organization. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922.

1920.—Plan for an arbitration court. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: 1919-1920.

1920.—Member of International Health Bureau. See PUBLIC HEALTH: League of Nations.

1920.—Anti-Japanese law in California.—Immigration restrictions in Canada. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1920-1921: Anti-Japanese law; Canada: 1920; RACE PROBLEMS: 1913-1921.

1920 (June).—Treaty of Trianon with Hungary. See TRIANON, TREATY OF.

1920 (August).—Treaty of Sèvres with Turkey.—Member of Commission of the Straits for control of Dardanelles. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF.

1920-1921.—General strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1920-1922: Industrial disturbances.

1921.—Offer to modify Treaty of Sèvres and limit provisions relating to Greece. See TURKEY: 1921 (March-April): Secret treaties.

1921.—Military position of Japan.—Occupation of Manchuria and eastern Siberia.—Assassination of Langdon.—Vanderlip concession.—"As a result . . . of the last two wars, supposedly forced on Japan by the imperialism of European powers, the Japanese military machine succeeded in annexing Korea and in acquiring the Asiatic holdings of two European powers—Russia and Germany. By the close of the European War this machine had established a virtual protectorate over Manchuria—'the historic road of invasion into China.' It had scattered troops between Port Arthur and Harbin. It also had a foothold in Shantung province. From the economic standpoint, this meant access to Shansi coal. From the military standpoint, it meant a southern approach to Peking. Located in Port Arthur and Tsingtau, the position of Japan was immeasurably stronger than that of Russia or Germany had ever been. The subjection of China by Russia or Germany was impossible in view of the great distance from which troops and materials must come. But Japanese troops were but a few hours away. They were able to land at points north and south of Peking, which from the military standpoint had become indefensible. As a result of acquiring the Asiatic possessions of two European powers, Japan held the capital of China in a pair of tongs. The Japanese military party not only dominated northern China but it also controlled the three trade entries into Siberia. The mouth of the Amur River was patrolled by Japanese gunboats; the port of Dairen, a principal outlet of Siberian trade (despite the fact that it is in Manchuria) was held by lease; the port of Vladivostok was held by Japanese soldiers. In addition, Japanese cruisers were stationed off Kamchatka, and Japanese troops occupied northern Sakhalin. Such was the situation in the Orient when the Government of the United States issued its call for a Conference on Limitation of Armament and Pacific and Far Eastern Questions. . . . Just as in the case of Korea, the policy of Japan in Siberia brought her into conflict with the United States. On the 8th of January, 1921, Warren H. Langdon, an American naval officer, was shot and killed by a Japanese sentry. There was absolutely no provocation for the shooting. . . . The United States protested immediately after the shooting occurred. It was reported that the note raised the whole question of the right of Japan to occupy Vladivostok and to maintain its military authority there, as if it were Japanese soil. The Japanese Government expressed its regret at the occurrences; and Vice Admiral Kawahara telegraphed to Tokyo that it was a 'lamentable occurrence'—all of which was to have been expected. . . . Japan and the United States also clashed in Siberia over the so-called Vanderlip concession. In October, 1920, it was announced that the Soviet Government of Russia had leased territory in Siberia for a period of seventy years to interests represented by an American adventurer, Washington Vanderlip. This district covered territory east of the 160th meridian, including Kamchatka, a total of about 400,000 square miles. In this vast empire, an American

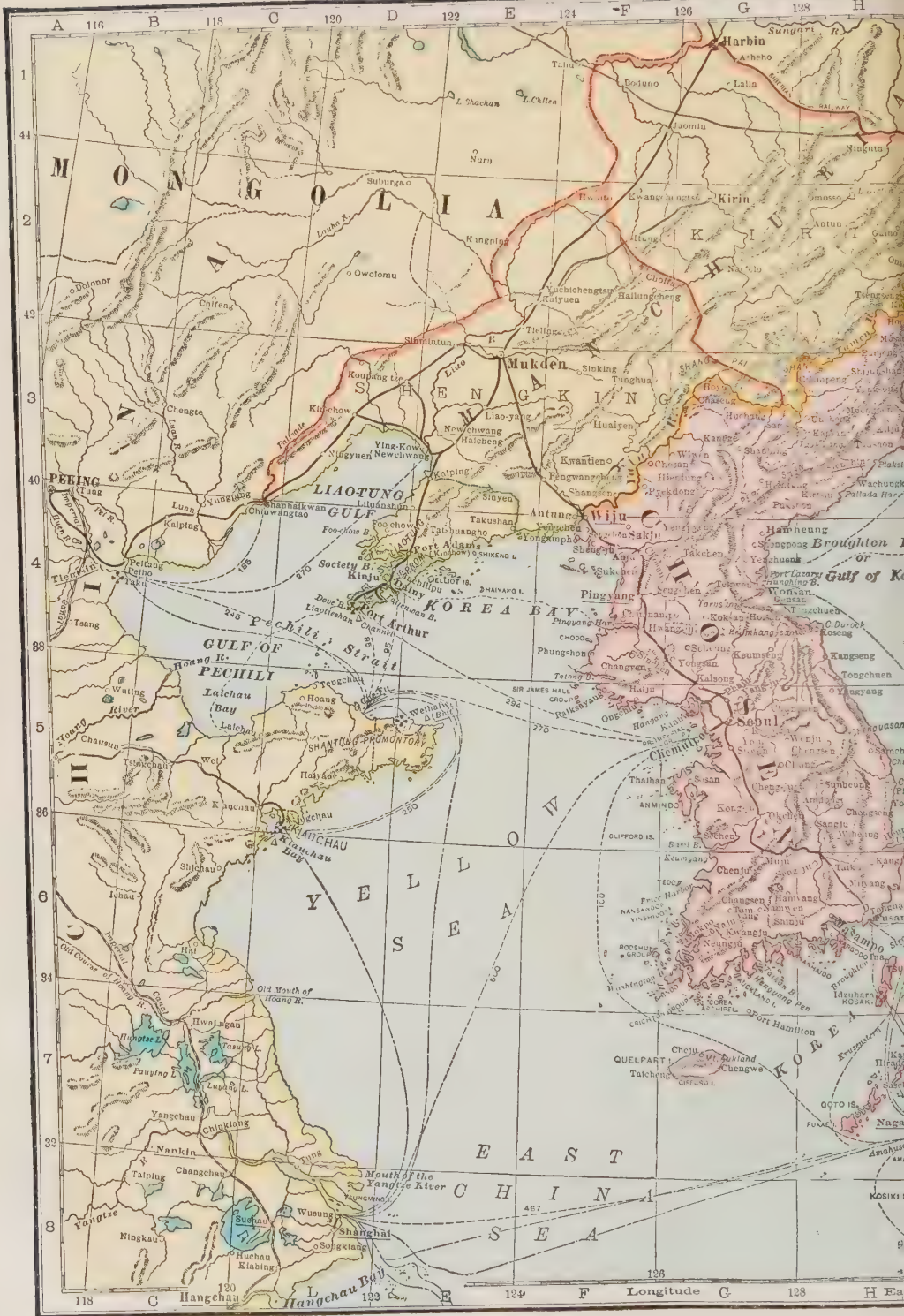
syndicate was to have the exclusive right to exploit all oil, coal and fishing resources. Lenine admitted that this concession had been granted merely to embroil the United States and Japan, because the Japanese had endeavoured to obtain and in fact already held some of the same concessions, especially fishing rights granted by a treaty of 1907. Since the establishment of the Chita Government the Japanese had attempted to extend their control of the Siberian fisheries by assigning to capitalists in their own country 'the rights to conduct fishing in the waters of Kamchatka which have hitherto belonged to the Russian coöperatives and to other Russian citizens.' The Japanese authorities also demanded that the Chita Government renew and extend their past fishing rights. If it refused to do so, 'The Imperial Government would be forced to take such measures of self-defense as it found necessary, so far as fishing rights are concerned.' Through Russian dummies the Japanese had also acquired the thirteen great timber concessions in Siberia. Thus the Vanderlip concession conflicted directly with the claims of the Japanese. . . . Obviously, an Asiatic Monroe Doctrine conflicted with the legitimate commercial interests of the United States. In the past that doctrine had resulted in annexations which clearly diminished American trade opportunities. In Korea the Japanese tariff applies to the trade of outside nations, but Japanese merchandise enters free. Undoubtedly Japan has a legal right to impose whatever tariff it likes on territory which is her own. For that matter the United States and France pursue the same policy of 'assimilation' toward their colonies. But if Japan should succeed in the future in annexing more territory and if she should continue this tariff policy, the trade openings for the United States in the Orient would be correspondingly diminished."—R. L. Buell, *Washington conference, pp.* 39-40, 66, 67-69.

1921.—Exclusion of Japanese immigrants from Australia. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: 1909-1921.

1921.—Status of women in Japan. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1900-1921.

1921 (December).—Treaty with England, France and the United States with respect to insular possessions. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

1921-1922.—Political events.—Attitude toward Siberia.—Korean troubles.—Census.—Assassination of Takashi Hara.—Takahashi cabinet.—Ratifiction of treaties.—Kato government.—Power of army and navy.—Evacuation of Siberia.—"An increasing demand for reform and for the elimination of 'invisible government,' the Shantung controversy, pacification of Korea, the continued military occupation of Eastern Siberia and Upper Manchuria, and the question of Japanese immigration to the United States, were outstanding problems which confronted Japan during the year under review. The long dispute over the proposed reform of the franchise was adjusted temporarily when on July 12 [1920] the Diet by a vote of 283 to 150 rejected a proposal for universal suffrage. In the debate preceding the vote, Premier Hara, while admitting that suffrage extension was necessary, declared that it was improper to adopt universal suffrage without giving the amended electoral law a trial. In reply to the contention of the opposition that the cabinet should respect the decision of the Diet to grant universal suffrage without a referendum to the country, the Premier sought to justify the government's appeal to the people and he was sustained by a vote of 283 to 145. Throughout the country great excitement prevailed, pro-suffrage demonstrations taking place not only in Tokio but in the provinces as well.—The deadlock with China regarding Shantung continued, although Japanese spokesmen repeatedly asserted that Japan was willing to negotiate with China regarding return of the disputed province; thus Viscount Uchida, Japanese Foreign Minister, publicly expressed himself on January 2 [1921], and Baron Hayashi, Japanese ambassador to London, in a carefully worded statement before the League of Nations Assembly, voiced a similar opinion. The latter affirmed that internal disturbances in China rendered negotiation extremely difficult, and Japan, he stated, 'must be assured that trade in Shantung shall be open' and Japan 'must settle how it shall be open and what guarantees we get that it remain so.'—Japanese anxiety regarding Korea continued; early in the year Admiral Saito, Japanese governor-general, outlined a plan for Korean self-government. The scheme, providing for popular election and limited home-rule, made little impression upon the belligerent Koreans. . . . Even in the Diet the government's Korean policy was from time to time severely criticized by the opposition. [See also KOREA: 1919.] . . . On September 22 [1920] it was officially announced that Japan had decided to withdraw her troops from [Siberia] . . . except from those places where the defense of the empire made continued presence of troops imperative. Early in January [1921] Viscount Uchida expressed the hope that a sufficiently stable regime would be established in Siberia to enable Japan to withdraw her troops from Vladivostok and the maritime provinces. Following the announcement, made for the first time in the history of Japan, that he would attack the government formally at a certain session on the floor of the Diet, Viscount Kato on January 24 bitterly arraigned the cabinet for its foreign policy. In reply the Premier asserted that continued occupation of certain districts in Siberia was absolutely necessary for the interests of Japan. . . . On February 8 Yukio Ozaki, deposed leader of the opposition, moved for curtailment of military expenditures, especially for naval armament, and proposed a conference with England and the United States on the subject of disarmament. The proposal for curtailment was defeated by a vote of 245 to 38, the militarists and capitalists declaring that conditions in China and Siberia did not permit army or navy retrenchment. . . . The population of Japan, Korea, Formosa and Sakhalin, according to the first census of the Japanese Empire, was announced on March 1 as 77,005,112, including 55,961,140 in Japan proper."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly,* 1921, *Supplement, pp.* 104-106.—"On the eve of the Washington Conference the liberal Premier, Takashi Hara, was assassinated at a Tokio railroad station. For months prior to his death his government had been mercilessly criticized for its policy toward China and Siberia, and advocates of suffrage extension openly avowed that his death was the result of his failure to secure suffrage reform. Baron Koreikiyo Takahashi, Minister of Finance in the Hara government, became Premier on November 12 [1921]. Making neither cabinet changes nor modifications in the Hara program, the new Premier and his colleagues continued their efforts to solve the difficult problems facing the country, *viz.,* ratification and fulfilment of the agreements negotiated at Washington, suffrage reform, the Siberian question, and reduction of expenditures. In certain quarters some dissatisfaction was expressed with agreements negotiated at the Wash-



Maps prepared spe
under direction o

e NEW LARNED
s and publishers.

ington Conference; notably was this true in regard to the Four-Power and naval treaties. In answer to all criticisms the Premier on December 23 declared that as a result of the conference 'a new epoch had been opened in the Pacific and in the world.' The quadruple agreement, he said, would lighten the burdens of the Japanese people and strengthen, rather than weaken, Japan's position in the Far East. [See also WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.] In commercial circles intense satisfaction was expressed with the results of the Conference, for it was generally believed that with the overcoming of the feeling of hostility toward the United States and the ending of the China trade boycott business would show a marked increase. . . . Although the struggle for suffrage reform carried Japan to the verge of revolution during the year, the problem . . . [remained] unsettled. . . . Debate on a new suffrage bill was the occasion for serious disorders before the doors of the Diet on February 23 [1922], over 150 persons being injured. When debate was resumed on the following day, such stormy scenes ensued that the session had to adjourn. The Japanese press, irrespective of party affiliation, declared that if suffrage reform should be much longer postponed revolution and bloodshed would inevitably result. . . . During March and April it became increasingly evident that the members of the Takahashi cabinet were not working together harmoniously. On May 2 the Premier requested the resignation of the Ministers of Agriculture, Interior, Railroads and Education; the reason assigned was his desire to obtain a cabinet in sympathy with his policy of speedy ratification of the Four-Power treaty. On June 6 the entire cabinet resigned and on the 11th Admiral Kato accepted the premiership of a non-party cabinet pledged to the execution of the Washington agreements. Kato, a Liberal and bitter opponent of the Militarists, made his acceptance conditional upon the agreement of the army leaders that the army budget be reduced by 40,000,000 yen. In November an imperial rescript was issued designing Crown Prince Hirohito as Regent to succeed his father, Emperor Yoshihito, who was incapacitated by long-continued illness. During the year two distinguished Japanese died, Marquis Okuma on January 6, and Prince Yamagata, one of the last of the Elder Statesmen, on February 1." —H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, *Supplement, pp.* 121-123.— In June the Yap agreement with the United States was ratified, and in June the disarmament agreement known as the Four Power Treaty was also ratified. "It has been freely stated in Japan that the death of Prince Yamagata has made and will make a difference to the position and power of the Genro. The remaining members are old, and have neither the powers nor the influence of the Prince, and it seemed, therefore, extremely improbable that they would retain the immense, secret influence over government which the Genro of Prince Yamagata had wielded. If this weakening of the militarist Genro were to come about, it would raise an interesting constitutional problem. If the power of the Genro to make and unmake Governments disappears, who is to succeed it in the exercise of this power? Presumably the power must pass to someone or somewhere; otherwise there is no reason why a Government, once having come into power, should not go on to eternity. It has been suggested that the action of the House of Peers in this crisis is the beginning of an attempt by that body to step into the shoes of the Genro which the death of Prince Yamagata has left empty. That is what makes the present position in Japan constitutionally important."—L. Woolf, *Foreign Affairs* (*Contemporary Review, Aug.*, 1922).—The appointment of Baron Kato as prime minister of Japan is an event which "has a deeper significance to America and the world than can be implied in a mere recording of the details of the fact. To consider first what is merely the most obvious significance of the choice of Baron Kato for head of the Government of Japan: it means the carrying out in complete good faith of the agreements made by the Washington Conference. . . . In Japan, the army and the navy have an amount of power over the Government, and especially over its foreign relations, which Americans can hardly comprehend. . . . In the governmental practice of Japan, the army and navy have, in substance, a veto on everything attempted to be done by the Government. . . . In the custom of Japan, the Minister of War and the Minister of Marine, must always be chosen from the army and from the navy, and never from civil life. . . . Either of those branches can instruct its minister to resign. . . . It is not too much to say that the army determines the foreign policies of Japan, and that the Japanese policy of imperialism is its creation. . . . Just before the beginning of the great war, there was a scandal in the Japanese navy, involving some high officers in financial corruption. There was a crisis in which, for the sake of the navy, and for the sake of the feeling of the Japanese people toward the navy, it was necessary for the navy to put forward one of its admirals, whose character was such that he would be most effective both in restoring the morale of the service, and in securing public confidence in it. Baron Kato was the man chosen. He was made Minister of Marine in 1915, and for seven years . . . he devoted himself to building up a great, new, Japanese navy. In this, he achieved a degree of success not commonly realized outside the circles of professional navy men. . . . On the day President Harding invited Japan to a Conference for the Limitation of Armament [see U.S.A.: 1921 (July-August)], Japan was energetically building the great 'post-Jutland' navy of the world. . . . This great new navy of Japan's was wholly the responsibility and the accomplishment of Baron Kato. It was the crown of his career. . . . When, therefore, . . . [he] came to the Washington Conference as the representative of Japan, when he accepted the Hughes plan, when he promised to stop all the post-Jutland construction of capital ships and to scrap most of the post-Jutland ships—that was an act of personal, professional, and national abnegation that only a big man could go through with equanimity. . . . In addition to the agreement to end its naval construction, there was, among the promises made by Japan at the Washington Conference, one to take her army out of Siberia. This particular promise, so far as it was an incident of the Washington Conference, was not very obligatory. . . . The Siberian adventure was the most important part of the Japanese army's programme of imperialism. . . . To abandon it, with the implied admission of failure in an imperialistic enterprise, was, to a degree you can only realize when you know how much 'face' counts in the East, a most serious relinquishment and acknowledgment of change of front on the part of the Japanese army. Within two weeks after Baron Kato became Premier, he announced that the evacuation of Siberia would be begun at once, and that by October thirtieth, there would be no Japanese troops left in that territory. This action, standing alone, is important enough, as a sign of the spirit

of the new regime in Japan. It was a fulfilment which, in the definiteness and earliness of the date fixed, went even beyond anything Japan had promised at Washington. It was a case of not merely living up to the letter, but of acting in a generously large way, on the spirit of the Conference."—M. Sullivan, *Premier Kato's revolutionary foreign policy* (*World's Work, Sept.*, 1922).—"As the fleet of ten Japanese transports steamed from Vladivostok harbor today, bearing away the last of the Mikado's soldiers and leaving the Primoria in the hands of the Reds, Japan closed her books on her adventure on the Siberian mainland, with a total on the debit side of upward of 1,500,000,000 yen. Added to this drain on the Government's exchequer, there is a loss to Japanese farmers and business men who abandoned their holdings as the soldiers withdrew."—*New York Times, Oct.* 27, 1922.—See also WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

1922.—**Temperance movement.** See LIQUOR PROBLEM: Japan.

1922 (January).—**Represented at Cannes conference.** See CANNES CONFERENCE.

1922 (February).—**Treaty with United States in regard to island of Yap.** See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

1922 (June-July).—**Represented at Allied economic conference at the Hague.** See HAGUE (ALLIED) CONFERENCE (1922).

1922 (December).—**Return of Shantung.—Withdrawal from Kiau-Chau.**—Toward the end of 1922 an agreement was reached with China concerning Shantung and signed on December 1. The "transfer of all Japanese interests in the Province was fixed for Dec. 5 when all the Japanese troops were to the evacuated. [See also WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.] The Shantung Railway, however, . . . [was] not to be handed over till Jan. 1, 1923. Owing to the Chinese Government not being ready to take over the territory by Dec. 5, a postponement of five days was arranged. Meanwhile the bandits with whom Shantung Province . . . [was] infested demanded that when the Japanese departed they should be given possession of Tsing-tao, threatening to kidnap all responsible Chinese officials and burn or pillage the shops. Many of the merchants in consequence closed their shops, while a large number of civilians left the city."—*New York Times Current History, Jan.*, 1923, *p.* 707.—The territory was formally handed over to Wang Ching-ting, foreign minister of China, on December 10, when the Chinese flag was raised on the administration buildings. No trouble was experienced from the bandits, who had been placated by the payment to them, by the Chinese government, of $100,000. The Japanese, on their retirement made a statement declaring that the bandits had concentrated from other provinces, outside Japanese jurisdiction. "Bandits," they said, "entered Tsing-tao secretly and conferred with the Chinese political leaders in a plot to wrest control of Shangtung from the Peking government. Japan concluded that it was unwise to interfere . . . because it was feared the bandits . . . might inflict reprisals upon 20,000 permanent Japanese residents. The Japanese offered to furnish arms to the Chinese police . . . [but Italy objected on the ground that it] would be against the terms of the International embargo."

See also COSTUME: Oriental: Japan; COURTS: Japan; COURTS, ADMINISTRATIVE; FLAGS: Japan; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Japan; PRISON REFORM: Japan; RED CROSS: Japan; RURAL CREDIT.

ALSO IN: J. O. P. Bland, *China, Japan and Korea.*—A. J. Brown, *Mastery of the Far East.*—N. Yamada, *Ghenko, the Mongol invasion of Japan.*—E. B. Mitford, *Tales of old Japan.*—E. M. Saton, *Diplomat in Japan.*—L. Nandeau, *Le Japon moderne: Son évolution.*—*Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan.*—*Transactions and proceedings of the Japan Society of London.*—J. I. C. Clarke, *Japan at first hand.*—K. W. Kawakami, *Japan and world peace.*—T. Miyaoka, *Growth of liberalism in Japan.*—Y. Noguchi, *Japan and America.*—H. Sato, *Democracy and Japanese government.*—W. Dickson, *Japan.*—J. W. R. Scott, *Foundations of Japan.*—R. E. Lewis, *Japanese conquest in the Far East.*—B. L. P. Weale, *Re-shaping of the Far East.*—I. Tokutomi, *Japanese-American relations* (tr. by S. Yanagiwara).—P. J. Treat, *Japan and the United States.*—M. J. Bau, *Foreign relations of China.*

JAPAN, Constitution of: Characteristics of government.—Text of constitution.—"It may be said in general concerning the imperial authority in Japan that, while nominally and theoretically it is not limited, yet practically it is somewhat limited. Uyehara says: 'Neither custom nor law, written or unwritten, nor the Constitution limits his ultimate sovereign power; He is the Supreme Lord and Absolute Master of the Empire.' Yet the Emperor does not interfere in the actual administration of affairs; he reigns but he does not rule. The late Emperor [Meiji] took a deep personal interest in the affairs of state, but never showed the slightest desire to exercise 'personal rule.' It is, therefore, not difficult for an emperor, unless he is a man of strong personality, to be at the same time an 'absolute monarch' and an absolute figure-head. That was often the case in Old Japan; and it is not an impossibility even in New Japan. Uyehara affirms most positively that 'it is not the personality of the Emperor . . . upon which the strength and the value of the Japanese monarchy depend'; and he claims that it is 'the unique history and tradition of the imperial throne'; but we make bold to say, even in opposition to a Japanese, that the personality of the sovereign is of special importance. It is possible that, in general, the imperial personality weighs more than the individual personality. But in the case of the late Emperor, Meiji Tenno, his own personality, in the sense of his individuality, was no small element in the loyalty and patriotism of thousands of his subjects. . . . According to Ito's *Commentaries* the Privy Council is 'the highest body of the Emperor's constitutional advisors,' as well as 'the palladium of the Constitution and the law'; and its duty, according to the same authority, is 'to be perfectly loyal and straightforward in furnishing advice to the Emperor.' It is higher than the Cabinet, because its advice may be asked concerning the organization of a cabinet. Moreover, all the measures of a cabinet may be referred to it by the Emperor, either before they are presented to the Diet by the Cabinet, or after they have passed the Diet. The Privy Council is, therefore such an influential body that membership therein is accounted a very great honor. It must, however, be said with regret that occasionally the Privy Council has been found a convenient place in which to shelve a prominent man for whom some provision must be made. And the ministers of State who form the Cabinet have seats in the Privy Council *ex officio* and are just enough by themselves to constitute a quorum of ten members. The Privy Council has a voice in giving advice to the Imperial Family Council concerning such important matters as changing the order of succession to the throne and the selec-

tion of a regent in case the Emperor is a minor. And the Privy Council may be particularly consulted by the Emperor in case of a political crisis. While the Cabinet is 'a board of the chief executive officers,' the Privy Council is 'a deliberative body consisting of the chief legal advisors of the Sovereign.' Ito suggests that 'it will certainly prove an important piece of constitutional mechanism.' Indeed, the gradual evolution of the power of the Privy Council is a most noteworthy feature in the Japanese constitution. On the other hand, those who believe in popular institutions think that the Privy Council has 'usurped' power and that its authority must be limited by reforms in its official organization. . . .

"A body of men known as *Genro,* which is freely translated into English by the term 'Elder Statesmen,' must not be omitted from this discussion of 'Constitutional Imperialism.' As a matter of fact, they are not mentioned in the Constitution; they are an extra-constitutional body; but they outrank every constitutional body except the Emperor and the Privy Council. They are a survival of feudalism; they are relics of history. To be more literal, they are the survivors of the great band of men who accomplished the Restoration of 1868, and reconstructed Japan during the marvelous years of the Meiji era. They deserve the greatest credit for making New Japan what she now is; they were statesmen of the highest ability: but they are considered to have outlived their usefulness; they are an anachronism. . . . The Elder Statesmen have been the 'Warwicks of Japan,' not in the sense of being king-makers but in that of being cabinet-makers. In fact they have not only made, but also unmade, cabinets. They have been the power behind and before the throne. They have invariably been consulted, unofficially of course, by the Emperor in all great political crises. But it certainly looks as if the days of that 'august but obsolete' body are numbered. It is an open secret, that, while they recommend Count Okuma to the Emperor for the premiership in April, 1914, they did so, after the futile attempt to constitute a reactionary ministry under Viscount Kiyoura, merely because they found that they could no longer oppose the popular demand. Thus one result of the first quarter century of constitutionalism in Japan has been the almost complete elimination of this once strong extra-constitutional factor, which death will soon entirely eliminate. . . . It is interesting to note that the Cabinet has no official standing in the Constitution. 'Ministers of State' are merely mentioned and to that extent are recognized even in their official capacities; but the Cabinet as a body is not officially recognized. Of course, it may be taken for granted, that several ministers of State, of whom one is known as 'Prime Minister,' would form an organization, called a 'Ministry' or a 'Cabinet.' Thus, indirectly, the Cabinet, as a constitutional organ, is recognized. . . . The year 1898 witnessed an attempt, but a short-lived one, to establish a 'party cabinet' under Okuma and Itagaki. Next, even the conservative Yamagata followed the plan of an *entente cordiale* with the predominant party (Liberal) in the Lower House. In 1900-1901, an Ito ministry was another abortive attempt to establish a 'party cabinet' under the auspices of Ito's newly organized party (*Seiyukai*). Later Saionji and Yamamoto made more serious and more successful attempts to carry on the administration in close connection with the dominant party (*Seiyukai*) in the Lower House. Finally, on Christmas Day, 1914, Okuma dissolved the House of Representatives and appealed to a general election, by which he obtained a large majority to back up his Ministry, which is at once a personal and a party cabinet. The old-style 'transcendental cabinet' is no longer possible; a 'party cabinet' is demanded by public opinion and is another of the results of the first quarter century of constitutionalism. . . . From the point of view of constitutionalism, the Japanese Imperial Diet should be one of the most important organs. But at the outset, Americans and British must be warned not to expect an institution like either the American Congress or the British Parliament. The Japanese national assembly is rather like the German institution and is, therefore, generally called the 'Imperial Diet.' It is well known that German ideas of government were largely followed by Ito in drawing up the Japanese Constitution, because they seemed best fitted to Japanese Imperialism. The Japanese Imperial Diet is bicameral: it consists of a House of Peers (*Kizoku-in*) and a House of Representatives (*Shugi-in*). The House of Peers is composed of a varying number of members (about 375),—part hereditary, part elective, and part appointive. The hereditary members are the imperial princes and the princes and marquises. The elective members are those chosen from among the counts, viscounts, and barons, and the highest taxpayers of each prefecture. The appointive members are those who are nominated by the Emperor 'for meritorious services to the State and for erudition.' But the number of appointive members and of elective taxpayers 'shall not exceed the number of the members having the title of nobility.' The hereditary members and the appointive members enjoy a life tenure; while the elective members serve for a term of seven years. . . . The House of Representatives consists of 381 members. Any 'male Japanese subject who is not less than full thirty years of age shall be eligible for election,' except that certain persons laboring under mental or financial or civic disabilities can neither enjoy the franchise nor be eligible for election. Heads of noble families; men in the active service of the army or the navy; students; Shinto priests and ministers, priests and teachers of religion of all kinds; teachers of elementary schools; and certain Government officials and persons working for the Government under contract are likewise ineligible in either case. . . . Ordinary sessions of the Imperial Diet must be convoked every year; and they last for three months. This time limit, however, may be prolonged by Imperial Order in case of necessity. An extraordinary session may be convoked by Imperial Order, 'when urgent necessity arises'; and its duration 'shall be determined by Imperial Order.' In the case of the dissolution of the House of Representatives, a new election must be held at such a time as will enable the new House to be 'convoked within five months from the day of dissolution.' A quorum in either House consists of one-third of the whole number of members; and, without such quorum, 'no debate can be opened and no vote can be taken.' An 'absolute majority' is required for a decision in either House. The President has no vote, except in the case of a tie, when he has the deciding vote. . . . In a hard-fought contest with the House of Representatives in 1892, the House of Peers won for itself an imperial interpretation to the effect that it had the right to reinsert in the Budget items expunged by the House of Representatives, *i.e.*, that it had equal rights of amendment with the latter."—E. W. Clement, *Constitutional imperialism in Japan* (*Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science in city of New York,* 1915-1916).

ALSO IN: H. Sato, *Democracy and the Japanese government*.—R. Chauvelot, *Les Colonies insulaires du Japon* (*Review Mondiale, Sept,* 15, 1922).—U. Kobayashi, *War and armament loans of Japan* (*Carnegie endowment for international peace*).

The following is the text of the constitution promulgated by the emperor, February 11, 1889. The subject matter of the seven chapters is arranged as follows:

The emperor (Art. 1-17).
Rights and duties of subjects (Art. 18-32).
The Imperial Diet (Art. 33-54).
The ministers of state and the Privy Council (Art. 55, 56).
The judicial power (Art. 57-73).
Finance (Art. 62-72).
Supplementary rules (Art. 73-76).

CHAPTER I

Article I. The Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal.

Art. II. The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by Imperial male descendants, according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

Art. III. The Emperor is sacred and inviolable.

Art. IV. The Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in Himself the rights of sovereignty, and exercises them, according to the provisions of the present Constitution.

Art. V. The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet.

Art. VI. The Emperor gives sanction to laws, and orders them to be promulgated and executed.

Art. VII. The Emperor convokes the Imperial Diet, opens, closes, and prorogues it, and dissolves the House of Representatives.

Art. VIII. The Emperor, in consequence of an urgent necessity to maintain public safety or to avert public calamities, issues, when the Imperial Diet is not sitting, Imperial Ordinances in the place of law. Such Imperial Ordinances are to be laid before the Imperial Diet at its next session, and when the Diet does not approve the said Ordinances, the Government shall declare them to be invalid for the future.

Art. IX. The Emperor issues, or causes to be issued, the Ordinances necessary for the carrying out of the laws, or for the maintenance of the public peace and order, and for the promotion of the welfare of the subjects. But no Ordinance shall in any way alter any of the existing laws.

Art. X. The Emperor determines the organization of the different branches of the administration, and the salaries of all civil and military officers, and appoints and dismisses the same. Exceptions especially provided for in the present Constitution or in other laws, shall be in accordance with the respective provisions (bearing thereon).

Art. XI. The Emperor has the supreme command of the Army and Navy.

Art. XII. The Emperor determines the organization and peace standing of the Army and Navy.

Art. XIII. The Emperor declares war, makes peace, and concludes treaties.

Art. XIV. The Emperor proclaims the law of siege. The conditions and effects of the law of siege shall be determined by law.

Art. XV. The Emperor confers titles of nobility, rank, orders, and other marks of honor.

Art. XVI. The Emperor orders amnesty, pardon, commutation of punishment, and rehabilitation.

Art. XVII. A Regency shall be instituted in conformity with the provisions of the Imperial House Law. The Regent shall exercise the powers appertaining to the Emperor in His name.

CHAPTER II

Art. XVIII. The conditions necessary for being a Japanese subject shall be determined by law.

Art. XIX. Japanese subjects may, according to qualifications determined in law or ordinances, be appointed to civil or military offices equally, and may fill any other public offices.

Art. XX. Japanese subjects are amenable to service in the Army or Navy, according to the provisions of law.

Art. XXI. Japanese subjects are amenable to the duty of paying taxes, according to the provisions of law.

Art. XXII. Japanese subjects shall have the liberty of abode and of changing the same within the limits of law.

Art. XXIII. No Japanese subject shall be arrested, detained, tried, or punished, unless according to law.

Art. XXIV. No Japanese subject shall be deprived of his right of being tried by the judges determined by law.

Art. XXV. Except in the cases provided for in the law, the house of no Japanese subject shall be entered or searched without his consent.

Art. XXVI. Except in the cases mentioned in the law, the secrecy of the letters of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

Art. XXVII. The right of property of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate. Measures necessary to be taken for the public benefit shall be provided for by law.

Art. XXVIII. Japanese subjects shall, within limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief.

Art. XXIX. Japanese subjects shall, within the limits of law, enjoy the liberty of speech, writing, publication, public meetings, and associations.

Art. XXX. Japanese subjects may present petitions, by observing the proper forms of respect, and by complying with the rules specially provided for the same.

Art. XXXI. The provisions contained in the present Chapter shall not affect the exercise of the powers appertaining to the Emperor in times of war or in cases of a national emergency.

Art. XXXII. Each and every one of the provisions contained in the preceding Articles of the present Chapter, that are not in conflict with the laws or the rules and discipline of the Army and Navy, shall apply to the officers and men of the Army and of the Navy.

CHAPTER III

Art. XXXIII. The Imperial Diet shall consist of two Houses, a House of Peers and a House of Representatives.

Art. XXXIV. The House of Peers shall, in accordance with the Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, be composed of the members of the Imperial Family, of the orders of nobility, and of those persons who have been nominated thereto by the Emperor.

Art. XXXV. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members elected by the people according to the provisions of the Law of Election.

Art. XXXVI. No one can at one and the same time be a member of both Houses.

Art. XXXVII. Every law requires the consent of the Imperial Diet.

Art. XXXVIII. Both Houses shall vote upon projects of law submitted to it by the Government, and may respectively initiate projects of law.

Art. XXXIX. A Bill, which has been rejected by either the one or the other of the two Houses, shall not be again brought in during the same session.

Art. XL. Both Houses can make representations to the Government, as to laws or upon any other subject. When, however, such representations are not accepted, they cannot be made a second time during the same session.

Art. XLI. The Imperial Diet shall be convoked every year.

Art. XLII. A session of the Imperial Diet shall last during three months. In case of necessity, the duration of a session may be prolonged by Imperial Order.

Art. XLIII. When urgent necessity arises, an extraordinary session may be convoked, in addition to the ordinary one. The duration of an extraordinary session shall be determined by Imperial Order.

Art. XLIV. The opening, closing, prolongation of session, and prorogation of the Imperial Diet, shall be effected simultaneously for both Houses. In case the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, the House of Peers shall at the same time be prorogued.

Art. XLV. When the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, members shall be caused by Imperial Order to be newly elected, and the new House shall be convoked within five months from the day of dissolution.

Art. XLVI. No debate can be opened and no vote can be taken in either House of the Imperial Diet, unless not less than one-third of the whole number of the members thereof is present.

Art. XLVII. Votes shall be taken in both Houses by absolute majority. In the case of a tie vote, the President shall have the casting vote.

Art. XLVIII. The deliberations of both Houses shall be held in public. The deliberations may, however, upon demand of the Government or by resolution of the House, be held in secret sitting.

Art. XLIX. Both Houses of the Imperial Diet may respectively present addresses to the Emperor.

Art. L. Both Houses may receive petitions presented by subjects.

Art. LI. Both Houses may enact, besides what is provided for in the present Constitution and in the Law of the Houses, rules necessary for the management of their internal affairs.

Art. LII. No member of either House shall be held responsible outside the respective Houses, for any opinion uttered or for any vote given in the House. When, however, a member himself has given publicity to his opinions by public speech, by documents in printing or in writing, or by any other similar means, he shall, in the matter, be amenable to the general law.

Art. LIII. The members of both Houses shall, during the session, be free from arrest, unless with the consent of the House, except in cases of flagrant delicts, or of offences connected with a state of internal commotion or with a foreign trouble.

Art LIV. The Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government may, at any time, take seats and speak in either House.

Chapter IV

Art. LV. The respective Ministers of State shall give their advice to the Emperor, and be responsible for it. All Laws, Imperial Ordinances, and Imperial Rescripts of whatever kind, that relate to the affairs of the State, require the countersignature of a Minister of State.

Art. LVI. The Privy Council shall, in accordance with the provisions for the organization of the Privy Council, deliberate upon important matters of State, when they have been consulted by the Emperor.

Chapter V

Art. LVII. The Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor. The organization of the Courts of Law shall be determined by law.

Art. LVIII. The judges shall be appointed from among those who possess proper qualifications according to law. No judge shall be deprived of his position, unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment. Rules for disciplinary punishment shall be determined by law.

Art. LIX. Trials and judgments of a Court shall be conducted publicly. When, however, there exists any fear that such publicity may be prejudicial to peace and order, or to the maintenance of public morality, the public trial may be suspended by provision of law or by the decision of the Court of Law.

Art. LX. All matters that fall within the competency of a special Court shall be specially provided for by law.

Art. LXI. No suit at law, which relates to rights alleged to have been infringed by the legal measures or the executive authorities, and which shall come within the competency of the Court of Administrative Litigation specially established by law, shall be taken cognizance of by a Court of Law.

Chapter VI

Art. LXII. The imposition of a new tax or the modification of the rates (of an existing one) shall be determined by law. However, all such administrative fees or other revenue having the nature of compensation shall not fall within the category of the above clause. The raising of national loans and the contracting of other liabilities to the charge of the National Treasury, except those that are provided in the Budget, shall require the consent of the Imperial Diet.

Art. LXIII. The taxes levied at present shall, in so far as they are not remodelled by new law, be collected according to the old system.

Art. LXIV. The expenditure and revenue of the State require the consent of the Imperial Diet by means of an annual Budget. Any and all expenditures overpassing the appropriations set forth in the Titles and Paragraphs of the Budget, or that are not provided for in the Budget, shall subsequently require the approbation of the Imperial Diet.

Art. LXV. The Budget shall be first laid before the House of Representatives.

Art. LXVI. The expenditures of the Imperial House shall be defrayed every year out of the National Treasury, according to the present fixed amount for the same, and shall not require the consent thereto of the Imperial Diet, except in case an increase thereof is found necessary.

Art. LXVII. Those already fixed expenditures based by the Constitution upon the powers appertaining to the Emperor, and such expenditures as may have arisen by the effect of law, or that appertain to the legal obligations of the Government, shall be neither rejected nor reduced by

the Imperial Diet, without the concurrence of the Government.

Art. LXVIII. In order to meet special requirements, the Government may ask the consent of the Imperial Diet to a certain amount as a Continuing Expenditure Fund, for a previously fixed number of years.

Art. LXIX. In order to supply deficiencies which are unavoidable, in the Budget, and to meet requirements unprovided for in the same, a Reserve Fund shall be provided in the Budget.

Art. LXX. When the Imperial Diet cannot be convoked, owing to the external or internal condition of the country, in case of urgent need for the maintenance of public safety, the Government may take all necessary financial measures, by means of an Imperial Ordinance. In the case mentioned in the preceding clause, the matter shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet at its next session, and its approbation shall be obtained thereto.

Art. LXXI. When the Imperial Diet has not voted on the Budget, or when the Budget has not been brought into actual existence, the Government shall carry out the Budget of the preceding year.

Art. LXXII. The final account of the expenditures and revenue of the State shall be verified and confirmed by the Board of Audit, and it shall be submitted by the Government to the Imperial Diet, together with the report of verification of the said Board. The organization and competency of the Board of Audit shall be determined by law separately.

CHAPTER VII

Art. LXXIII. When it has become necessary in future to amend the provisions of the present Constitution, a project to that effect shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet by Imperial Order. In the above case, neither House can open the debate, unless not less than two-thirds of the whole number of members are present, and no amendment can be passed, unless a majority of not less than two-thirds of the members present is obtained.

Art. LXXIV. No modification of the Imperial House Law shall be required to be submitted to the deliberation of the Imperial Diet. No provision of the present Constitution can be modified by the Imperial House Law.

Art. LXXV. No modification can be introduced into the Constitution, or into the Imperial House Law, during the time of a Regency.

Art. LXXVI. Existing legal enactments, such as laws, regulations, ordinances or by whatever names they may be called, shall, so far as they do not conflict with the present Constitution, continue in force. All existing contracts or orders, that entail obligations upon the Government, and that are connected with expenditure shall come within the scope of Art. LXVII.

JAPANESE EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION. See CALIFORNIA: 1900-1920; IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Japanese emigration problem; Australia: 1909-1921; United States: 1862-1913; 1920-1921; Anti-Japanese law in California; JAPAN: 1905-1914; RACE PROBLEMS: 1903-1908; 1904-1909; 1904-1913; 1913-1921; U.S.A.: 1907-1917.

JAPANESE LITERATURE: 712-760.—Earliest works.—"From the earliest times Japanese poetry has been made up of alternate lines of 5 and 7 syllables. Down to the end of the Nara period (eighth century) comparatively long poems (naga-uta) were produced in this measure, with an extra seven-syllable line to mark the conclusion; but the form which subsequently became standard was the tanka, a five-line verse of 31 syllables, in lines of 5, 7, 5, 7, 7, constituting a complete poem. . . . In view of the limitations imposed by the shortness of the tanka, it is not surprising that Japanese poetry is suggestive rather than descriptive. But later, in the epigrams (hokku or haikai), consisting of only 17 syllables in three lines of 5, 7, 5, brevity was pushed still further, and conciseness frequently verged on obscurity."—R. P. Porter, *Japan, pp.* 328-329.—"We hear of one or two Japanese books as having been composed in the seventh century of the Christian era, shortly after the spread of a knowledge of the Chinese ideographs in Japan had rendered a written literature possible. The earliest work, however, that has come down to us is the *Kojiki,* or 'Record of Ancient Matters,' dating from the year 712. This has sometimes been called the Bible of the Japanese, because it contains the mythology and earliest history of the nation; but it gives no moral or religious precepts. It was followed in A.D. 720 by the *Nihongi,* or 'Chronicles of Japan,' a more pretentious work written in Chinese, the Latin of that age and country. In about A.D. 760 came the *Man-yoshu,* or 'Collection of a Myriad Leaves.' It is an anthology of the most ancient poems of the language, and is invaluable as a repertory of facts and allusions interesting to the philologist, the archæologist, and the historian. Its poetical merit is also rated very high by the orthodox native critics, who are unacquainted with any literature but their own, unless it be the Chinese. From that time forward the literary stream has never ceased. It has flowed in a double channel,—that of books in the native language, and that of books written in Classical Chinese. Chinese has been generally preferred for grave subjects,—law, for instance, and history; Japanese for poetry, romance, and other branches of *belles-lettres.*"—B. H. Chamberlin, *Things Japanese, pp.* 284-285.

794-1868.—Development during the Middle Ages and the Tokugawa period.—"The second period dates from the foundation in 794 of Kioto as the capital of the Empire, and is called, from the original name of Kioto (Heianjo, the 'Castle of Peace'), the Heian Period. It lasted until Kiyomori made himself master of the Empire, and reduced the Imperial court to political insignificance in the last quarter of the twelfth century. During all the intervening period the court and capital were the centres of all the culture and refinement of the Empire and, while outside their limits war and disorder were constant, within them the courtiers in peace, ease and luxury, devoted themselves to art and literature and pursued the learning which had taken its first rise at Nara. Poetry was so much in vogue among them that there was a special Department of Poetry in the court, and by its members a second anthology of poems, called the Kokinshu, 'Ancient and Modern Poems,' was compiled by order of the Emperor Daigo (898-931), containing all the best poems composed subsequent to the compilation of the Manyoshu. While the Chinese language, the study and use of which had become the highest accomplishment of an educated gentleman, even more so than was that of Latin in our own Middle Ages, was used for the composition of serious works, of which there were a large number, especially on history and theology, there were other prose works which, like the poems, were composed in the Japanese language in its own native purity as it was spoken at the court—the Yamato Kouba (or language of Yamato) it is called—and which have survived to the present day, and retained their

reputation as being among the foremost literary masterpieces in the whole range of Japanese literature. The two most prominent are the Genji Monogatari [c. 1004], or 'Story of Genji,' a realistic novel, called from the name of its hero, Genji, in which court life is very vividly described, and the Makura Koshi [Makura no Zoshi], or 'Pillow Sketches,' which is a collection of the thoughts and descriptions of the daily incidents of life of a court lady of the period, the whole forming a miscellany of information of a very varied nature. Both were the work of women, and both in the Nara and Heian Epochs, it was by women that the greatest mark on the national literature was made to a degree which, according to Dr. Aston, 'is unexampled in the literary history of any other country in the world.' . . . There was abundant literature of another sort while the Tokugawas were in power [1603-1867]. There were, among hundreds whose names are only known to the esoteric student, two great dramatic writers, Chikamatsu [1623-1724] and Idzumo, whose works are still as popular on the stage as those of Shakespeare and Goldsmith are with ourselves, and a swarm of novelists whose headquarters were at Yedo, the centre during the Tokugawa period, of all that was luxurious in the national life. Many of their works are full of humour, many of them give vivid and realistic descriptions of the life of their time, and they include both the historic and romantic novel. . . . At the opposite pole from this form of literature was another—the Otogi-banashi [17th century]—so different in its tone that it is difficult to believe that the two gained wide popularity among the same people of the same generation. Otogi has two meanings: (1) a paid companion whose duty it is to amuse his or her employer in the hours of boredom, and (2) the friends who take part in the gathering that watch the death-chamber throughout the night after death has taken place. Hanashi, converted for euphony into Banashi when yoked with another word, means simply talk, and the combination of the two words, stories told by the companion or watchers on the occasions mentioned. The term was used to describe a series of fairy tales whose form may suggest that they were intended for children but which, all the same, are not unattractive reading for adults. They are as free from all offensive elements as the current fiction was full of them, as charmingly naïve as they are humorous and graceful, and they are written in the purest and simplest language as unadulterated by imported Chinese vocables as was that of Murasaki no Shikibu herself [author of Genji Monogatari]." —J. H. Longford, *Japan of the Japanese, pp.* 138-139, 148-149.

1868-1921.—Development under Occidental influence.—"Original work in literature was violently arrested by the Restoration of 1867 and by the simultaneous inrush of exotic ideas. Thus for about fifteen years most literary men of influence were occupied with the task of translating and explaining. . . . By 1885 a generation was growing up, which attained the position not only of reading, but also of assimilating European literature. In that year Professor Tsubouchi issued his much-discussed *Principles of Fiction,* a manifesto as important in its way as Hugo's trumpet-call to young France in the Preface to *Hernani.* The period of absorption had passed; it was time to create. Moreover, a counter-movement towards national ideas was setting in. The old-fashioned romance must be superseded by the novel, with the definite aim of portraying Japanese life in its essential truth. As models were recommended the works of Samba and Shunsui, realistic observers of Yedo society between 1810 and 1830, while the professor himself, to illustrate his principles, published *Shosei Katagi* ('Sketches of Student Life'), which speedily bore fruit. An association was formed of Friends of the Ink Slab (Ken-yu-sha), and a magazine appeared, the *Garakuta Bunko,* in which, after the manner of Paris, a literary coterie shouted its war-cry and hoisted its flag. . . . It may be remarked in passing, that the influence of Lafcadio Hearn (1850-1904) does not seem to have played any part in shaping the form of Japanese literature, though his lectures on art and poetry broke down many barriers which prevent one hemisphere from sharing the sensibilities of the other, and the publication of his lectures on literature is a monument to his powers of analysis and to the devoted attention of the pupils who collected them. . . . Poetry has been as radically affected as prose by the study of Western models, but in an opposite way. Whereas the story-teller had to compress and concentrate for the purpose of presenting his matter within more artistic compass, the verse-maker strove to lengthen and elaborate a train of thought or feeling by means of linked stanzas. This, of course, is contrary to the traditions for many centuries of Japanese verse. As Lafcadio Hearn in more than one sensitive interpretation has pointed out, both the aristocratic tanka of thirty-one syllables and the agile hokku of seventeen have been polished into perfect instruments of nearly national use. It is not for a foreigner to balance the merits of the new verse against the old. The movement dates from 1882. In that year a collection of nineteen poems of which fifteen were translation and four original, was issued under the title of *Shintaishi Sho* ('New Style Poems'), by Professors Toyama, Inouye, and Yatabe. Tennyson's 'Charge of the Light Brigade,' Bloomfield's 'Soldier's Return,' Gray's 'Elegy,' and Longfellow's 'Psalm of Life' were the best-known gems, while an original 'Ode to the Seasons,' Verses to the Daibutsu of Kamakura,' and a 'War-Song,' displayed more good intention than good craftsmanship. The stanzas were in lines of five and seven syllables alternately, but in colloquial phrases without ornamentation. The choice of military and religious themes excited remark. Some years later, Dr. 'Ogai' Mori bound together under the title of Omokage ('Fancy' or 'Children of Imagination') selected poems of Goethe, Heine, and Byron. He even attempted rhyme and lines of ten syllables, which were not thought effective. Native poetry of the new school may really be said to have begun in 1895, when the Imperial Literature Magazine was brought out by members of Tokyo University. In 1900 Tekkan started a monthly magazine called Venus, which lived for seven years, and formed a rallying-point for such writers as Ariake Kambare, whose literary god was Rossetti, and Kyukin, who professed allegiance to Keats. His wife, Akiko, wrote some beautiful poems, usually in the old metres, which won high praise. Probably the boldest and finest innovator, whether in subject or style, is Mr. Tsuchii Bansui. By welding a five-syllabled and seven-syllabled line into one he forged a species of alexandrine, which had a familiar rhythm to the ears of his compatriots and lent itself to the structure of sustained narrative. Ambitious rivals have since gone to greater lengths. Mr. Homei, for instance, wrote an epic in 360 lines on Hideyoshi, the great Taiko, and an unfinished Lady of Naruto (too closely akin to Scott's Lady of the Lake) in 3,000 lines, but by general admission Tsuchii

Bansui holds the first place among poets of constructive imagination. It certainly needed a poet of much patience to complete such a faithful prose version as he published of Carlyle's Sartor Resartus. On the other hand, by the use of Chinese words and expressions, by reviving the lost art of suggestion, and by the choice of serious subjects, a group of poets, whose 'organ' was the Hototogisu ('The Nightingale'), aimed at restoring prestige to the once famous seventeen-syllabled hokku. Such are glimpses of the forces at work on the transformation of Japanese poetry—on the one hand, hints caught and eagerly followed from whatever language the poet knew best after his own; on the other, attempts to preserve old forms, while striking off conventional fetters. It is too early to pronounce what results and reputations will survive from the swiftly changing fashions." —R. P. Porter, *Japan, pp.* 334-336, 338-341.

JAPHETIC FAMILY. See ARYANS: Meaning of term.

JAQUES-GILMORE PEACE MISSION. See U. S. A.: 1864 (July).

JARGEAU, town in France, about ten miles southeast of Orléans, captured by Joan of Arc in 1429. See FRANCE: 1429-1431.

JARL, Birger, reputed founder of Stockholm about 1255. See STOCKHOLM.

JARL, early Scandinavian title, fore-runner of the English "earl." See ÆTHEL; EARL; ORKNEY ISLANDS; NORMANS: 8th-9th centuries: Island empire, etc.

JARNAC, Battle of (1569). See FRANCE: 1563-1570.

JAROSLAV, fortified city in Galicia, now a part of Poland, seventeen miles north of Przemysl. In 1914 it was captured from the Austrians, and in 1915 retaken by the Austro-Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: f, 1.

JASON, Greek legendary hero. He is best known as the leader of the Argonautic expedition in search of the Golden Fleece.

JASPER, William (c. 1750-1779), American soldier. See U.S.A.: 1776 (June): British repulsed at Charlestown.

JASSY, city in Rumania and ancient capital of Moldavia, about two hundred miles north of Bucharest. See BALKAN STATES: Map.

1739.—Captured by Russians. See RUSSIA: 1734-1740.

1792.—Treaty of. See TURKEY: 1776-1792.

1916.—Seat of government.—The Rumanians removed their government to Jassy when the country was invaded by the Austro-German armies during the World War.

JASZI, Oskar, Hungarian revolutionist. See HUNGARY: 1918 (November); 1918: End of the World War.

JATTS, Jauts, or Zott, name by which the gypsies were known to the Arabs. See GYPSIES.

JAUF ED DERWISH, station on the Hedjaz railroad, Arabia, thirty-eight miles north of Maan. Raided by Arabs in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theatre: c, 4.

JAUNDE, town in the Cameroons, occupied by the British in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: c, 3; c, 6.

JAURÈS, Jean Léon (1859-1914), French socialist. Elected to Chamber of Deputies, 1885; held important posts in several cabinets; editor and part author of a socialist history of France since 1889; leader of the anti-war groups in the European socialist and labor movements; assassinated by a French nationalist, July 31, 1914. See FRANCE: 1914 (August-September); SOCIALISM: 1904-1921.

JAVA: Geography. — Area. — Population. — "Java is the second in the chain of large islands that stretch out from the Malay peninsula toward Australia. In its greatest extent its length is over one thousand kilometres, a distance nearly equal to that from New York to Louisville or Charleston, or, in the Old World, from Paris to Vienna. The breadth of the island, however, is in no place over one-fifth of the length, so that the total area (including some small neighboring islands) is only about fifty thousand square miles, almost exactly the same as that of England, or a little more than that of the State of New York. Java is much smaller than some others of the Dutch East India islands [see BRITISH EMPIRE: Map of the world], . . . [but] the first of them in economic and political importance. . . . It is said to contain more volcanoes, active and extinct, than any other district of equal extent."—C. Day, *Policy and administration of the Dutch in Java, pp.* 1-2.—See also MALAY ARCHIPELAGO: Land.— Batavia, the capital of Java and of the Dutch East India possessions, was founded by the Dutch in 1619. The estimated population of Java and Madura, 1920, was 35,017,204.

Resources.—"The superiority in wealth and population that Java possesses over the other territories of the Dutch in the East Indies can be ascribed . . . to the remarkable fertility of the island due to its geological constitution. . . . The substances thrown out from the volcanoes are spread over the whole island, obscuring in most places the original rocks, and forming a soil of exceptional productiveness. The climate is favorable. There is scarcely any variation in the mean temperature from month to month, and the rainfall is heavy and sure. . . . The combination of soil and climate has gained for it the title of 'the garden of the East,' and has made its vegetation the type of tropical luxuriance."—C. Day, *Policy and administration of the Dutch in Java, p.* 7.— About forty per cent of the soil is under cultivation. The chief products are rice, sugar, coffee, tea, cinchona, cocoa, tobacco, indigo, and pepper. The island has limited mineral resources. Coal is found in many places but in thin strata. The discovery of petroleum, 1863, added an important industry to the list of resources.

Government.—"The government of Dutch India may be divided into three parts, each part with peculiar functions corresponding to its distinct geographical position. The home government at The Hague is concerned especially with legislation. The central colonial government at Batavia combines the functions of legislation and administration: it receives the general rules which have been formulated in the Netherlands, elaborates them, and transmits them to the places where they are to be carried into practical effect. The officials of the provincial and local administration, finally, scattered throughout the Malay Archipelago, make realities of the rules by applying them to the concrete questions with which they are confronted. The power of legislation was, in the early part of the nineteenth century, conceded almost without restriction to the Governor General. Some part of that power is still retained by him, but most of it has passed to the government at home, where it is exercised by two distinct authorities, the Dutch legislature (the two Chambers and the king) and the king alone, acting through his minister. At one time the king was the only source of colonial legislation in the Netherlands, and in spite of the great gain in power by the State General in the latter half of the century, the king's minister is still the most influential organ

of colonial government. The minister owes, of course, a parliamentary responsibility to the Chambers for anything that is done or left undone in the colonies. In ordinary times, however, the Chambers seem to make but slight use of this opportunity to control the course of colonial policy. The Chambers exercise a more direct influence in certain matters of legislation expressly reserved for their consideration. Most of the important laws, however, are established by the mere fiat of the minister of the colonies, and with every allowance for checks upon his action he must be regarded as the most important source of colonial policy. Aside from his power of legislation he appoints the colonial officials and has other executive functions."—C. Day, *Policy and administration of the Dutch in Java, pp.* 409-411.—"The mode of government now adopted in Java is to retain the whole series of native rulers, from the village chief up to princes, who, under the name of Regents, are the heads of districts about the size of a small English county. With each Regent is placed a Dutch Resident, or Assistant Resident, who is considered to be his 'elder brother' and whose 'orders' take the form of 'recommendations,' which are however implicitly obeyed. Along with each Assistant Resident is a Controller, a kind of inspector of all the lower native rulers, who periodically visits every village in the district, examines the proceedings of the native courts, hears complaints against the head-men or other native chiefs, and superintends the Government plantations. This brings us to the 'culture system.' . . . [Under this system, introduced by General Johannes Graaf Van der Bosch in 1832, Java was formerly administered politically and socially. The "culture system" which was the opposite of free trade was the object of severe criticism, and no longer exists.] To understand its uses and beneficial effects, it is necessary first to sketch the common results of free European trade with uncivilized peoples. Natives of tropical climates have few wants, and, when these are supplied, are disinclined to work for superfluities without some strong incitement. . . . The free competition of European traders . . . introduces two powerful inducements to exertion. Spirits or opium is a temptation too strong for most savages to resist, and to obtain these he will sell whatever he has, and will work to get more. Another temptation he cannot resist is goods on credit. . . . The consequence is that he accumulates debt upon debt, and often remains for years or for life a debtor, and almost a slave. This is a state of things which . . . extends trade no doubt for a time, but it demoralizes the native, checks true civilization, and does not lead to any permanent increase in the wealth of the country. . . . The system introduced by the Dutch was to induce the people, through their chiefs, to give a portion of their time to the cultivation of coffee, sugar, and other valuable products. A fixed rate of wages—low indeed, but about equal to that of all places where European competition has not artificially raised it—was paid to the laborers engaged in clearing the ground and forming the plantations under Government superintendence. The product is sold to the Government at a low fixed price. Out of the net profits a percentage goes to the chiefs, and the remainder is divided among the workmen. This surplus in good years is something considerable. On the whole, the people are well fed and decently clothed, and have acquired habits of steady industry and the art of scientific cultivation, which must be of service to them in the future. It must be remembered that the Government expended capital for years before any return was obtained; and if they now derive a large revenue it is in a way which is far less burdensome, and far more beneficial to the people than any tax that could be levied. But although the system may be a good one, . . . it is not pretended that in practice it is perfectly carried out. The oppressive and servile relations between chiefs and people which have continued for perhaps a thousand years can not be at once abolished, and some evil must result from those relations till the spread of education and the gradual infusion of European blood causes it naturally and insensibly to disappear. It is said that the Residents, desirous of showing a large increase in the products of their districts, have sometimes pressed the people to such continued labor on the plantations that their rice crops have been materially diminished, and famine has been the result. If this has happened, it is certainly not a common thing. . . . It is universally admitted that when a country increases rapidly in population, the people can not be very greatly oppressed or very badly governed. The system of raising a revenue by the cultivation of coffee and sugar, sold to Government at a fixed price, began in 1832."—A. R. Wallace, *Malay archipelago, ch.* 7.—See also MALAY ARCHIPELAGO.

Aborigines.—"The present people of Java owe their origin in the main to the same stock from which Sumatra, Borneo, and most of the islands to the south of the Malay Peninsula were at an early date populated. This stock was probably a Tartar one, if we accept the general opinion. Doubtful, however, as this question must remain, one thing is quite certain, namely, that the elements which have tended to modify and alter this original stock are Egyptian, Hindu, Kling, Tartar, Arabian, and Chinese, which there appears to be ample proof were introduced at one time or another into the archipelago."—D. Maclaine Campbell, *Java: Past and present, v.* 1, *p.* 14.—See also MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN RACE.

Early history before the Dutch conquest.—"In the first century A.D. occurred the invasion from continental India that forms the commencement of the Hindu period in Javanese history. This period lasts until about the beginning of the fifteenth century. Authorities differ in their estimates of the influence that the invading Hindus exercised over the Malays, and it may be, as some suggest, that the Hindus continued and developed the Malay organization rather than that they changed it in its essentials. Whatever the judgment on this point may be, and however few original contributions may be ascribed to the Hindus, it is certain that the eastern and central parts of Java, in which the Hindu monuments are mainly found, have nowadays a population differing radically in character, customs, and language from the inhabitants of the western end of the island. The main point of contrast that interests us here is that of political character and institutions. The Soendanese of Western Java show far more personal independence than the Javanese proper to the east of them, whose meekness under political control amounts to servility, and whose rights in such an important matter as land tenure are so small as to put their possessions entirely at the mercy of their rulers. The character and institutions of the Javanese proper can be explained only by the assumption that the people had been subjected for many centuries to a government developed far beyond the stage of the old tribal system. The indication here given that a settled and advanced form of government existed in the Hindu period is confirmed by all the contemporary his-

torical evidence. Marco Polo and Friar Odoric speak of the government of Java as a monarchy, and reaching far back beyond their time Chinese accounts give the same impression. One of these of the period of the T'ang dynasty (618-906) speaks of a king of Java, whose supremacy was recognized by twenty-eight small countries lying about his capital; an account from the period of the Sung dynasty (960-1279), described a state which maintained an army of thirty thousand men and had a highly organized administration, with more than a thousand officials employed in the different departments. Testimony from native sources is all to the same effect. If all other evidence were lacking, it would be possible to conclude from the great temples of the Hindu period, like Boro-Boedoer, that the mass of the people had already learned to submit to the control coming from some single source of authority. Native inscriptions do exist, however, generally in the form of a grant by the prince to some individual of land, office, or special privileges; these documents show that in the Hindu period in Java the central government had at least as much power as it had in mediæval Europe. In the latter part of the fourteenth century the Hindu empire of Madjapahit extended not only over Java proper but over Soenda as well, and exercised some kind of overlordship over parts of Malakka, Sumatra, Borneo, and other islands in the archipelago."—C. Day, *Policy and administration of the Dutch in Java, pp.* 7-9.—"But already the Moslems disputed the domination of Java with the Hindu dynasties. In 1478 they destroyed the capital of the empire of Modjo-Pahit, situated not far from the existing town of Soerabaja, and, during the next two or three generations, they extinguished the smaller Hindu principalities. But these conquerors were soon overcome by others. If the Portuguese, not strong enough to subjugate the country, confined themselves to the founding of some factories on the coast, and to taking part as adventurers in the intestine wars of Java, the Dutch, who appeared in 1596, soon felt able to establish themselves as masters on the soil. In 1619 they founded the fort of Batavia, center of a domination which has since been extended from point to point over the whole island and over the Indonesian archipelago. Though local insurrections have occurred, and one war (1825-30) has even shaken the Dutch power, yet we may say that, on the whole, the Javanese are unequalled for obedience and resignation."—E. Reclus, *Nouvelle geographie universelle, v.* 14, *pp.* 359-360 (tr. from the French.)—See also NETHERLANDS: 1594-1620.

1623-1811.—Growth of Dutch power.—"A certain lust of conquest on the part of her rulers, but mainly the desire for the commercial gain to be won from directly tapping the sources of the fabulous riches of India, were the reasons why Portugal sought a passage by sea to the East. The English, in following this example, although no doubt actuated by their independent spirit and desirous of a direct trade with India in preference to having to import their goods through the medium of a foreign power, not always friendly, were unquestionably more influenced by the opportunity that offered for making profits than by the likelihood or desire of establishing colonies. The objects of the Dutch, however, were openly shown, and it is quite clear that their one wish was to engross and monopolise the trade of the Spice Islands. Therefore, however much their political spirit in the East Indies at the present day may be admired, and themselves counted as the only great colonising nation besides ourselves in the world, it has always to be remembered that, as in the case of the English East India Company, the Dutch East India Company was created wholly and solely with the object of commercial profit, though from this arose afterwards, as a natural sequence, the desire for, or, indeed, the necessity of, territorial aggrandisement. The result was therefore that both Companies found themselves, sometimes, perhaps, almost against their wills, getting possession of an ever-increasing Eastern empire, and that from being merely traders they gradually came to be practically ruling powers. . . . By 1646 they [the Dutch] had successfully concluded written treaties with all the sovereigns in Java, and on the 24th September, 1646, signed one at Batavia with the susúhúnan, one of its clauses being that the Dutch should send him a yearly ambassador to inform him of the nature of all the curiosities that had arrived from Europe, and further that all priests or other persons whom the susúhúnan might be desirous of sending to foreign countries should be conveyed thither in the Company's ships. It was also agreed at the same time that all persons who should desert to either country for the purpose of avoiding their debts should be given up, and that the Company and the susúhúnan should assist each other against their common enemies; also that the vessels of the susúhúnan's subjects should be allowed to trade to all places under the Company's authority except Amboyna, Banda, and Ternate, and that those bound to Malacca or places northward of that settlement should be obliged to touch at Batavia and to apply to the Dutch for passes. During 1652 the Sultan of Bantam, who for many years had been carrying on a desultory war with the Dutch, attacked Batavia with sixty thousand men. . . . On the 10th July, 1659, the Dutch managed to conclude a treaty with the Sultan of Bantam, through the mediation of the ambassadors of the *Pangéran* of Jambi, in which it was stipulated that all prisoners of war and deserters should be restored by either side, and that the Dutch should as heretofore have a permanent residence at Bantam. . . . On the 19th October, 1677, a new treaty was also made with the susúhúnan, by which the Dutch secured the monopoly of all the trade in the *Matárem* provinces. . . . In the same year (1677) trouble again arose at Bantam. The old sultan, feeling the advance of years, invited his son to share his regal power and help him rule his kingdom. This measure was attended by the inevitable results. Jealousy arose between father and son, which very soon became an open hostility. The policy of the Dutch led them to take an active part in favour of the young sultan, who had inclined most towards their interests and now solicited their aid. In return for this he was willing to give them special advantages. . . . On the 28th March, 1682, the trouble between the two sultans, which had been smouldering, broke out afresh, and the Dutch decided on landing a considerable force from Batavia, which soon put an end to the war. This done, they placed the young sultan on the throne, delivering his aged father into his custody, and thereby obtained from him the exclusive privilege for all the trade in his territories. . . . This treaty [the Bantam] naturally carried with it the extinction of the English factory at Bantam. The factory was taken formal possession of on the 1st April, 1682, by a party of Dutch and native soldiers. . . . The loss of Bantam was the final blow to the English East India Company in Java. [See EAST INDIA COMPANY, BRITISH.] The Dutchmen had stood up boldly

SCULPTURED WALL OF THE BOROBUDUR TEMPLE, JAVA
Built during the 8th or 9th century

against them and had shown themselves hard to beat down. The English Company, despite, however, all its manifold troubles and vicissitudes, had lasted no less than eighty years in the Island. . . . Several years before the departure of the English from Bantam a Celebes chief, with all the desperadoes he could gather, landed at *Bésuki* and soon collected a following of similar rascals, with whom he committed great depredations. At the same time *Trúna Jaya,* who was a nephew of the *Adipáte* of Madura, declared the independence of Madura, freeing that country from the hated rule of *Matárem.* An army sent against the Macassars from *Matárem* was repulsed, and the provinces of *Pasuruan, Probolingo, Wirasaba* and *Japara* submitted to the new rule. In this predicament the *susúhúnan,* finding himself unequal to dislodging the Macassar establishment, or to reducing the Madurese to submission, solicited the aid of the Dutch. A second Javan army was at once

prepared and directed to assemble at Japara and to procure the assistance of all the white people who had factories there, Dutch, French, English, and Portuguese. . . . The Dutch sent four ships and some smaller vessels with soldiers, which were reinforced at Japara by the susúhúnan's troops and vessels. . . . An attack was then made on the enemy's works, and in a few days they were demolished, the enemy dispersed, and numerous prisoners taken. . . . Those that escaped joined *Trúna Jaya:* and the latter, feeling himself now strong enough, crossed over to the mainland and took possession of *Surabáyá.* The Dutch were again asked for their assistance, and Admiral Speelman was despatched from Batavia with a strong land and sea force. . . . The siege lasted nearly two months, and the town was at last taken by assault. . . . The Dutch could now demand what they wished. . . . A new treaty was concluded and the district actually under Dutch jurisdiction was extended to the Krawang river, whilst all their goods were to be free everywhere in Java from export and import duty; further, they might build factories or forts any where they pleased. . . . In 1700 the first war of succession began, and the assistance of the Dutch was again asked for by one of the heirs. This was another opportunity for political advantage which the Dutch did not lose sight of, and therefore before granting any aid they explicitly stated their requirements. These were:—That all the seaports from Krawang to the eastern extremity of the island, and the whole of the revenues of these places, including all the rice, be delivered to the State in diminution of the *susúhúnan's* debt. That the whole of the kingdom of Jacatra be likewise permanently ceded to them. That the sugar trade of Japara be placed entirely in the hands of the Dutch, together with the sole management of the town of *Semarang* and the village of *Kaligawi,* with the proviso, however, that the revenues collected were for account of the *susúhúnan.* As, however, his Highness was always in debt to the Dutch, the revenues were kept in diminution thereof. The claimant *Pangéran Púger* . . . was publicly installed at *Semarang* on the 19th June, 1704, and he was shortly afterwards required to sign fresh deeds and treaties by which the Dutch were more or less confirmed as the overlords of the island. *Oenarang* and *Salatiga* were unfortified, and the troops of the would-be *susúhúnan* were disbanded. The district of *Gebáng* and all the territory between the river *Donán* and *Pasúran* was ceded to the Dutch by a treaty of the 5th October, 1705. They now held at last all the ports of the island in their possession, collecting their revenues and regulating their trade."—D. M. Campbell, *Java: Past and present, v.* 1, *pp.* 230, 233-240.

1795-1816.—Attempts of the English.—Temporary British rule.—Return to the Dutch.—"Toward the close of the eighteenth century the English had intruded more and more in the commerce of the Dutch islands: their smuggling increased, and they obtained concessions to trade from the Dutch government. Dutch officials felt that the English would attempt to make up for the loss of the American possessions by extension in the East, and opportunities to effect this extension in legal form were offered by the political changes of the Napoleonic period in Europe. When William V. fled from the Netherlands in 1795, he commissioned the English to occupy the Dutch colonies for him, and most of the Dutch possessions in the East came under the British flag soon afterward. Batavia was blockaded by an English squadron in 1800, and Java was saved from conquest at that time probably only by the diversion of the Egyptian expedition. Twice in the period 1803-1811 an English fleet appeared off the island and made hostile demonstrations, and in October, 1811, the conquest which had so long impended actually occurred. Java was in no condition to offer serious opposition to the English arms. Daendels had made some improvements of military value in the construction of roads, forts and harbors, but he had roused such opposition by his arbitrary measures that the government was seriously disorganized, and he left it with both treasury and army pitifully weak. His successor, Janssens, had only a *'soi-disant armée,'* as he said, in which there were scarcely more than a hundred troops. Most of his officers were half-breeds, and the body of the troops was composed of natives serving under compulsion, who were totally unreliable."—C. Day, *Policy and administration of the Dutch in Java, p.* 164.—"Even the Java expedition itself has largely faded from latter-day memory. The British force, it may be recalled here, landed near Batavia on August 4, 1811, and gained a decisive victory over the local forces, led by General Janssens, at Cornelis, on August 26. Thereafter the entire island came under British domination, and with Stamford Raffles as its Lieut.-Governor was ruled as a British possession until 1816, when it was handed back to Holland in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of Vienna. [See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.] These four years of Raffles's official life were of the highest interest; . . . he left an indelible impress on the land system of the island, and in other ways made the period of the British occupation memorable in Javan annals."—A. Wright and T. H. Reid, *Malay peninsula, p.* 102.

1825-1920.—Five years of war.—Later attempts at rebellion.—Increase of Dutch authority.—"The last serious hostilities in Java broke out in 1825, when Dipo Negoro [or Dipa Negara] claimed the entire island. The rebellion was subdued at the cost of five years of warfare and the loss of fifteen thousand men. When at length the island was pacified the hold of the Dutch was firmer than ever. There were further attempts at revolt, when the Mahomedan priests sought to persuade the people that Dipo Negoro had returned, or was still alive. The most serious attempt was in 1849, when the exile was in Macassar. He died in 1855, and the last rebellion was in 1888. These revolts have resulted in the entire loss of local independence. In 1848 sweeping reforms were introduced by the *Grondwet,* or Fundamental Law; and during the last sixty years the Government has grown more and more paternal, humane, and enlightened, until it is now an example to other nations."—A. Cabaton, *Java, Sumatra, and the other islands of the Dutch East Indies, p.* 21.

1872.—War with the Dutch. See NETHERLANDS: 1849-1890.

1919.—Railroads. See RAILROADS: 1919: Dutch East Indies.

ALSO IN: D. M. Campbell, *Java: Past and present.*—M. McMillan, *Journey to Java.*—T. S. Raffles, *History of Java.*—A. S. Walcott, *Java and her neighbors.*—J. Brown, *The Dutch East.*

JAVAN, Hebrew form of the Greek race-name Ionian.

JAVE LA GRANDE, early name for Australia. See AUSTRALIA: 1601-1800.

JAXARTES, ancient name of the river Sir, or Sihun, which flows into the Sea of Aral.

JAY, John (1745-1829), American statesman and jurist. Member of New York Committee of Cor-

respondence during the Revolution; member of First Continental Congress, 1774; and of Second Continental Congress, 1776; minister to Spain, 1780-1782; commissioner to negotiate treaty of peace with England, 1782-1783, 1794; secretary of foreign affairs, 1784-1789; member of New York Convention, 1788; chief justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1789-1795; governor of New York, 1795-1801.

Opposition to tea tax.—At First Continental Congress.—Views on independence. See New York: 1773-1774; U.S.A.: 1774 (September); 1775 (January-April).

Chairman of committee to draft New York constitution. See New York: 1777.

Mission to Spain concerning navigation of the Mississippi.—Secretary of foreign affairs. See Louisiana: 1785-1800, State Department of the United States: 1774-1789.

Distrust of French aims in America. See U.S.A.: 1782 (September-November).

Negotiation of treaty of peace with England.—Treaty disputed. See U.S.A.: 1782 (September); 1784-1788.

Ratification of the Federal Constitution. See U.S.A.: 1787-1789.

Connection with first cabinet. See State Department of the United States: 1789; 1790-1909; U.S.A.: 1789-1792.

First chief justice of United States Supreme Court. See Supreme Court: 1789-1835; Common law: 1794.

Negotiation of Jay Treaty. See U.S.A.: 1793-1795; Arbitration, International: Modern: 1794.

JAYHAWKERS AND RED LEGS.—"During the conflict of 1854-1859 in Kansas, certain "free-state men in the Southeast, comparatively isolated, having little communication with [the town of] Lawrence, and consequently almost wholly without check, developed a successful if not very praiseworthy system of retaliation. Confederated at first for defense against pro-slavery outrages, but ultimately falling more or less completely into the vocation of robbers and assassins, they have received the name—whatever its origin may be—of jayhawkers."—L. W. Spring, *Kansas, p.* 240. —"The complaints in former years of Border Ruffian forays from Missouri into Kansas [see Kansas: 1854-1859], were, as soon as the civil war began, paid with interest by a continual accusation of incursions of Kansas 'Jayhawkers' and 'Red Legs' into Missouri."—J. G. Nicolay and J. Hay, *Abraham Lincoln, v.* 6, *p.* 370.

JAYME. See James.

JAZYGES, or **Iazyges,** early Sarmatian tribe. See Limigantes.

JEAN. See John.

JEANES, Anna T. (1822-1907), American philanthropist. See Jeanes Foundation.

JEANES FOUNDATION.—"The Anna T. Jeanes Foundation, organized for the purpose of administering a fund of $1,000,000 [was] given by Miss Anna T. Jeanes, a Philadelphia Quakeress, for fostering negro rural schools. The board of trustees was formally organized in February, 1908. In his first statement to the board of trustees, under date of June 1, 1908, the president of the foundation . . . [suggested] that the best line of work in using the money placed at the disposal of the board . . . [would be]: First—To get something additional from the school authorities. Second—To get the co-operative effort of the people themselves. And Third—To improve the effectiveness of the school and widen its neighborhood influence by introducing industrial features. Work has . . . been carried on along all three of these lines. One of the principles rigidly adhered to has been avoidance of doing anything to lessen the responsibility of the regular school officials. The work has been one of co-operation and encouragement, not of displacement or substitution. The foundation has several working methods. First, there is the plan that is known as the 'Henrico plan,' so called because work of this character was first carried on in Henrico county, Virginia. In brief, this plan consists of supplying to the county superintendent a competent teacher whose duty it is to introduce industrial work into the different schools of the county, and to supervise it. The teacher spends his or her entire time in this supervisory work, so that the schools have the benefit of industrial training, and, in addition, constant supervision, suggestion, and encouragement. This visiting supervisor also forms, when occasion offers, organizations for school and home improvement. Another plan of work consists in locating a teacher at some central school as headquarters, and having that teacher do extension work among several neighboring schools, varying in number from three to six. A third method of work consists in co-operating with local school authorities in lengthening the school term and increasing the teaching force. This method of work has the double advantage of improving the school work directly, and arousing local interest in the community's educational problems. . . . The key-note of its work is the demonstration of possibility, with the burden of continued support placed on the community, instead of being assumed by the fund. As is the case with all of the others, this foundation uses great care to avoid duplication of work done either by other benevolent agencies or through public institutions." —L. P. Ayres, *Seven great foundations, pp.* 75-79.

JEANNE I, or **Joanna I** (1270-1305), queen of Navarre, 1274-1305.

Jeanne II, or **Joanna II** (1311-1349), queen of Navarre, 1328-1349.

JEANNE D'ALBRET (1528-1572), queen of Navarre, 1555-1572. See Navarre: 1528-1563; France: 1563-1570; Papacy: 1521-1535.

JEANNE D'ARC. See Joan of Arc.

JEANNETTE, ship of the De Long polar expedition. Sunk, June, 1881. See Arctic exploration: 1867-1901.

JEBEL HAMRIN, region of Mesopotamia occupied by the British during the World War. See World War: 1917: VI. Turkish theatre: a, 2; a, 2, ii; a, 3.

JEBEL SHAMMAR, emirate of central Arabia. See Arabia: Political divisions.

JEBUS, ancient name for Jerusalem. See Jerusalem: B.C. 1400-700; Jews: Kingdoms of Israel and Judah.

JEBUSITES, Canaanite inhabitants of the city of Jebus, or ancient Jerusalem. See Jerusalem: B.C. 2100-1400; Jews: Conquest of Canaan.

JECKER CLAIMS. See Mexico: 1861-1867.

JEFFERSON, Thomas (1743-1826) third president of the United States. Member of Virginia House of Burgesses, 1769-1771, 1773-1775; member First and Second Continental Congresses, 1775-1776; member of Virginia House of Delegates, 1776-1778; governor of Virginia, 1779-1781; member of Congress, 1783-1784; commissioner to France, 1785-1789; secretary of state, 1789-1793; vice-president of the United States, 1797-1800; president of the United States, 1801-1809.

In Virginia House of Burgesses. See Virginia: 1775.

Work on Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1775 (January-April); 1776 (July): Au-

thorship, etc.; 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

Attitude towards slavery.—Plan for Northwest Territory.—Treaty of peace with England disputed. See SLAVERY: 1776-1808; NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1784; U.S.A.: 1784-1788.

Member of Washington's cabinet.—Opposition to banking system. See U.S.A.: 1789-1792; STATE DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES: 1790-1909; MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1790-1816.

Elected vice president.—Attitude toward alien and sedition laws. See U.S.A.: 1796: Third presidential election; 1798.

First administration as president.—Louisiana Purchase.—Settlement of Florida. See U.S.A.: 1800-1801; 1803: Louisiana Purchase; FLORIDA: 1798-1810.

Second administration.—Judge Chase's impeachment.—Expedition of Lewis and Clark.—Gunboat fleet.—Embargo policy.—Aaron Burr's filibustering scheme.—Cumberland Road. See U.S.A.: 1804; 1804-1805: Impeachment and trial, etc.; 1804-1805: Expedition of Lewis and Clark; 1804-1805: Jefferson's plans of national defense; 1804-1809; 1806-1807; CUMBERLAND ROAD.

Founding of University of Virginia. See VIRGINIA, UNIVERSITY OF.

Death. See U.S.A.: 1826.

See also DEISM: American deists.

JEFFERSON, Provisional territory of. See COLORADO: 1857-1875.

JEFFERSON CITY, capital of Missouri, on the south bank of the Missouri river, one hundred and twenty-five miles west of St. Louis.

1861.—**Meeting of the General Assembly.** See MISSOURI: 1861.

JEFFERSON STATE, Agitation for (1915). See TEXAS: 1911-1917.

JEFFREYS, George, Lord (1648-1689), English judge. Became chief justice of England, 1683; noted for his unscrupulousness and unfair rulings in political trials, judge at the "Bloody Assizes," 1685. See ENGLAND: 1685 (September).

JEHAD, or Jihad, holy war proclaimed by the Koran against the enemies of Islam. The obligation of the Jehad has not been generally observed since the earliest days of Mohammedanism, although various persons asserting themselves to be the Mahdi have attempted to enforce it.—See also DAR-UL-ISLAM; ABYSSINIA: 1913-1920; ARABIA: 1916; WAHHABIS; WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: f.

JEHOIACHIN, king of Judah, 597 B.C. Taken captive by Nebuchadrezzar after a reign of about three months. See BABYLONIA: Nebuchadrezzar.

JEHOIAKIM (635-597 B.C.), king of Judah, 609-597 B.C. See BABYLONIA: Nebuchadrezzar.

JEHOVA. See JEWS: Israel under the Judges.

Worship of. See JERUSALEM: B.C. 1400-700.

JEHUDA, Rabbi, patriarch at Tiberias. See MISCHNA.

JELALI ZARHONI (Bu Hamara), Moroccan pretender and revolutionary leader. See MOROCCO: 1903-1904; 1909.

JELLACHICH, Josef, Count (1801-1859), ban of Croatia. Led southern Slavs in revolt against Hungary, 1848. See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849; HUNGARY: 1847-1849; JUGO-SLAVIA: 1848-1867.

JELLALABAD, or **Jalalabad,** town in Afghanistan. The British defended it against the Afghans in 1842, and held it from 1878 to 1880. See AFGHANISTAN: 1838-1842; 1869-1881.

JELLICOE, John Rushworth, 1st Viscount of Scapa (1859-), British admiral. Commander-in-chief of the Grand Fleet, 1914-1916; victor at Battle of Jutland, 1916; first sea lord, 1916; chief of naval staff, 1917; admiral of the fleet, 1919; appointed governor-general of New Zealand, 1920. See WORLD WAR: 1916. IX. Naval operations: a; a, 9; a, 10, iv; a, 10, i.

JEM, or Djem, Turkish prince. Contested his brother's accession to the throne, and was a constant menace to him; entrusted to the guardianship of Pope Innocent VIII who used him as a weapon to extract tribute and political concessions from Bayezid II, the prince's brother; on the death of Innocent, his successor, Alexander VI, continued to use the prince for political gain.—See also PAPACY: 1471-1513; TURKEY: 1481-1520.

JEMAPPES, town in Belgium, five miles southwest of Mons.

1792.—**Battle at.** See FRANCE: 1792 (September-December).

1916.—**Deportation of citizens by Germans.** See WORLD WAR: 1916: X. German rule in northern France and Belgium: b, 1.

JEMMINGEN, Battle of (1568). See NETHERLANDS: 1568-1572.

JENA, university town on the Saale, in Germany, ten miles southeast of Weimar.

Battle at (1806). See GERMANY: 1806 (October); AUSTRIA: 1806–1814.

Herbartian movement and the University of Jena. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: Herbartian movement, etc.

JENGHIZ KHAN (1162-1227), Mongol emperor and conqueror, 1206-1227. The "Great Khan" or "Ruler" conquered China, India, Afghanistan, and swept over a large part of Asia and even into Europe with his hordes. See MONGOLIA: 1153-1227; 1200-1500; BALKH; BOKHARA: 1219; CHINA: 1205-1234; INDIA: 977-1290; KHUAREZM: 1220; RUSSIA: 1237-1294; SAMARKAND: 1221.

JENIN, town in Palestine, captured by the British during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theatre: c, 16.

JENKINS' EAR, War of (1739). See ENGLAND: 1739-1741.

JENKINS' FERRY, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1864 (March-October: Arkansas-Missouri).

JENKS, Jeremiah Whipple (1856-), American political economist. Special government representative escorting the Imperial Chinese Commission which visited America, 1906 (see CHINA: 1906); member United States Immigration Commission, 1907-1910; founder and director of Far Eastern Bureau, New York, 1913-1921.

JENNER, Edward (1749-1823), English physician and discoverer of vaccination as a preventive of smallpox. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 18th century: Preventive inoculation against smallpox.

JENNY GEDDES' STOOL. See SCOTLAND: 1637.

JENSON, Nicholas (c. 1400-1480), French printer. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1469-1515.

JEPHTHAH, one of the Judges of Israel. See JEWS: Israel under the Judges.

JERBA, or Gelves, island off the north coast of Africa. The Spanish army under Count Navarro was defeated on the island in 1510. In 1560 the Spanish fleet was destroyed near Jerba by the Turks and the corsair, Dragut. See BARBARY STATES: 1505-1510; 1543-1560.

JEREMIAH, last pre-exilic prophet of Israel. See JEWS: Religion and the prophets.

JERICHO, ancient city of Palestine, about fifteen miles northeast of Jerusalem, in the Jordan valley. (See CHRISTIANITY: Map of Palestine.) The Biblical story of its capture by Joshua (Joshua, 2-8), tells of the fall of the city walls. The

Jericho on the present site, named er-Riha, developed during the Crusades, and is but a squalid village of about 500 inhabitants.

B.C. 586.—Conquest by Babylonia. See Babylonia: Nebuchadrezzar.

1918.—Occupied by British. See World War: 1918: VI. Turkish theatre: c, 1.

JEROBOAM I, first king of Israel c. 953-932 B.C. See Jews: Kingdoms of Israel and Judah.

JEROME, Saint (Eusebius Sophronius Hieronymus) (c. 340-420), church father. Led the life of a hermit in the desert of Chalcis, 373-379; ordained priest at Antioch, 379, and from there went to Constantinople where he translated the "Chronicon" of Eusebius; acted as secretary to Pope Damasus in Rome, 382-384; lived chiefly at Bethlehem as head of a monastery, 385-420; translated the Scriptures into Latin (afterwards known as the Vulgate or authorized version). See Bible, English: 7th-8th centuries.

Work as an historian. See History: 18; 19; Latin literature: 4th-5th centuries.

Letters. See Christianity: 347-412.

Relation to Hieronymites. See Hieronymites.

JEROME, William Travers (1859-), American lawyer. District attorney of New York county, 1901-1909.

JEROME OF PRAGUE (d. 1416), Bohemian religious reformer. He joined John Huss in his advocacy of Wyclif's views; arrested at Hirschau, 1415, and imprisoned at Constance; recanted, but abjured his recantation, and was burned at the stake, May 30, 1416.—See also Bohemia: 1405-1415.

JERONYMIANS. See Brethren of the Common Lot.

JERRAM, Sir Thomas Henry Martyn (1858-), British admiral. Commanded a division at the battle of Jutland. See World War: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 3; a, 9.

JERSEY, East and West. See New Jersey: 1673-1682.

JERSEY AND GUERNSEY, Isles of.—"Jersey, Guernsey, and their fellows are simply that part of the Norman duchy which clave to its dukes when the rest fell away. Their people are those Normans who remained Normans while the rest stooped to become Frenchmen."—E. A. Freeman, *Practical bearings of general European history* (*Lectures to American audiences, lect.* 4).—"'The institutions of the Channel Islands are of a very early date, and the people of the Islands appear to have at all times enjoyed much freedom and great privileges. Freedom, and an exemption from oppression are their birthright, . . . and the right of electing their Judges—the right, in fact, of self-government, under the protection and with the sanction of the Sovereign, the people have possessed from a very early period.' 'The Islands have never been represented in Parliament, and they have always looked to the Crown in Council, as possessing the supreme power over them.' . . . No Act of Parliament in which the islands are not mentioned by name applies to them, and the laws passed in the States, both of Jersey and Guernsey, go before the Privy Council, not Parliament, to be ratified. Curious remains of the Feudal System are incorporated in the present form of government. Jersey and the Bailwick of Guernsey are entirely separate in constitution and administration, though naturally in many ways their constitutions are alike. The constitution of Jersey is a democratic one. . . . The *States*, or governing body of Jersey, in which is vested the legislative and financial power, appears to have existed from the beginning of the fourteenth century at least, though not mentioned by name as early as that. It doubtless consisted at first of Governor, Bailiff, and Jurats. [Rectors and Connétables were gradually called in to the Assembly.] . . . The States have the power to pass laws which may remain in force for three years; but if they are designed to be permanent they need the sanction of the Privy Council before coming into force. The States, then, consist of:—the *Bailiff*, who is President. His duties now are purely civil, his principal task being to preside over the States and Cour Royale. He appears to have been originally synonymous with the Governor, and to have been styled *gardien* or, as in 1452, *gardien et gouverneur*. The office became a separate appointment in Jersey and Guernsey at the end of the thirteenth century; and the administration of justice has always remained in his hands. . . . The *Lieut.-Governor*, who has a right to sit and speak in the States, and has, moreover, the power of veto, but no vote. He represents the King, but his chief function appears to be, or to have been, the military government of the island. . . . The Bailiff has a power of dissent should the States act unconstitutionally. It would seem as if the one was guardian of the King's rights, and the other of the people's liberties. The office of Governor has been abolished, the powers of that office being now exercised by H. M.'s Treasury. . . . The twelve *Jurats* [judges] . . . are appointed for life by the whole body of Jersey men who have the vote. . . . A Jurat who is appointed either has to serve, or to pay a fine. Nor can he at any time simply resign his onerous post; he has first to prevail on the States to advise the Privy Council to grant an order allowing the resignation! . . . The constitution of Guernsey, a less democratic one than that of Jersey, is rather of the communal type, having a close resemblance in its privileges to the Cinque Ports. In 1341, and again in 1357, Edward III. confirmed the laws of the island; and in 1441 a document, called the *Précepte d'Assize*, was drawn up by the Bailiff and Jurats containing an abstract of their constitution. The original is unfortunately lost, but a copy made in 1489 exists. Time has naturally caused modifications and changes, but the Crown has never arbitrarily interfered with the constitution then defined. It is interesting to find that women have the suffrage here, inasmuch as they vote for deputies. But the suffrage is narrow, and the number of women voters small therefore, and it is impossible to tell what effect their vote has. Nominally people pay taxes on one quarter—about £25 capital—and this would carry the vote with it; but practically a habit has grown up of not directly taxing anyone possessing less than eight quarters. . . . Like Jersey, Guernsey has an honorary system under which the inhabitants are proud to give their services to the State in whatever capacity they may be useful. This system extends from the Jurats to the connétables or honorary police. Only the parishes of St. Peter Port, St. Martin, St. Sampson, and Vale employ paid police. . . . The office of Governor lapsed in 1835, his duties being carried out by the Lieut.-Governor, who represents the King. He sits in the States, having a right to speak, but no vote. The *States*, or governing body of Guernsey, takes two forms, the *États d'élection*, and the *États de délibération*. The *États d'élection* is composed of the Bailiff, Jurats, Rectors, the two Connétables, the Douzeniers of each parish, and the nine Deputies. . . . Among the most interesting features of the Channel Is-

lands are the curious survivals of the Feudal System which are still to be found embedded in the customs and laws of the islands. In Guernsey especially it is still possible to attend a manorial court, which would probably not be possible except in the Channel Islands, in all the British Empire. . . . In Jersey, before the establishment of the Royal Court . . . the seigneurs of the fiefs hauberts . . . were the sole dispensers of justice: from these there was no appeal save to the Duke of Normandy . . . in person, or to the itinerant justices whom he occasionally sent round. On the establishment of the Royal Court, these seigneurial courts gradually lost their authority in criminal cases, . . . but for many years the manorial courts retained their jurisdiction in disputes as to *real property* within the limits of the fief. . . . Guernsey has apparently even more remaining survivals of the Feudal System than Jersey; and several remaining courts, generally held in the open air."—E. E. Bickell, *Channel islands, pp.* 45-49, 53-55, 61-63.—See also CHANNEL ISLANDS.

JERSEY PRISON SHIP, used by the British as a prison for American sailors during the American Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1776-1777: prisoners and exchanges.

JERUSALEM, capital of Palestine, fifteen miles from the northern end of the Dead sea and thirty-three miles from the Mediterranean. See CHRISTIANITY: Map of Palestine.

B.C. 2100-1400.—Early history.—"The first notice of Jerusalem is in the time of Abraham. The king of Shinar and his confederates captured Sodom and Gomorrah, and carried away Lot, Abraham's brother's son; when Abraham, collecting his trainbands, followed after the enemy and rescued Lot; and on his return 'at the valley of Shaveh, which is the king's vale, Melchizedek, king of Salem—the priest of the Most High God—blessed Abram.' The king's vale was the Valley of Jehoshaphat; and Salem was identical with the eastern hill, the real Zion as we learn from the Psalms, 'In Salem is his tabernacle, and his dwelling-place in Zion'; where Salem and Zion are evidently used as synonymous. Whether Moriah, on which Abram offered his sacrifice, was the very mount on which the Temple was afterwards built [by Solomon, 1012-1004] must be left to conjecture. But when the Second Book of Chronicles was written, the Jews had at least a tradition to that effect, for we read that 'Soloman began to build the house of the Lord at Jerusalem in Mount Moriah.' On the exodus of the Israelites from Egypt, we find distinct mention made of Jerusalem by that very name; for after Joshua's death, 'the children of Judah fought against Jerusalem, and took it . . . and set the city on fire.' . . . The men of Judah had only a temporary occupation even of the Low Town, for it was not until the time of David that Jerusalem was brought permanently under the dominion of the Israelites."—T. Lewin, *Jerusalem, ch.* 1.—"The Jebusite city was composed of the fortress of Sion, which must have been situated where the mosque of El Akasa now stands, and of a lower town (Ophel) which runs down from there to the well which they called Gihon. David took the fortress of Sion, and gave the greater portion of the neighbouring lands to Joab, and probably left the lower town to the Jebusites. That population, reduced to an inferior situation, lost all energy, thanks to the new Israelitish influx, and played no important part in the history of Jerusalem. David rebuilt the upper town of Sion, the citadel or millo, and all the neighbouring quarters. This is what they called the city of David. . . . David in reality created Jerusalem."—E. Renan, *History of the people of Israel, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 18.

ALSO IN: H. Ewald, *History of Israel, bk.* 3, *sect.* 1 B.—F. W. Newman, *History of the Hebrew monarchy, ch.* 3.

B. C. 1400-700.—Conquest and occupation by David.—Development under Solomon.—Importance of the city.—"The Benjamites had been the 'heart and soul' of the opposition which David experienced. Nevertheless, the first action which he undertook as acknowledged king of all the tribes redounded specially to their advantage, whilst it was at the same time a task of the utmost importance for the whole Israelitish commonwealth. Although Joshua had conquered the Amorites, one of their strongholds, Jebus, still remained unsubdued, and the Benjamites had exerted all their strength against it in vain. It was to this point that David next directed his victorious arms. Having conquered the place, he transferred the seat of his kingdom thither without delay. This seat is Jerusalem; the word Zion has the same meaning as Jebus. This must be considered as one of the most important of David's achievements. It made him master of Benjamin, and was a considerable advance upon the possession in Judah of Hebron alone, whilst at the same time the fortress which he had occupied might become a centre of union for the whole people. We understand how powerful the Philistines were in the neighborhood of the capital when we find it recorded that a position which controlled it was still in their hands. . . . They marched of their own accord against him, and encamped in the high plateau of Rephaim over against Moriah. David twice fiercely assaulted them . . . nor could they make direct complaint of this, for, even whilst he was under their protection, they were well aware that he was the foreordained successor of the king [Saul] with whom they were at war. The Philistines had hitherto been superior to the Israelites through their better equipment; but the heroes of David were especially famous for the dexterity and success with which they made use of their weapons. . . . It was the warriors trained in his earlier struggles and expeditions who obtained for him the victory. Thus supported, his kingdom was firm, and in Zion, the city of David, as it is called, he was now able to build himself a splendid palace of the cedars of Lebanon. Thither, too, he brought the sanctuary of the law, the ark of the covenant. . . . He had this immeasurable advantage over Saul, that king and prophet were united in his person. . . . [See JEWS: Kingdoms of Israel and Judah.] It is obvious that these changes involved a complete revolution in the land of Canaan. In the place of that confederation of tribes, no longer able to protect its sanctuary, disconnected and intermingled with hostile elements, a powerful kingdom had arisen, which ejected everything foreign, and, having obtained by a sudden stroke a commanding site for the religion of Jehovah, proceeded at once to subjugate the kindred nations. These, however, were connected with other neighbors who could not look on quietly. . . . A position of high importance had been occupied from the earliest times by Damascus, an oasis which the skill of its inhabitants had converted into a kind of paradise. . . . If the twelve tribes and their king could obtain possession of Damascus they would gain a commanding position in Western Asia. They saw a new world expanding to their view, very differ-

ent from that of Canaan. David's attack upon Damascus may be regarded as an undertaking decisive for the power of Israel. At first it was perfectly successful. The king conquered Damascus. Copper, which may have come from Cyprus, gold, perhaps brought from India, were the booty of the conqueror. He used them to beautify the worship of Jehovah, which he had established in the neighborhood of his citadel. David everywhere placed garrisions in towns, and, being master of Syria as well as of Palestine, was now exceedingly formidable. . . . Solomon thus became possessed of the kingdom, though in a somewhat irregular manner. He could not, however, maintain his father's position to its full extent. It was probably at the very commencement of his reign that he lost Damascus, a loss which, though it might not be disadvantageous to the central provinces of Israel, was destined as time went on to be more and more sensibly felt. Damascus then fell into the hands of an Aramaic chieftain, who forthwith became one of Solomon's opponents. But Solomon took care to secure control over the great commercial roads, as far as they passed through his territories, by protecting them with fortified places. . . . Thus in possession of a peaceful and assured dominion, he set his hand to the work which has made his name famous for all time, the building of the Temple at Jerusalem. [See also TEMPLE OF SOLOMON; CHRISTIANITY: Map of Solomon's Temple.] The preparations which he made for this recall the compulsory service which was laid in past times upon the subjects of the Pharaohs in the erection of the pyramids and of the temples of Thebes. But, times were indeed changed; the Israelites were now themselves building a great sanctuary to that God who had redeemed them from the service of the Egyptian deities. They had become a powerful and independent nation. . . . There is something of the Pharaoh in King Solomon. Compulsory service in his architectural works fell specially upon the remnants of the old Canaanitish population. . . . Moreover, the harem which Solomon at the same time established for himself introduced from the neighboring nations foreign religious rites, which had to be tolerated. Nothing is said of Egyptian rites; but the emblems of the Sidonian Astarte found a place on the heights of Jerusalem, and even Moloch himself and the fire-god, Chemosh, were revived once more. This may, perhaps, have been a necessary condition of peaceful government; but it could not have been acceptable to the schools of the prophets, which Samuel had founded for the maintenance of the strict worship of Jehovah. . . . If the Israelites had remained united among themselves, and had improved the position they had gained, they would have maintained their ascendency in the regions of Western Asia. It is probable, however, that this could only have been brought about under a rigorous and unscrupulous government such as Israel was no longer willing to endure. There is always a difficulty in reconciling the political aggrandizement of a prince with the necessary sympathy on the part of the population, for increase of power may very easily become an intolerable burden to the nation. The ten tribes, in renouncing obedience to the monarchy so recently established, not only impaired its position, but imperilled their own security. . . . But when, upon the death of Solomon, the schism took place in the kingdom of the twelve tribes, their nearest neighbors, Egypt and Phœnicia, obtained a preponderance which they had not hitherto possessed. The Pharaoh Shishak, who is regarded as the founder of the twenty-second dynasty, and who had formed an alliance with Jeroboam, thus found an opportunity of waging war upon Judah. The great wealth which had been accumulated in the Temple under Solomon must have had a special fascination for him: it fell into his hands, including all the golden shields with which the king on high feast days delighted to make parade. An inscription has been found upon the outer wall of a temple at Thebes, in which the Jews are depicted as smitten by the victorious war-club of the Pharaoh. This was a death-blow to the political power of Judah. Yet the influence of Phœnicia upon Israel went far deeper, being the influence not of arms and and conquest, but of morals and of religion. . . . Over Judah Jezebel [daughter of the priest of Astarte] had won predominant influence by the marriage of her daughter with the king's son. . . . Athaliah [her daughter], . . . had erected a temple of Baal beside the temple of Jehovah. It seemed to be her design to annihilate the whole house of David, for these women were as bloodthirsty as the Baal-Moloch whom they worshipped. Only one scion of the family of Jesse had been saved, a child named Joash. . . . The people proclaimed him king. Alarmed by the uproar, Athaliah hastened to the Temple, and exclaiming, 'Treason! treason!' fled for refuge to the palace. There at the door she was slain; for in the sacred precincts they had been unwilling to lay hands upon her, remembering that she too was a king's daughter. Later writers have said that she had attempted the murder of the boy, and such would undoubtedly have been the result had she remained in power. On her death, however, the child Joash became king in her stead. . . . The temple of Baal was destroyed, the priests of the false gods slain, and there was a complete return to the usages of David and Solomon. To this violent reaction against the intrusion of Baal-worship the continued existence of the old religion of Jehovah was due. . . . Amidst the universal ruin Jerusalem alone stood erect. Here Hezekiah had renounced all the religious infidelities of his predecessors, put an end to the idolatrous rites, and restored the service of Jehovah in its purity. It is necessary to realize vividly the whole situation at this time in order to comprehend and to do justice to such a presence as that of the prophet Isaiah, the most gifted of all the prophets in intellectual and spiritual power. He united together the king and the people, so that Jerusalem was regarded as a bulwark against the Asyrians, and the neighboring peoples who sought to save themselves from them took refuge thither. Every one has read in the Book of Kings the story of the siege which Sennacherib laid to Jerusalem, and how vainly he exerted himself to draw the people from their allegiance to their king. . . . It was then that Isaiah wrote the emphatically prophetic words in which he proclaims that the time should come when all the world should seek salvation at the holy places of Jerusalem. The Jews still trusted in the national God; but, at the moment when they were threatened with destruction, there emerged in dim outline a profound sense that the conception on which the religion of monotheism rests exists for all time, and belongs to all the world."—L. von Ranke, *Universal history*, *pp.* 45-48, 53-55, 58, 61, 63-64, 75-76.

B.C. 976-168.—**Early sieges.**—Jerusalem, the ancient stronghold of the Jebusites, which remained in the hands of that Canaanite people until David reduced it and made it the capital

of his kingdom, was the object of many sieges in its subsequent history and suffered at the hands of many ruthless conquerors. It was taken, with no apparent resistance, by Shishak, of Egypt, in the reign of Rehoboam, and Solomon's temple plundered. Again, in the reign of Amaziah, it was entered by the armies of the rival kingdom of Israel and a great part of its walls thrown down. It was besieged without success by the tartan or general of Sennacherib, and captured a little later by Pharaoh Necho. In B.C. 586 the great calamity of its conquest and destruction by Nebuchadnezzar befell, when the survivors of its chief inhabitants were taken captive to Babylon. (See JEWS: B.C. 604-536.) Rebuilt at the return from captivity (see JEWS: B.C. 537), it enjoyed peace under the Persians, B.C. 536-332, but in the troubled times which followed the dissolution of Alexander's Empire, Jerusalem was repeatedly pillaged and abused by the Greeks of Egypt and the Greeks of Syria. Its walls were demolished by Ptolemy I. (B.C. 320) and again by Antiochus Epiphanes (B.C. 168) (see JEWS: B.C. 332-167), when a great part of the city was likewise burned. —Josephus, *Antiquities of the Jews.*—See also BABYLONIA: Nebuchadrezzar.

ALSO IN: H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews.*

B.C. 63.—Siege and capture by Pompeius. See JEWS: B.C. 166-40.

B.C. 40.—Surrendered to the Parthians. See JEWS: B.C. 166-40.

B.C. 37.—Siege by Herod and the Romans.—Herod's Temple. See JEWS: B.C. 40-A.D. 44.

A.D. 29.—Trial and execution of Jesus. See JESUS CHRIST: Antagonism roused against Jesus.

33.—Description of the city.—"Its situation was . . . on a height of about 2,610 feet above the level of the sea. Its climate was more healthy, equable, and temperate than that of any other part of the country. [See CHRISTIANITY: Map of Jerusalem.] From the top of Mount Olivet an unrivalled view of the most interesting localities in the land might be obtained. To the east the eye would wander over the intervening plains to Jericho, mark the tortuous windings of Jordan, and the sullen grey of the Dead Sea, finally resting on Pisgah and the mountains of Moab and Ammon. To the south, you might see beyond 'the king's gardens' as far as the grey tops of 'the hill-country of Judæa.' Westwards, the view would be arrested by the mountains of *Bether,* whilst the haze in the distant horizon marked the line of the Great Sea. . . . Placed on an eminence higher than the immediate neighbourhood, it was cut off and isolated by deep valleys on all sides but one, giving it the appearance of an immense natural fortress. All round it on three sides, like a natural fosse, ran the deep ravines of the Valley of Hinnom [on the west and south] and of the Black Valley, or Kedron [on the east], which merged to the south of the city, descending in such steep declivity that where the two meet is 670 feet below the point whence each had started. Only on the northwest was the city, as it were, bound to the mainland. And as if to give it yet more the character of a series of fortress-islands, a deep natural cleft —the Tyropœon—ran south and north right through the middle of the city, then turned sharply westwards, separating Mount Zion from Mount Acra. Similarly, Acra was divided from Mount Moriah, and the latter again by an artificial valley from Bezetha, or the New Town. Sheer up from these encircling ravines rose the city of marble and cedar-covered palaces. Up that middle cleft, down in the valley, and along the slopes of the hills, crept the busy town, with its streets, markets, and bazaars. But alone, and isolated in its grandeur, stood the Temple Mount. Terrace upon terrace its courts rose, till, high above the city, within the enclosure of marble cloisters, cedar-roofed and richly ornamented, the Temple itself stood out a mass of snowy marble and of gold, glittering in the sunlight against the half-encircling green background of Olivet. . . . Altogether the city was only thirty-three stadia, or about four English miles, in circumference. Within this compass dwelt a population of 600,000 (according to Tacitus), but, according to the Jewish historian, amounting at the time of the Passover to between two and three millions, or about equal to that of London. The first feature to attract attention would be the city walls, at the time of Christ only two in number. The first, or old wall, began at the northwestern angle of Zion, at the tower of *Hippicus,* and ran along the northern brow of Zion, where it crossed the cleft, and joined the western colonnade of the Temple at the 'Council-house.' It also enclosed Zion along the west and the south, and was continued eastward around Ophel, till it merged in the south-eastern angle of the Temple. Thus the first wall would defend Zion, Ophel, and, along with the Temple walls, Moriah also. The second wall, which commenced at a gate in the first wall, called 'Gennath,' ran first north, and then east, so as to enclose Acra, and terminated at the Tower of Antonia. Thus the whole of the old city and the Temple were sufficiently protected. . . . The city walls were further defended by towers—sixty in the first, and forty in the second wall. Most prominent among them were Hippicus, Phasaelus, and Mariamne, close by each other, to the north-west of Zion—all compactly built of immense marble blocks, square, strongly fortified, and surmounted by buildings defended by battlements and turrets. They were built by Herod, and named after the friend and the brother he had lost in battle, and the wife whom his jealousy had killed. If the pilgrim scanned the city more closely, he would observe that it was built on four hills. Of these, the western, or ancient Zion, was the highest, rising about 200 feet above Moriah, though still 100 feet lower than the Mount of Olives. To the north and the east, opposite Zion, and divided from it by the deep Tyropœon Valley, were the crescent-shaped Acra and Moriah, the latter with Ophel as its southern outrunner. Up and down the slopes of Acra the Lower City crept. Finally, the fourth hill, Bezetha (from *bezaion,* marshy ground), the New Town, rose north of the Temple Mount and of Acra, and was separated from them by an aritificial valley. . . . In this hasty survey of the city no notice has been taken of the magnificent monuments and pillars erected in various parts of Jerusalem; nor of its synagogues, of which tradition fixes the number at from 460 to 480; nor of many public buildings; nor yet of such sacred spots as the Pool of Siloam, or that of Bethesda, on which the memory loves to dwell. In sharp contrast to all this beauty and magnificence must have been the great walls and towers, and the detached forts, which guarded either the Temple or access to the various hills on which the city rose, such as Millo, Ophel, and others. Of these the highest and strongest was the L-shaped Tower of Antonia, which rose to a height of 105 feet, being itself reared on a rock 75 feet high. Indeed, the towers and the castle of Antonia, with its squares, outbuildings, and

colonnades, must have looked almost like a small town, on its rocky height. Beyond the city, numerous large gates opened everywhere into the country upon the slopes and crests of hills covered by delicious gardens and dotted with beautiful villas."—A. Edersheim, *Temple, pp.* 25-36.

70.—Center of Christendom.—Siege and destruction by Titus. See CHRISTIANITY: 33-70; JEWS: 66-70.

130-134.—Rebuilt by Hadrian.—Change of name to Ælia Capitolina.—Revolt of Bar-Kokheba. See JEWS: 130-134.

615.—Siege, sack and massacre by the Persians.—In the last of the wars of the Persians with the Romans, while Heraclius occupied the throne of the Empire, at Constantinople, and Chosroës II. filled that of the Sassanides, the latter (614) "sent his general, Shahr-Barz, into the region east of the Antilibanus and took the ancient and famous city of Damascus. From Damascus, in the ensuing year, Shahr-Barz advanced against Palestine, and, summoning the Jews to his aid, proclaimed a Holy War against the Christian misbelievers, whom he threatened to enslave or exterminate. Twenty-six thousand of these fanatics flocked to his standard; and having occupied the Jordan region and Galilee, Shahr-Barz . . . invested Jerusalem, and after a siege of eighteen days forced his way into the town and gave it over to plunder and rapine. The cruel hostility of the Jews had free vent. The churches of Helena, of Constantine, of the Holy Sepulchre, of the Resurrection, and many others, were burnt or ruined; the greater part of the city was destroyed; the sacred treasuries were plundered; the relics scattered or carried off; and a massacre of the inhabitants, in which the Jews took the chief part, raged throughout the whole city for some days. As many as 17,000, or, according to another account, 90,000, were slain. Thirty-five thousand were made prisoners. Among them was the aged patriarch, Zacharias, who was carried captive into Persia, where he remained till his death. The Cross found by Helena, and believed to be 'the True Cross,' was at the same time transported to Ctesiphon, where it was preserved with care and duly venerated by the Christian wife of Chosroës."—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy, ch.* 24.—See also ROME: Medieval city: 565-628.

628-637.—Restoration to the Greek empire.—"The peace between [Byzantine] Rome and Persia had been concluded in 628, and in the next year Heraclius made his famous pilgrimage to Jerusalem with the True Cross, [which he had recovered from the Persian King]. . . . Heraclius does not appear to have returned to Constantinople after his pilgrimage to Jerusalem, but to have remained at Antioch engaged in the affairs of his eastern provinces. That he did not appear personally in the field at Yermouk is sufficiently accounted for by his bodily illness."—E. A. Freeman, *History and conquests of the Saracens, pp.* 80-81.

637.—Surrender to the Moslems.—In the winter of 637, the Arabs, then masters of the greater part of Syria, laid siege to Jerusalem. After four months of vigorous attack and defense, the Christian Patriarch of Jerusalem held a parley from the walls with the Arab general, Abu Obeidah. "'Do you not know,' said he, 'that this city is holy, and that whoever offers violence o it draws upon his head the vengeance of heaven?' 'We know it,' replied Abu Obeidah, 'to be the house of the prophets, where their bodies lie interred; we know it to be the place whence our prophet Mahomet made his nocturnal ascent to heaven; and we know that we are more worthy of possessing it than you are, nor will we raise the siege until Allah has delivered it into our hands, as he has done many other places.' Seeing there was no further hope, the patriarch consented to give up the city, on condition that the Caliph would come in person to take possession and sign the articles of surrender." This proposal being communicated to Omar, the caliph, he consented to make the long journey from Medina to Jerusalem, and, in due time, he entered the Holy City, not like a conqueror, but on foot, with his staff in his hand and wearing his simple, much-patched Arab garb. "The articles of surrender were drawn up in writing by Omar, and served afterwards as a model for the Moslem leaders in other conquests. The Christians were to build no new churches in the surrendered territory. The church doors were to be set open to travellers, and free ingress permitted to Mahometans by day and night. The bells should only toll, and not ring, and no crosses should be erected on the churches, nor shown publicly in the streets. The Christians should not teach the Koran to their children; nor speak openly of their religion; nor attempt to make proselytes; nor hinder their kinsfolk from embracing Islam. They should not assume the Moslem dress, either caps, slippers, or turbans, nor part their hair like Moslem, but should always be distinguished by girdles. They should not use the Arabian language in inscriptions on their signets, nor salute after the Moslem manner, nor be called by Moslem surnames. They should rise on the entrance of a Moslem, and remain standing until he should be seated. They should entertain every Moslem traveller three days gratis. They should sell no wine, bear no arms, and use no saddle in riding; neither should they have any domestic who had been in Moselm service. . . . The Christians having agreed to surrender on these terms, the Caliph gave them, under his own hand, an assurance of protection in their lives and fortunes, the use of their churches, and the exercise of their religion."—W. Irving, *Mahomet and his successors, v.* 2, *ch.* 18.—See also MAHOMETAN CONQUEST: 632-639.

637-1099.—Saracen conquest.—Restoration of Holy Sepulchre.—"Six years' warfare accomplished the conquest of Syria by the Moslems. In 638 Heraclius uttered his famous farewell to Syria, and Aleppo and Antioch were added to the list of tributary cities. [Fifty years later the Mosque of Akasa, and the Dome on the Rock, or Mosque of Omar—among the finest of Arabian buildings of worship—were erected by the Saracens in Jerusalem, Omar's mosque occupying, it is believed, the site of Solomon's temple, and becoming the third holiest shrine of the Mohammedans, Mecca and Medina having precedence.] For more than three hundred years Syria remained a Saracenic province, till, under Nikephoros and Tzimiskes, 'the sway of Christ and Cæsar' was again restored on the banks of the Orontes and the Euphrates."—E. A. Freeman, *History and conquests of the Saracens, p.* 84.—But Jerusalem was never recovered by the Greeks, for Palestine remained in Mohammedan hands until the first Crusade. In 831, however, the Church of the Holy Sepulchre was restored, and stood one hundred years longer—the chief shrine of the Christian world—until it was again destroyed by the founder, or God, of the Druses, Hakim. It was rebuilt in 1048 and enlarged a century later in the style of a French Romanesque cathedral.—See also CALIPHATE: 632-639.

908-1171.—In Moslem civil wars. See CALIPHATE: 908-1171.

1064-1076.—Great revival of pilgrimages from western Europe. See CRUSADES: Causes.

1076.—Taken by Seljuk Turks. See CRUSADES: Causes.

1095-1096.—Visit of Peter the Hermit. See CRUSADES: 1095-1096.

1099.—"Deliverance" of the Holy City by crusaders.—The armies of the first Crusade (see CRUSADES: 1096-1099)—the surviving remnant of them—reached Jerusalem in June, 1099. They numbered, it is believed, but 20,000 fighting men, and an equal number of camp fellows,—women, children, non-militant priests, and the like. "Immediately before the arrival of the Crusaders, the Mohammedans deliberated whether they should slaughter all the Christians in cold blood, or only fine them and expel them from the city. It was decided to adopt the latter plan; and the Crusaders were greeted on their arrival not only by the flying squadrons of the enemy's cavalry, but also by exiled Christians telling their piteous tales. Their houses had been pillaged; their wives kept as hostages; immense sums were required for their ransom; the churches were desecrated; and, even worse still, the Infidels were contemplating the entire destruction of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre. This last charge, at least, was not true. But it added fuel to a fire which was already beyond any control, and the chiefs gave a ready permission to their men to carry the town, if they could, by assault." They were repulsed with heavy loss, and driven to the operations of a regular siege, for which their resources were limited in the extreme. "In the midst of a desolate region where neither food nor water nor the materials to construct the apparatus necessary for the capture of the town were to be found, the opportune arrival at Jaffa of galleys from Genoa furnished the besiegers with supplies, and, in spite of all the difficulties, the place was taken in a couple of months."—J. H. Robinson, *Outlines of European history, p.* 466.—Friday, July 15, 1099, "the city was taken, and the massacre of its defenders began. The Christians ran through the streets slaughtering as they went. At first they spared none, neither man, woman, nor child, putting all alike to the sword; but when resistance had ceased, and rage was partly appeased, they began to bethink them of pillage, and tortured those who remained alive to make them discover their gold. As for the Jews within the city, they had fled to their synagogue, which the Christians set on fire, and so burned them all. The chroniclers relate, with savage joy, how the streets were encumbered with heads and mangled bodies, and how in the Haram Area, the sacred enclosure of the Temple, the knights rode in blood up to the knees of their horses. Here upwards of ten thousand were slaughtered, while the whole number of killed amounted, according to various estimates, to forty, seventy, and even a hundred thousand. . . . Evening fell, and the clamour ceased, for there were no more enemies to kill, save a few whose lives had been promised by Tancred. Then from their hiding-places in the city came out the Christians who still remained in it. They had but one thought, to seek out and welcome Peter the Hermit, whom they proclaimed as their liberator. At the sight of these Christians, a sudden revulsion of feeling seized the soldiers. They remembered that the city they had taken was the city of the Lord, and this impulsive soldiery, sheathing swords reeking with blood, followed Godfrey to the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, where they passed the night in tears and prayers and services. In the morning the carnage began again. Those who had escaped the first fury were the women and children. It was now resolved to spare none. Even the three hundred to whom Tancred had promised life were slaughtered in spite of him. Raymond alone managed to save the lives of those who capitulated to him from the tower of David. It took a week to kill the Saracens, and to take away their dead bodies. Every Crusader had a right to the first house he took possession of, and the city found itself absolutely cleared of its old inhabitants, and in the hands of a new population. The true Cross, which had been hidden by the Christians during the siege, was brought forth again, and carried in joyful procession round the city, and for ten days the soldiers gave themselves up to murder, plunder —and prayers!"—W. Besant and E. H. Palmer, *Jerusalem, ch.* 6.

ALSO IN: C. Mills, *History of the crusades, v.* 1, *ch.* 6.—J. F. Michaud, *History of the crusades, bk.* 4.

1099-1131.—Founding of the Latin or "Frankish" kingdom.—Eight days after their bloody conquest of the Holy City had been achieved, "the Latin chiefs proceeded to the election of a king, to guard and govern their conquests in Palestine . . . and the free, the just, the unanimous voice of the army proclaimed Godfrey of Bouillon the first and most worthy of the champions of Christendom. His magnanimity accepted a trust as full of danger as of glory; but in the city where his Saviour had been crowned with thorns the devout pilgrim rejected the name and ensigns of royalty, and the founder of the kingdom of Jerusalem contented himself with the modest title of Defender and Baron of the Holy Sepulchre. His government of a single year, too short for the public happiness, was interrupted in the first fortnight by a summons to the field by the approach of the vizir or sultan of Egypt, who had been too slow to prevent, but who was impatient to avenge, the loss of Jerusalem. His total overthrow in the battle of Ascalon sealed the establishment of the Latins in Syria, and signalized the valour of the French princes, who in this action bade a long farewell to the holy wars. . . . After suspending before the holy sepulchre the sword and standard of the sultan, the new king (he deserves the title) embraced his departing companions, and could retain only, with the gallant Tancred, 300 knights and 2,000 foot soldiers, for the defence of Palestine."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 58.—Godfrey lived not quite a year after his election, and was succeeded on the throne of Jerusalem by his brother Baldwin, the prince of Edessa, who resigned that Mesopotamian lordship to his cousin, Baldwin du Bourg, and made haste to secure the more tempting sovereignty. Godfrey, during his short reign, had permitted himself to be made almost a vassal and subordinate of the patriarch of Jerusalem—one Daimbert, a domineering prelate from Italy. But Baldwin matched the priest in his own grasping qualities and soon established the kingship on a more substantial footing. He reigned eighteen years, and when he died, in 1118, the fortunate cousin, Baldwin du Bourg, received his crown, surrendering the principality of Edessa to another. This Baldwin II. died in 1131, and was succeeded by Fulk or Foulque, count of Anjou, who had lately arrived in Palestine and married Baldwin's daughter. "The Latin do-

minions in the East attained their greatest extent in the reign of King Baldwin II. . . . The entire sea-coast from Tarsus in Cilicia to El-Arish on the confines of Egypt was, with the exception of Ascalon and Gaza, in the possession of the Franks. In the north their dominions extended inland to Edessa beyond the Euphrates; the mountains of Lebanon and their kindred ranges bounded them on the east as they ran southwards; and then the Jordan and the desert formed their eastern limits. They were divided into four states, namely, the kingdom of Jerusalem, the county of Tripolis, the principality of Antioch, and the county of Edessa; the rulers of the three last held as vassals under the king."—T. Keightley, *Crusaders, ch.* 2.—See also CRUSADES: 1104-1111.

1100.—The constitution of the kingdom.—"Godfrey was an elected king; and we have seen that his two immediate successors owed their crowns rather to personal merit and intrigue than to principles of hereditary succession. But after the death of Baldwin du Bourg, the foundation of the constitution appears to have been settled; and the Latin state of Jerusalem may be regarded as a feudal hereditary monarchy. There were two chief lords of the kingdom, namely, the patriarch and the king, whose cognizance extended over spiritual and temporal affairs. . . . The great officers of the crown were the seneschal, the constable, the marshal, and the chamberlain. . . . There were four chief baronies of the kingdom, and many other lordships which had the privileges of administering justice, coining money, and, in short, most of those powers and prerogatives which the great and independent nobility of Europe possessed. The first great barony comprised the counties of Jaffa and Ascalon, and the lordships of Ramula, Mirabel, and Ibelin. The second was the principality of Galilee. The third included the lordships of Sajetta, Cesarea, and Nazareth; and the fourth was the county of Tripoli. . . . Each of the three first barons was compelled to aid the king with five hundred knights. The service of Tripoli was performed by two hundred knights; that of the other baronies by one hundred and eighty-three knights. Six hundred and sixty-six knights was the total number furnished by the cities of Jerusalem, Naplousa, Acre, and Tyre. The churches and the commercial communities of every part of the kingdom provided five thousand and seventy-five serjeants or serving men."—C. Mills, *History of the Crusades, v.* 1, *ch.* 8.—The power of the king was checked by the High Court, which also drew up a code, the "Assize of Jerusalem," falsely ascribed to Godfrey of Bouillon. In the great fiefs, however, were courts of independent jurisdiction and more often than not the chief nobles exercised full independence in the neighborhood of their castles, marvels of military architecture.—See also ASSIZES: Assize of Jerusalem.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 58.

1144-1187.—Rise of Saladin.—Battle of Tiberias or Hittin.—Conquest of the Holy City.—King Fulk was succeeded in 1144 by his son, a boy of thirteen, who took the title of Baldwin III and with whom his mother associated herself on the throne. It was early in this reign of the boy-king that Edessa was taken by Zenghi, sultan of Aleppo, and an appeal made to Europe which called out the miserably abortive second Crusade. "The interminable series of wars, or rather of forays and reprisals, went on; and amidst such contests the life of Baldwin closed [1162] in early manhood. . . . He died childless, and although some opposition was made to his choice, his brother Almeric [or Amaury] was elected to fill his place. Almost at the beginning of his reign the affairs of the Latin kingdom became complicated with those of Egypt; and the Christians are seen fighting by the side of one Mahomedan race, tribe, or faction against another." The Fatimite caliphs of Egypt had become mere puppets in the hands of their viziers, and when one grand vizier, Shawer, deposed by a rival, Dargham, appealed to the sultan of Aleppo (Noureddin, son of Zenghi), the latter embraced eagerly the opportunity to stretch his strong hand towards the Fatimite throne. Among his generals was Shiracouh, a valiant Koord, and he sent Shiracouh to Egypt to restore Shawer to power. With Shiracouh went a young nephew of the Koordish soldier, named Salah-ud-deen—better known in history as Saladin. Shawer, restored to authority, quickly quarrelled with his protectors, and obtained help from the Latin king of Jerusalem. Almeric was encouraged by the Byzantine emperor, while Noureddin was approved and supported by the caliph of Bagdad. Noureddin's Koord general, Shiracouh, secured the prize. Grand vizier Shawer was put to death, and the wretched Fatimite caliph made young Saladin his vizier, fancying he had chosen a young man too fond of pleasure to be dangerously ambitious. Saladin needed only three years to make himself master of Egypt, and the caliph, then dying, was stripped of his title and his sovereignty. The bold Koord took the throne (1173) in the name of the Abbasside caliph, at Bagdad, summarily ending the Fatimite schism. He was still nominally the servant of the sultan of Aleppo; but when Noureddin died, 1178, leaving his dominions to a young son, Saladin was able, with little resistance, to displace the latter and to become undisputed sovereign of Mahometan Syria, Egypt, and a large part of Mesopotamia. He now resolved to expel the Latins from Palestine and to restore the authority of the prophet once more in the holy places of Jerusalem. King Almeric had died in 1173, leaving his crown to a son, Baldwin IV, who was a leper. The leper prince died in 1185, and the only makeshift for a king that Jerusalem found in this time of serious peril was one Guy of Lusignan, a vile and despised creature, who had married the last Baldwin's sister. The Holy Land, the Holy City and the Holy Sepulchre had this pitiful kinglet for their defender when the potent Saladin led his Moslems against them. The decisive battle was fought in July, 1187, near the city of Tiberias, and is known generally in Christian history as the Battle of Tiberias, but was called by Mahometan annalists the Battle of Hittin. The Christians were defeated with great slaughter; the miserable King Guy was taken prisoner—but soon released, to make trouble; the "true cross," most precious of all Christian relics, fell into Saladin's irreverent hands. Tiberias, Acre, Cæsarea, Jaffa, Berytos, Ascalon, submitted to the victor. Jerusalem was at his mercy; but he offered its defenders and inhabitants permission to depart peacefully from the place, having no wish, he said, to defile its hallowed soil with blood. When his offer was rejected, he made a vow to enter the city with his sword and to do as the Christians had done when they waded to their knees in blood through its streets. But when, after a short siege of fourteen days, Jerusalem was surrendered to him, he forgot his angry oath, and forgot the vengeance which might not have seemed strange in that age and that place. The sword of the victor was sheathed. The inhabitants were ransomed at a stipulated rate, and those for whom no ransom was paid were held as

slaves. The sick and the helpless were permitted to remain in the city for a year, with the Knights of the Hospital—conspicuous among the enemies of Saladin and his faith—to attend upon them. The Crescent shone Christian-like as it rose over Jerusalem again. The Cross—The Crusaders' Cross—was shamed. [To the Christians were left the Church of the Holy Sepulchre and a few other churches, but most were plundered, and turned into granaries, or stables. The great mosques were restored to the Moslems.] The Latin kingdom of Jerusalem was now nearly extinct; Tyre alone held out against Saladin and constituted the most of the kingdom of King Guy of Lusignan.—G. W. Cox, *The Crusades, ch.* 6.—See also CRUSADES: Military aspect of the Crusades; SALADIN, EMPIRE OF.

ALSO IN: W. Besant and E. H. Palmer, *Jerusalem, ch.* 12-16.—J. F. Michaud, *History of the Crusades, bk.* 7.—Mrs. W. Busk, *Mediaeval popes, emperors, kings and crusaders, v.* 2, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 10-11.

1147-1149.—Note of alarm and second Crusade. See CRUSADES: 1147-1149.

1187-1229.—Succession of the titular Frankish kings.—Guy de Lusignan, the poor creature whom Sybille, daughter of King Amaury, married and made king of Jerusalem, lost his kingdom fairly enough on the battlefield of Tiberias. To win his freedom from Saladin, moreover, he renounced his claims by a solemn oath and pledged himself to quit the soil of Palestine forever. But oaths were of small account with the Christian Crusaders, and with the priests who kept their consciences. Guy got easy absolution and was a king once more,—waiting for the Crusaders to recover his kingdom. Presently, Conrad of Montferrat, who held possession of Tyre—the best part of what remained in the actual kingdom of Jerusalem—married Sybille's sister, Isabella, and claimed the kingship in her name. King Richard of England supported Guy, and King Philip Augustus of France, in sheer contrariness, took his side with Conrad. After long quarreling it was decided that Guy should wear the crown while he lived, and that it should pass when he died to Conrad and Conrad's children. It was Richard's wilfulness that forced this settlement; but, after all, on quitting Palestine, in 1192, the English king did not dare to leave affairs behind him in such worthless hands. He bought, therefore, the abdication of Guy de Lusignan, by making him king of Cyprus, and he gave the crown of Jerusalem to the strong and capable Conrad. But Conrad was murdered in a little time by emissaries of the Old Man of the Mountain (see ASSASSINS). Count Henry of Champagne, Richard's nephew, accepted his [Conrad's] widow and his crown. Henry enjoyed his titular royalty and his little hand-breadth of dominion on the Syrian coast for four years. He was killed, while defending Jaffa, and his oft-widowed widow, Isabella, brought the Lusignans back by marrying, for her fourth husband, Amaury de Lusignan, who had succeeded his brother Guy, now deceased, as king of Cyprus. Amaury possessed the two crowns, of Cyprus and Jerusalem, until his death, when the latter devolved on the daughter of Isabella, by her second husband, Conrad. The young queen accepted a husband recommended by the king of France, John de Brienne, a good French knight, who came to Palestine (1210) with a little following of three hundred knights and strove valiantly to reconquer a kingdom for his royally entitled bride. But he strove in vain, and fragment after fragment of his crumbling remnant of dominion fell away until he held almost nothing except Acre. In 1217 the king of Hungary, the duke of Austria and a large army of Crusaders came, professedly, to his help, but gave him none. The king of Hungary got possession of the head of St. Peter, the right hand of St. Thomas and one of the wine vessels of the marriage feast at Cana, and hastened home with his precious relics. The other Crusaders went away to attack Egypt and brought their enterprise to a miserable end. Then King John de Brienne married his daughter Yolante, or Iolanta, to the German emperor, or king of the Romans and of Sicily, Frederick II., and surrendered to that prince his rights and claims to the kingship of Jerusalem. Frederick, at war with the pope, and under the ban of the church, went to Palestine [the sixth Crusade], with 600 knights, and contrived by clever diplomacy and skilful pressure to secure a treaty with the sultan of Egypt (1229), which placed Jerusalem, under some conditions, in his hands, and added other territory to the kingdom which he claimed by right of his wife. He entered the city of Jerusalem and there set the crown on his own head; for the patriarch, the priests, and the monk-knights, of the Hospital and the Temple, shunned him and refused recognition to his work. But Frederick was the only "King of Jerusalem" after Guy de Lusignan, who wore a crown in the Holy City, and exercised in reality the sovereignty to which he pretended. Frederick returned to Italy in 1229 and his kingdom in the East was soon as shadowy and unreal as that of his predecessors had been.—W. Besant and E. H. Palmer, *Jerusalem, ch.* 15, 18.—See also CRUSADES: 1188-1192; 1216-1229; CYPRUS: 1192-1489.

ALSO IN: J. F. Michaud, *History of the Crusades, bk.* 8-12.

1188-1192.—Attempted recovery.—Third Crusade. See CRUSADES: 1188-1192.

1244.—Sack and massacre by Khwarizmians.—After the overthrow of the Khwarizmian (Korasmian or Carismian) empire by the Mongols, its last prince, Gelaleddin, or Jalalu-d-Din, implacably pursued by those savage conquerors, fought them valiantly until he perished, at last, in Kurdistan. His army, made up of many mercenary bands, Turkish and other, then scattered, and two, at least, among its wandering divisions played important parts in subsequent history. Out of one of those Khwarizmian squadrons rose the powerful nation of the Ottoman Turks. The other invaded Syria. "The Mussulman powers of Syria several times united in a league against the Carismians, and drove them back to the other side of the Euphrates. But the spirit of rivalry which at all times divided the princes of the family of Saladin, soon recalled an enemy always redoubtable notwithstanding defeats. At the period of which we are speaking, the princes of Damascus, Carac, and Emessa had just formed an alliance with the Christians of Palestine; they not only restored [1243] Jerusalem, Tiberias, and the principality of Galilee to them, but they promised to join them in the conquest of Egypt, a conquest for which the whole of Syria was making preparations. The sultan of Cairo, to avenge himself upon the Christians who had broken the treaties concluded with him, to punish their new allies, and protect himself from their invasion, determined to apply for succour to the hordes of Carismia; and sent deputies to the leaders of these barbarians, promising to abandon Palestine to them, if they subdued it. This proposition was accepted with joy, and 20,000 horsemen, animated by a thirst for booty and slaughter, hastened from the further parts of Mesopotamia, . . . ravaged the territory of Tripoli

and the principality of Galilee, and the flames which everywhere accompanied their steps announced their arrival to the inhabitants of Jerusalem. Fortifications scarcely commenced, and the small number of warriors in the holy city, left not the least hope of being able to repel the unexpected attacks of such a formidable enemy. The whole population of Jerusalem resolved to fly, under the guidance of the knights of the Hospital and the Temple. There only remained in the city the sick and a few inhabitants who could not make their minds up to abandon their homes and their infirm kindred. The Carismians . . . entered Jerusalem sword in hand, massacred all they met, and . . . had recourse to a most odious stratagem to lure back the inhabitants who had taken flight. They raised the standards of the cross upon every tower, and set all the bells ringing." The retreating Christians were deceived. They persuaded themselves that a miracle had been wrought; "that God had taken pity on his people, and would not permit the city of Christ to be defiled by the presence of a sacrilegious horde. Seven thousand fugitives, deceived by this hope, returned to Jerusalem and gave themselves up to the fury of the Carismians, who put them all to the sword. Torrents of blood flowed through the streets and along the roads. A troop of nuns, children, and aged people, who had sought refuge in the church of the Holy Sepulchre, were massacred at the foot of the altars. The Carismians finding nothing among the living to satisfy their fury, burst open the sepulchres, and gave the coffins and remains of the dead up to the flames; the tomb of Christ, that of Godfrey of Bouillon, the sacred relics of the martyrs and heroes of the faith,—nothing was respected, and Jerusalem then witnessed within its walls such cruelties and profanations as had never taken place in the most barbarous wars, or in days marked by the anger of God." Subsequently the Christians of Palestine rallied, united their forces with those of the Moslem princes of Damascus and Emessa, and gave battle to the Carismians on the plains of Gaza; but they suffered a terrible defeat, leaving 30,000 dead on the field. Nearly all Palestine was then at the mercy of the savages, and Damascus was speedily subjugated. But the sultan of Cairo, beginning to fear the allies he had employed, turned his arms sharply against them, defeated them in two successive battles, and history tells nothing more of the career of these last adventures of the Carismian or Khwarizmian name.—J. F. Michaud, *History of the Crusades, bk.* 13.

Also in: C. G. Addison, *Knights Templars, ch.* 6.

1291.—Fall of Acre.—End of the Christian kingdom.—"Since the death of the Emperor Frederic II. [1250], the baseless throne of Jerusalem had found a claimant in Hugh de Lusignan, King of Cyprus, who, as lineally descended from Alice, daughter of Queen Isabella, was, in fact, the next heir, after failure of issue by the marriage of Frederic and Iolanta de Brienne. His claims were opposed by the partisans of Charles of Anjou, King of the Sicilies, . . . upon the double pretensions of a papal title to all the forfeited dignities of the imperial house of Hohenstauffen, and of a bargain with Mary of Antioch; whose rights, although she was descended only from a younger sister of Alice, he had eagerly purchased. But the prior title of the house of Cyprus was more generally recognised in Palestine; the coronation of Hugh had been celebrated at Tyre; and the last idle pageant of regal state in Palestine was exhibited by the race of Lusignan. Acre . . . had been for a century the capital of the Latin kingdom, [and] was now become the last refuge of the Christian population of Palestine. Its defences were strong, its inhabitants numerous; but any state of society more vicious, disorderly, and helpless than its condition can scarcely be imagined. Within its walls were crowded a promiscuous multitude, of every European nation, all equally disclaiming obedience to a general government, and enjoying impunity for every crime under the nominal jurisdiction of independent tribunals. Of these there were no less than seventeen; in which the papal legate, the king of Jerusalem, the despoiled great feudatories of his realm, the three military orders, the colonies of the maritime Italian republics, and the representatives of the princes of the West, all arrogated sovereign rights, and all abused them by the venal protection of offenders. . . . [The sultan of Egypt finally besieged the city.] All the wretched inhabitants who could find such opportunities of escape, thronged on board the numerous vessels in the harbour, which set sail for Europe; and the last defence of Acre was abandoned to about 12,000 men, for the most part the soldiery of the three military orders. . . . But the whole force of the Mameluke empire, in its yet youthful vigour, had been collected for their destruction." After a fierce siege of thirty-three days, one of the principal defensive works, described in contemporary accounts as "the Cursed Tower," was shattered, and the besiegers entered the city. The cowardly Lusignan had escaped by a stolen flight the night before. The Teutonic Knights, the Templars and the Hospitallers stood their ground with hopeless valor. Of the latter only seven escaped. "Bursting through the city, the savage victors pursued to the strand the unarmed and fleeing population, who had wildly sought a means of escape, which was denied not less by the fury of the elements than by the want of sufficient shipping. By the relentless cruelty of their pursuers, the sands and the waves were dyed with the blood of the fugitives; all who survived the first horrid massacre were doomed to a hopeless slavery; and the last catastrophe of the Crusades cost life or liberty to 60,000 Christians. . . . The Christian population of the few maritime towns which had yet been retained fled to Cyprus, or submitted their necks, without a struggle, to the Moslem yoke; and, after a bloody contest of two hundred years, the possession of the Holy Land was finally abandoned to the enemies of the Cross. The fall of Acre closes the annals of the Crusades."—G. Procter, *History of the Crusades, ch.* 5, *sect.* 5.

Also in: J. F. Michaud, *History of the Crusades, v.* 3, *bk.* 15.

1299.—Taken by Templars. See Crusades: 1299.

1516.—Included in Ottoman conquest of Egypt and Syria by Selim I. See Turkey: 1481-1520.

16th-20th centuries.—Under Turkish rule.—Guardianship of Holy Places.—French, Austrian and Russian claims.—Treaty obligations.—British mandate.—"Owing to the discrepancy between Oriental and European ideals of justice and administration, such communities [of 'Frankish' settlers in Turkey] came to desire extra-territorial rights; these were granted by the 'capitulations' to the French in 1535, when Francis I, to the scandal of Christendom, made the first French alliance with Turkey, and when France was granted special privileges in connection with the Holy Places in and around Jerusalem, renewed on several occasions, notably in 1740. . . . In 1689 Turkey had to recognise an Austrian protectorate of the Albanian Catholics, and by the Treaty of Karlowitz, in 1699, to promise protection to the Catholic re-

ligion within her borders, together with the proviso that the Austrian Ambassador might address complaints and requests to the Porte, both as to religion and as to the visits of Pilgrims to the Holy Places at Jerusalem. These rights were confirmed by the Treaties of Passarowitz (1718) and Belgrade (1739) between Turkey and Austria. . . . By the Treaty of Belgrade Austria had to give up all her possessions in the Balkan Peninsula. Russia agreed to retire from the Black Sea. . . . She made, however, a stipulation for the protection of Russian pilgrims to the Holy Places. . . . The renewed 'capitulations' of 1740 gave many privileges to French subjects in the Ottoman dominions, including the control of the Holy Places in Palestine which was to be the immediate cause of the Crimean War."—*History of the Eastern question,* published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1920, *pp.* 8, 9, 10.—By the treaty of Kutchuk Kainardji, signed July 21, 1774, Turkey promised constantly to protect the Christian religion in all its churches. Article VIII specifically guaranteed permission to Russian pilgrims to visit Jerusalem and other places. During the middle of the 19th century Russia again began to press her claims to a protectorate over the Christian subjects of the sultan. Matters came to a crisis through a dispute as to the custody of the Holy Places in Syria with the French, who claimed rights accorded to them by the capitulations of 1535 and 1740. "That Louis Napoleon was the immediate firebrand is indisputable. In 1850 he took up with great zeal the cause of the Roman Catholics in the Near East. In 1852 M. de Lavalette, the French ambassador at Constantinople, was instructed to insist upon the claims of the Latin monks to the guardianship of the Holy Places in Palestine. . . . The privileged position bestowed upon France and its clients by Suleiman the Magnificent had . . . been specifically renewed and guaranteed by the more formal *Capitulations* of May 28, 1740. Since 1740 the Latin monks had neglected their duties as custodians of the Holy Places, the Greeks had stepped into their shoes, with the tacit assent of France who had lost interest in the matter. . . . With studied contempt Nicholas had refused to accord the successful conspirator the courtesy which prevailed between crowned heads: he had addressed him not as 'frère' but as 'bon ami.' The Greek monks at Bethlehem and Jerusalem were to pay for the affront put by the Tsar upon the protector of the Latins. . . . The demands made, on behalf of the Latin monks, by Napoleon were supported by the other Roman Catholic powers: Austria, Spain, Sardinia, Portugal, Belgium, and Naples; and after some delay they were, in substance, conceded by the Sultan. The concession roused bitter resentment in the mind of the Tsar Nicholas, who demanded, from the Porte, its immediate rescission. Thus the Porte found itself, not for the first time, between the upper and the nether millstone; and, in order to escape from that embarrassing situation, the Sultan played an old diplomatic trick. His decision on the points at issue was embodied in a letter to the French chargé d'affaires, and in a Firman addressed to the Greek patriarch at Jerusalem. The language of the two documents was not identical: the letter laid stress upon the substantial concessions to France; the Firman dwelt upon the claims denied. In the upshot France was satisfied, Russia was not. Accordingly, in March, 1853, the Tsar dispatched to Constantinople Prince Menschikoff, a rough and overbearing soldier, who was charged not only to obtain full satisfaction in regard to the Holy Places, but to demand from the Sultan a virtual acknowledgment, embodied in a formal treaty, of the Tsar's protectorate over all the Orthodox subjects of the Porte. On the question of the Holy Places the Tsar had a strong case; his claim to a protectorate over the Greek Church in Turkey was, on the contrary, an extravagant extension of the vague and indefinite engagements contained in the Treaty of Kainardji, and in subsequent conventions concluded between Russia and the Ottoman Empire."—J. A. R. Marriott, *Eastern question, an historical study in European diplomacy, pp.* 224-228.—The Treaty of Paris, 1856, contained stipulations to secure equality of civil rights for the Sultan's Christian subjects and for the protection of foreign residents, travelers and pilgrims in Turkey. The conflicts between Latins and Greeks at Jerusalem continued to maintain a state of friction. Up to the period of the Russo-Turkish War and the Treaty of Berlin in 1878, the Christian powers who had supported Turkey in the Crimean War and the other Congress powers felt themselves driven to make remonstrances to the Turkish government in special cases of injustice or cruelty towards their Christian subjects. "It was repeatedly stated during this period that no Power sought or would seek any exclusive influence in the fulfilment of these common obligations, France alone reserving her rights as to the Holy Places in Palestine."—*History of the Eastern question,* published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1917, *p.* 22.—The question has appeared in a new form since the beginning of the present century, owing to the formal recognition secured by certain powers for their religious, charitable, or educational institutions in Turkey. Between 1901 and 1903 this was done by France, Russia, Germany and Great Britain. After 1904 Italy sought to secure protection over her Catholic missions, but France has never renounced her privileges in this matter, especially in Syria. By the treaty of peace which the Allies imposed upon Turkey in 1920 (See SÈVRES, TREATY OF), the Turkish government was compelled to recognize the establishment of a mandate for Palestine under the League of Nations, the mandate to go to Great Britain. Thus Palestine, and consequently Jerusalem, while still nominally Turkish territory, passed under the guardianship of England, the ancient city being officially termed an "independent" sanjak. There are three patriarchs in Jerusalem, the Latin, the Orthodox and the Armenian, who exercise authority over extensive jurisdictions. Other forms of the Christian faith have also their devotees here, with their churches and numerous institutions, such as the Abyssinian, Coptic, Jacobite, Maronite, etc., besides the various Protestant denominations—the Anglican, German Lutheran, and American churches—all largely segregated in their several quarters, not infrequently asserting their diverse nationalities.

1799.—Bonaparte's failure to overthrow Turco-Egyptian oppression. See FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-August).

1831-1840.—Mehemet Ali's ascendency. See TURKEY: 1831-1840.

1850-1900.—Jewish and Gentile colonies and missions.—Scientific research.—The Jews are specially devoting themselves to founding Zionist "colonies" in all parts of Palestine, but particularly in the suburbs of Jerusalem. (See JEWS: Zionism.) In 1821 the American missions began; and Edward Robinson commenced investigations in 1838 which inaugurated scientific explorations in Palestine. After the Prince of Wales (Edward VII) visited Jerusalem, 1862, the important archæ-

ological excavations of the Palestine Exploration Fund began which have brought to light many "finds" in Jerusalem. That same year a convention for the protection and preservation of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre was signed by France, Russia and Turkey. In 1868, the Pool of Bethesda was recovered; 1875-1885, the hospice of the Knights of St. John, erected during the Latin Kingdom, was exposed, and in 1880 an important inscription of the time of the prophet Isaiah was discovered in a rock-cut passage leading from the virgin's fount to the pool of Siloam. In 1894, the reputed garden tomb of Christ, outside the Damascus gate, with adjoining land was purchased by subscriptions raised in England. German work in archæology and in the "mission" field have also been thorough, and the German emperor's visit to Jerusalem in 1898 was marked by an assertion of "protective" interest almost as alarming politically as that of Nicholas I of Russia fifty years before him. He dedicated the Church of the Redeemer and gave to the German Catholics the site of the house of the Virgin Mary. Meantime in 1892, a French company had constructed the narrow-gauge railroad to Jaffa, greatly stimulating tourist travel.

1917.—British capture of Jerusalem.—Allenby's entry.—End of Turkish rule.—On October 27 the British forces under General Allenby began bombarding the Turkish positions at Gaza, which fell after a determined resistance on November 7. The Turks retreated, and on the same evening the British pursuit was ten miles beyond Gaza. Joppa was captured on November 17 and on December 9 the British occupied Jerusalem, when the Holy City fell for the eighteenth time in its long history. Two days later General Allenby entered the city on foot, proclaimed martial law and announced that property and all sacred buildings would be protected. The Turks had maintained an ineffective fire from the Mount of Olives and positions close to the city, though from the British side no firing occurred within a considerable distance from the walls.—See also World War: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: c, 2; I. Summary: b, 12.

1918.—British occupation. See World War: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 9.

1920.—Capital of new commonwealth.—The Supreme Council of the Allied Powers decided at San Remo on April 25 to give a mandate for Palestine to Great Britain. British troops remained in occupation until July 1, on which day Sir Herbert L. Samuel was appointed high commissioner to administer the new commonwealth, with Jerusalem as its capital. Colonel Ronald Storrs was appointed district governor. The Balfour Declaration of November 2, 1917, stated that the British government viewed "with favour the establishment of a national home for the Jewish people." Commenting on this declaration, Winston Churchill, then colonial secretary, made the following statement in an address delivered in Jerusalem on March 31, 1921: "Examine Mr. Balfour's careful words: Palestine to be 'a national home,' not 'the national home,' a great difference in meaning. The establishment of a national home does not mean a Jewish Government to dominate the Arabs. Great Britain is the greatest Moslem State in the world, and is well disposed to the Arabs, and cherishes their friendship. I found since my arrival that the ministrations of the officials make no distinction between Jew and Arab. Great Britain has promised a fair chance for the Zionist movement, but the latter will succeed only on its merits. Above all, there will be respect for the different religions. Tho the Arabs are in a large majority in Palestine, tho the British Empire has accepted the mandate in the wider sense, Palestine belongs to the whole world, and this city of Jerusalem is almost equally sacred to Moslems, Christians, and Jews, and not only to the dwellers in Palestine, but everywhere. Instead of sharing miseries through quarreling, the Palestinians should share blessings through co-operation."

Also in: C. R. Conder, *City of Jerusalem.*—F. J. Bliss, *Development of Palestine exploration.*—G. A. Smith, *Jerusalem, the topography, economics and history.*—C. W. Wilson, *Golgotha and the holy sepulchre.*—C. Warren, *Jerusalem.*

JERUSALEM TALMUD. See Talmud.

JERVIS, John, Earl of St. Vincent (1735-1823), English admiral. He ranks among the greatest naval commanders in establishing British naval supremacy; assumed command of the Mediterranean fleet, 1795; victorious over the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, 1797; first lord of the admiralty, 1801-1803.

JESUATES.—"The Jesuates, so called from their custom of incessantly crying through the streets, 'Praised be Jesus Christ,' were founded by John Colombino, . . . a native of Siena. . . . The congregation was suppressed . . . by Clement IX, because some of the houses of the wealthy 'Padri dell' acqua vite,' as they were called, engaged in the business of distilling liquors and practising pharmacy (1668)."—J. Alzog, *Manual of Universal church history, v. 3, p. 149.*

JESUITS: 1540-1556.—Character of founder of the Society of Jesus.—Principles and aims.—"In the convent of the Theatines at Venice, under the eye of Caraffa a Spanish gentleman took up his abode, tended the poor in the hospitals, went about in rags, starved himself almost to death, and often sallied into the streets, mounted on stones, and, waving his hat to invite the passers-by, began to preach in a strange jargon of mingled Castilian and Tuscan. The Theatines were among the most zealous and rigid of men; but to this enthusiastic neophyte their discipline seemed lax, and their movements sluggish; for his own mind, naturally passionate and imaginative, had passed through a training which had given to all its peculiarities a morbid intensity and energy. In his early life he had been the very prototype of the hero of Cervantes. . . . [Then] a severe wound stretched him on a bed of sickness. His constitution was shattered and he was doomed to be a cripple for life. The palm of strength, grace and skill in knightly exercises, was no longer for him. . . . A new vision then arose in his mind, and mingled itself with his own delusions in a manner which to most Englishmen must seem singular, but which those who know how close was the union between religion and chivalry in Spain will be at no loss to understand. He would still be a soldier; he would still be a knight errant; but the soldier and knight errant of the spouse of Christ. . . . His restless spirit led him to the Syrian deserts, and to the chapel of the Holy Sepulchre. Thence he wandered back to the farthest West, and astonished the convents of Spain and the schools of France by his penances and vigils. . . . Such was the celebrated Ignatius Loyola, who, in the great Catholic reaction, bore the same part which Luther bore in the great Protestant movement. Dissatisfied with the system of the Theatines, the enthusiastic Spaniard turned his face towards Rome. . . . His activity and zeal bore down all opposition; and under his rule the order of Jesuits began to exist, and grew rapidly to the full measure of his gigantic

powers. With what vehemence, with what policy, with what exact discipline, with what dauntless courage, with what self-denial, with what forgetfulness of the dearest private ties, with what intense and stubborn devotion to a single end, with what unscrupulous laxity and versatility in the choice of means, the Jesuits fought the battle of their church, is written in every page of the annals of Europe during several generations. In the order of Jesus was concentrated the quintessence of the Catholic spirit; and the history of the order of Jesus is the history of the great Catholic reaction. That order possessed itself at once of all the strongholds which command the public mind, of the pulpit, of the press, of the confessional, of the academies. Wherever the Jesuit preached, the church was too small for the hearts of the young, animating the courage of the timid, holding up the crucifix before the eyes of the dying. Nor was it less their office to plot against the thrones and lives of the apostate kings, to spread evil rumors, to raise tumults, to inflame civil wars, to arm the hand of the assassin. Inflexible in nothing but in their fidelity to the Church, they were equally ready to appeal in her cause to the spirit of loyalty and to the spirit of freedom. Extreme doctrines of obedience and extreme doctrines of liberty, the right of rulers to misgovern the people, the right of every one of the people to plunge his knife in the heart of a bad ruler, were inculcated by the same man, according as he addressed himself to the subject of Philip or to the subject of Elizabeth. Some described these divines as the most rigid, others

FOUNDING OF THE SOCIETY OF JESUS
(After the painting by Wilhelm Lindenschmit)

audience. The name of Jesuit on a titlepage secured the circulation of a book. It was in the ears of the Jesuit that the powerful noble, and the beautiful, breathed the secret history of their lives. It was at the feet of the Jesuit that the youth of the higher and middle classes were brought up from childhood to manhood, from the first rudiments to the courses of rhetoric and philosophy. Literature and science, lately associated with infidelity or with heresy, now became the allies of orthodoxy. Dominant in the South of Europe, the great order soon went forth conquering and to conquer. In spite of oceans and desert, of hunger and pestilence, of spies and penal laws, of dungeons and racks, of gibbets and quartering-blocks, Jesuits were to be found under every disguise, and in every country; scholars, physicians, merchants, serving men; in the hostile court of Sweden, in the old manor-house of Cheshire, among the hovels of Connaught; arguing, instructing, consoling, stealing away the as the most indulgent of spiritual directors; and both descriptions were correct. The truly devout listened with awe to the high and saintly morality of the Jesuit. The gay cavalier who had run his rival through the body, the frail beauty who had forgotten her marriage-vow, found in the Jesuit an easy well-bred man of the world, who knew how to make allowance for the little irregularities of people of fashion. The confessor was strict or lax, according to the temper of the penitent. The first object was to drive no person out of the pale of the Church. Since there were bad people, it was better that they should be bad Catholics than bad Protestants. If a person was so unfortunate as to be a bravo, a libertine, or a gambler, that was no reason for making him a heretic too. The Old World was not wide enough for this strange activity. The Jesuits invaded all the countries which the great maritime discoveries of the preceding age had laid open to European enterprise. They were to be found in

the depths of the Peruvian mines, at the marts of the African slave-caravans, on the shores of the Spice Islands, in the observatories of China. They made converts in regions which neither avarice nor curiosity had tempted any of their countrymen to enter; and preached and disputed in tongues of which no other native of the West understood a word."—T. B. Macaulay, *Essays, historical and miscellaneous, pp.* 478-481.

"Experience had shown that the old monastic orders were no longer sufficient. . . . About 1540, therefore, an idea began to be entertained at Rome that a new order was needed; the plan was not to abolish the old ones, but to found new ones which should better answer the required ends. The most important of them was the Society of Jesus. But in this case the moving cause did not proceed from Rome. Among the wars of Charles V. we must recur to the first contest at Navarra, in 1521. It was on this occasion, in defending Pamplona against the French, that Loyola received the wound which was to cause the monkish tendency to prevail over the chivalrous element in his nature. A kind of Catholicism still prevailed in Spain which no longer existed anywhere else. Its vigour may be traced to the fact that during the whole of the Middle Ages it was always in hostile contact with Islam, with the Mohammedan infidels. The crusades here had never come to an end. . . . As yet untainted by heresy, and suffering from no decline, in Spain, Catholicism was as eager for conquest as it had been in all the West in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. It was from the nation possessing this temperament that the founder of the order of the Jesuits sprang. Ignatius Loyola (born 1491) was a Spanish knight, possessing the two-fold tendencies which distinguish the knighthood of the Middle Ages. He was a gallant swordsman, delighting in martial feats and romantic love adventures; but he was at the same time animated by a glowing enthusiasm for the Church and her supremacy, even during the early period of his life. These two tendencies were striving together in his character, until the event took place which threw him upon a bed of suffering. No sooner was he compelled to renounce his worldly knighthood, than he was sure that he was called upon to found a new order of spiritual knighthood, like that of which he had read in the chivalrous romance, 'Amadis.' Entirely unaffected by the Reformation, what he understood by this was a spiritual brotherhood in the true mediæval sense, which should convert the heathen in the newly-discovered countries of the world. With all the zeal of a Spaniard he decided to live to the Catholic Church alone; he chastised his body with penances and all kinds of privations, made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, and, in order to complete his defective education, he visited the university of Paris; it was among his comrades there that he formed the first associations out of which the order was afterwards formed. Among these was Jacob Lainez; he was Loyola's fellow-countryman, the organizing head who was to stamp his impress upon the order. . . . Then came the spread of the new doctrines, the mighty progress of Protestantism. No one who was heartily attached to the old Church could doubt that there was work for such an association, for the object now in hand was not to make Christians of the aboriginal inhabitants of Central America, but to reconquer the apostate members of the Romish Church. About 1539 Loyola came with his fraternity to Rome. He did not find favour in all circles; the old orders regarded the new one with jealousy and mistrust; but Pope Paul III. (1534-49) did not allow himself to be misled, and in 1540 gave the fraternity his confirmation, thus constituting Loyola's followers an order, which, on its part, engaged 'to obey in all things the reigning Pope—to go into any country, to Turks, heathen, or heretics, or to whomsoever he might send them, at once, unconditionally, without question or reward.' It is from this time that the special history of the order begins. During the next year Loyola was chosen the first general of the order, an office which he held until his death (1541-56). He was succeeded by Lainez. He was less enthusiastic than his predecessor, had a cooler head, and was more reasonable; he was the man for diplomatic projects and complete and systematic organization. The new order differed in several respects from any previously existing one, but it entirely corresponded to the new era which had begun for the Romish Church. . . . The construc-

LOYOLA
(After Rubens)

tion of the new order was based and carried out on a monarchical-military system. The territories of the Church were divided into provinces; at the head of each of these was a provincial; over the provincials, and chosen by them, the general, who commanded the soldiers of Christ, and was entrusted with dictatorial power, limited only by the opinions of three judges, assistants or admonitors. The general has no superior but the Pope, with whom he communicates directly; he appoints and dismisses all officials, issues orders as to the administration of the order, and rules with undisputed sway. The absolute monarchy which was assigned to the Pope by the Council of Trent, was conferred by him on the general of the Jesuits. Among the four vows of poverty, chastity, obedience, and subjection to the Pope, obedience was the soul of all. To learn and practise this physically and mentally, up to the point where, according to the Jesuit expression, a man becomes 'tanquam lignum et cadaver,' was the ruling principle of the institution. . . . Entire renunciation of the will and judgment in relation

to everything commanded by the superior, blind obedience, unconditional subjection, constitute their ideal. There was but one exception, but even in this there was a reservation. It was expressly stated that there can be no obligation 'ad peccatum mortale vel veniale,' to sinful acts of greater or less importance, 'except when enjoined by the superior, in the name of Jesus Christ,' 'vel in virtute obedientiæ,'—an elastic doctrine which may well be summed up in the dictum that 'the end justifies the means.' Of course, all the members of this order had to renounce all ties of family, home, and country. . . . Of the vow of poverty it is said, in the 'Summarium' of the constitution of the order, that it must be maintained as a 'murus religionis.' No one shall have any property; every one must be content with the meanest furniture and fare, and, if necessity or command require it, he must be ready to beg his bread from door to door ('ostiatim mendicare'). The external aspect of members of the order, their speech and silence, gestures, gait, garb, and bearing shall indicate the prescribed purity of soul. . . . On all these and many other points, the new order only laid greater stress on the precepts which were to be found among the rules of other orders, though in the universal demoralisation of the monastic life they had fallen into disuse. But it decidedly differed from all the others in the manner in which it aimed at obtaining sway in every sphere and every aspect of life. Himself without home or country, and not holding the doctrines of any political party, the disciple of Jesus renounced everything which might alienate him among varying nationalities, pursuing various political aims. Then he did not confine his labours to the pulpit and the confessional; he gained an influence over the rising generation by a systematic attention to education, which had been shamefully neglected by the other orders. He devoted himself to education from the national schools up to the academic chair, and by no means confined himself to the sphere of theology. This was a principle of immense importance. . . . It is a true saying, that 'he who gains the youth possesses the future'; and by devoting themselves to the education of youth, the Jesuits secured a future to the Church more surely than by any other scheme that could have been devised. What the schoolmasters were for the youth, the confessors were for those of riper years; what the clerical teachers were for the common people, the spiritual directors and confidants were for great lords and rulers—for the Jesuits aspired to a place at the side of the great, and at gaining the confidence of kings. It was not long before they could boast of astonishing success."—L. Häusser, *Period of the Reformation, ch.* 20.—"The Society, in 1556, only 16 years after its commencement, counted as many as twelve provinces, 100 houses, and upwards of 1,000 members, dispersed over the whole known world. Their two most conspicuous and important establishments were the Collegio Romano and the German College. They already were in possession of many chairs, and soon monopolised the right of teaching, which gave them a most overwhelming influence."—G. B. Nicolini, *History of the Jesuits, p.* 90.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 16th century: Counter-reformation; EDUCATION: Modern: 16th-17th centuries: Jesuit teaching, etc.; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Catholic Reformation; ITALY: 1530-1600; MONASTICISM: 1534; 16th-19th centuries; PAPACY: 1534-1540; NAVARRE: 1442-1521.

ALSO IN: I. Taylor, *Loyola and Jesuitism in its rudiments.*—S. Rose, *Ignatius Loyola and the early Jesuits.*—T. Hughes, *Loyola and the educational system of the Jesuits.*

1542-1649.—Early Jesuit missionaries.—Their labors in China, India, Paraguay, and Canada.—"In 1542, Xavier landed at Goa, the capital of the Portuguese colony, on the western coast of Hindostan. He took lodgings at the hospital, and mingled with the poor. He associated also with the rich, and even played with them at cards, acting piously upon the motto of the order, 'Ad majorem Dei gloriam.' Having thus won goodwill to himself, he went into the streets, with his hand-bell and crucifix, and, having rung the one, he held up the other, exhorting the multitudes to accept that religion of which it was the emblem. [See also MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: India.] His great facility in acquiring foreign languages helped him much. He visited several times the pearl-fisheries on the Malabar coast, remaining at one time thirteen months, and planting forty-five churches. Cape Comorin, Travancore, Meliapore, the Moluccas, Malacca, and other ports of India, and finally the distant island of Japan—where Christianity was [introduced (see JAPAN: 1542-1593; 1593-1625)] . . . —received his successive visits. Leaving two Jesuits on the island, he returned to settle some matters at Goa, which done, he sailed for China, but died at the island of Sancian, a few leagues from the city of Canton, in 1552—ten years only after his arrival in India. He had in this time established an inquisition and a college at Goa. Numbers of the society, whom he had wisely distributed, had been sent to his aid; and the Christians in India were numbered by hundreds of thousands before the death of this 'Apostle of the Indies.' It has even been said, that he was the means of converting more persons in Asia than the church had lost by the Reformation in Europe. The empire of China, which Xavier was not allowed to enter, was visited, half a century later, by the Jesuit Matthew Ricci, who introduced his religion by means of his great skill in science and art, especially mathematics and drawing. . . . [He] allowed those who received Christianity to retain any rites of their own religion to which they were attached—and died in 1610, bequeathing and recommending his policy to others. [See also MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: China.] This plan of accommodation was far more elaborately carried out by Robert Nobili, who went to Madura, in southern Hindostan, as a missionary of the order in 1606. He had observed the obstacle which caste threw in the way of missionary labor, and resolved to remove it. He presented himself as a foreign Brahmin, and attached himself to that class. They had a tradition, that there once had been four roads to truth in India, one of which they had lost. This he professed to restore. He did no violence to their existing ideas or institutions, but simply gave them other interpretations, and in three years he had seventy converted Brahmins about him. From this time he went on gathering crowds of converts, soon numbering 150,000. This facile policy, however, attracted the notice of the other religious orders, was loudly complained of at Rome, and, after almost an entire century of agitation, was condemned in 1704 by a special legation, appointed by Clement XI to inquire into the matter of complaint. . . . The attention of the society was early directed to our own continent, and its missions everywhere anticipated the settlements. The most remarkable missions were in South America. [See BRAZIL: 1510-1661; URUGUAY: 1515-1624.] Missionaries had been scattered over the whole continent, everywhere making converts, but doing

nothing for the progress of the order. Aquaviva was general. This shrewd man saw the disadvantage of the policy, and at once applied the remedy. He directed, that, leaving only so many missionaries scattered over the continent as should be absolutely necessary, the main force should be concentrated upon a point. Paraguay was chosen. [See PARAGUAY: 1608-1873.] The missionaries formed what were called reductions—that is, villages into which the Indians were collected from their roving life, taught the ruder arts of civilization, and some of the rites and duties of the Christian religion. These villages were regularly laid out with streets, running each way from a public square, having a Church, workshops and dwellings. Each family had a small piece of land assigned for cultivation, and all were reduced to the most systematic habits of industry and good order. . . . The men were trained to arms, and all the elements of an independent empire were fast coming into being. In 1632, thirty years after the starting of this system, Paraguay had twenty reductions, averaging 1,000 families each, which at a moderate estimate, would give a population of 100,000, and they still went on prospering until three times this number are, by some, said to have been reached. The Jesuits started, in California, in 1642, the same system, which they fully entered upon in 1679. This, next to Paraguay, became their most successful mission."—*Historical sketch of the Jesuits* (*Putnam's Magazine, Sept.*, 1856).—In 1632 the Jesuits entered on their mission work in Canada, or New France, where they supplanted the Récollet friars. (See CANADA: 1620-1630.) "In 1640 Montreal, the site of which had been already indicated by Champlain in 1611, was founded, that there might be a nearer rendezvous than Quebec for the converted Indians. At its occupation a solemn mass was celebrated under a tent, and in France itself the following February a general supplication was offered up that the Queen of Angels would take the Island of Montreal under her protection. In the August of this year a general meeting of French settlers and Indians took place at Montreal, and the festival of the Assumption was solemnised at the island. The new crusading spirit took full possession of the enthusiastic French people, and the niece of Cardinal Richelieu founded a hospital for the natives between the Kennebec and Lake Superior, to which young and nobly-born hospital nuns from Dieppe offered their services. Plans were made for establishing mission posts, not only on the north amongst the Algonkins, but to the south of Lake Huron, in Michigan and at Green Bay, and so on as far as the regions to the west. The maps of the Jesuits prove that before 1660 they had traced the waters of Lake Erie and Lake Superior and had seen Lake Michigan. The Huron mission embraced principally the country lying between Lake Simcoe and Georgian Bay, building its stations on the rivers and shores. [See HURONS; MICHIGAN: 1640-1671.] But the French missionaries, however much they might desire it, could not keep outside the intertribal strifes of the natives around them. Succeeding to Champlain's policy, they continued to aid the Algonkins and Hurons against their inveterate enemies the Iroquois. The Iroquois retaliated by the most horrible cruelty and revenge. There was no peace along the borders of this wild country, and missionaries and colonists carried their lives in their hands. In 1648 St. Joseph, a Huron mission town on the shores of Lake Simcoe, was burned down and destroyed by the Iroquois, and Père Daniel, the Jesuit leader, killed under circumstances of great atrocity. In 1649 St. Ignace, a station at the corner of Georgian Bay, was sacked, and there the pious Brebeuf met his end, after having suffered the most horrible tortures the Indians could invent. Brebeuf, after being hacked in the face and burnt all over the body with torches and red-hot iron, was scalped alive, and died after three hours' suffering. His companion, the gentle Gabriel Lallemand, endured terrible tortures for seventeen hours."—W. P. Greswell, *History of the Dominion of Canada, ch.* 6.—The Hurons were dispersed and their nation destroyed by these attacks of the Iroquois. "With the fall of the Hurons fell the best hope of the Canadian mission. They, and the stable and populous communities around them, had been the rude material from which the Jesuit would have formed his Christian empire in the wilderness; but, one by one, these kindred peoples were uprooted and swept away, while the neighboring Algonquins, to whom they had been a bulwark, were involved with them in a common ruin. The land of promise was turned to a solitude and a desolation. There was still work in hand, it is true,—vast regions to explore, and countless heathens to snatch from perdition; but these, for the most part, were remote and scattered hordes, from whose conversion it was vain to look for the same solid and decisive results. In a measure, the occupation of the Jesuits was gone. Some of them went home, 'well resolved,' writes the Father Superior, 'to return to the combat at the first sound of the trumpet'; while of those who remained, about twenty in number, several soon fell victims to famine, hardship, and the Iroquois. A few years more, and Canada ceased to be a mission; political and commercial interests gradually became ascendant, and the story of Jesuit propagandism was interwoven with her civil and military annals."—F. Parkman, *Jesuits in North America, ch.* 34.—See also CANADA: 1606-1608; 1608-1611; 1634-1652; 1634-1673; MARYLAND: 1633-1637; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: 17th-19th centuries; North America.

1558.—Mission founded in Abyssinia. See ABYSSINIA: 15th-19th centuries.

1572-1603.—Persecution in England under Elizabeth. See ENGLAND: 1585-1587.

1573-1592.—Spanish predominance.—Conflict with pope.—Changes in the Order.—"At the first establishment of the Order, the elder and already educated men, who had just entered it, were for the most part Spaniards; the members joining it from other nations were chiefly young men, whose characters had yet to be formed. It followed naturally that the government of the society was, for the first ten years, almost entirely in Spanish hands. The first general congregation was composed of twenty-five members, eighteen of whom were Spaniards. The first three generals belonged to the same nation. After the death of the third, Borgia, in the year 1573, it was once more a Spaniard, Polanco, who had the best prospect of election. It was however manifest that his elevation would not have been regarded favourably, even in Spain itself. There were many new converts in the society who were Christianized Jews. Polanco also belonged to this class, and it was not thought desirable that the supreme authority in a body so powerful, and so monarchically constituted, should be confided to such hands. Pope Gregory XIV., who had received certain intimations on this subject, considered a change to be expedient on other grounds also. When a deputation presented itself before him from the congregation assembled to elect their general, Greg-

ory inquired how many votes were possessed by each nation; the reply showed that Spain held more than all the others put together. He then asked from which nation the generals of the order had hitherto been taken. He was told that there had been three, all Spaniards. 'It will be just, then,' replied Gregory, 'that for once you should choose one from among the other nations.' He even proposed a candidate for their election. The Jesuits opposed themselves for a moment to this suggestion, as a violation of their privileges, but concluded by electing the very man proposed by the pontiff. This was Eberhard Mercurianus. A material change was at once perceived, as the consequence of this choice. Mercurianus, a weak and irresolute man, resigned the government of affairs, first indeed to a Spaniard again, but afterwards to a Frenchman, his official admonitor; factions were formed, one expelling the other from the offices of importance, and the ruling powers of the Order now began to meet occasional resistance from its subordinate members. But a circumstance of much higher moment was, that on the next vacancy—in the year 1581—this office was conferred on Claudius Acquaviva, a Neapolitan, belonging to a house previously attached to the French party, a man of great energy, and only thirty-eight years old. The Spaniards then thought they perceived that their nation, by which the society had been founded and guided on its early path, was now to be forever excluded from the generalship. Thereupon they became discontented and refractory, and conceived the design of making themselves less dependent on Rome. . . . They first had recourse to the national spiritual authority of their own country—the Inquisition. . . . One of the discontented Jesuits, impelled, as he affirmed, by a scruple of conscience, accused his order of concealing, and even remitting, transgressions of the kind so reserved, when the criminal was one of their society. The Inquisition immediately caused the Provincial implicated, together with his most active associates, to be arrested. Other accusations being made in consequence of these arrests, the Inquisition commanded that the statutes of the order should be placed before it, and proceeded to make further seizures of parties accused. . . . The Inquisition was, however, competent to inflict a punishment on the criminal only: it could not prescribe changes in the regulations of the society. When the affair, therefore, had proceeded thus far, the discontented members applied to the king also, assailing him with long memorials, wherein they complained of the defects in their constitution. The character of this constitution had never been agreeable to Philip II.; he used to say that he could see through all the other orders, but that the order of Jesuits he could not understand. . . . He at once commanded Manrique, bishop of Carthagena, to subject the Order to a visitation, with particular reference to these points. . . . The character of Sixtus V. made it particularly easy for Acquaviva to excite the antipathies of that pontiff against the proceedings of the Spaniards. Pope Sixtus had formed the hope, as we know, of rendering Rome, more decidedly than it ever yet was, the metropolis of Christendom. Acquaviva assured him, that the object really laboured for in Spain was no other than increased independence of Rome. Pope Sixtus hated nothing so much as illegitimate birth; and Acquaviva caused him to be informed that Manrique, the bishop selected as 'Visitator' of the Jesuits, was illegitimate. These were reasons sufficient to make Sixtus recall the assent he had already given to the visitation. He even summoned the case of the provincial before the tribunals of Rome. From his successor, Gregory XIV., the general succeeded in obtaining a formal confirmation of the rule of the order. But his antagonists also were unyielding and crafty. They perceived that the general must be attacked in the court of Rome itself. They availed themselves of his momentary absence. . . . In the summer of 1592, at the request of the Spanish Jesuits and Philip II., but without the knowledge of Acquaviva, the pontiff commanded that a general congregation should be held. Astonished and alarmed, Acquaviva hastened back. To the generals of the Jesuits these 'Congregations' were no less inconvenient than were the Convocations of the Church to the popes; and if his predecessors were anxious to avoid them, how much more cause had Acquaviva, against whom there prevailed so active an enmity! But he was soon convinced that the arrangement was irrevocable; he therefore resumed his composure and said, 'We are obedient sons; let the will of the holy father be done.' . . . Philip of Spain had demanded some changes, and had recommended others for consideration. On two things he insisted: the resignation of certain papal privileges; those of reading forbidden books, for example, and of granting absolution for the crime of heresy; and a law, by virtue of which every novice who entered the order should surrender whatever patrimonial rights he might possess, and should even resign all his benefices. These were matters in regard to which the order came into collision with the Inquisition and the civil government. After some hesitation, the demands of the king were complied with, and principally through the influence of Acquaviva himself. But the points recommended by Philip for consideration were of much higher moment. First of all came the questions, whether the authority of the superiors should not be limited to a certain period; and whether a general congregation should not be held at certain fixed intervals? The very essence and being of the institute, the rights of absolute sovereignty, were here brought into question. Acquaviva was not on this occasion disposed to comply. After an animated discussion, the congregation rejected these propositions of Philip; but the pope, also, was convinced of their necessity. What had been refused to the king was now commanded by the pope. By the plenitude of his apostolic power, he determined and ordained that the superiors and rectors should be changed every third year; and that, at the expiration of every sixth year, a general congregation should be assembled. It is, indeed, true that the execution of these ordinances did not effect so much as had been hoped from them. . . . It was, nevertheless, a very serious blow to the society, that it had been compelled, by internal revolt and interference from without, to a change in its statutes."—L. von Ranke, *History of the popes, v. 2, bk. 6, sect. 9.*—See also PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Language: 1600: Spanish power at its height.

1581-1641.—Hostility of Paulistas of Brazil.—Opposition to enslavement of Indians. See BRAZIL: 1531-1641.

1595.—Expulsion from Paris. See FRANCE: 1593-1598.

1606.—Exclusion from Venice. See PAPACY: 1605-1700; VENICE: 1606-1607.

1608-1613.—Settlement in Maine. See MAINE: 1608-1613.

1653-1660.—First controversy and conflict with Jansenists. See PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1602-1700.

1702-1715.—Renewed conflict with Jansenism in France.—Bull Unigenitus. See PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1702-1715; FRANCE: Survey of France on the eve of revolution: Résumé of causes.

1757-1773.—Suppression of the society in Portugal and Portuguese dominions.—In 1757, a series of measures intended to break the power, if not to end the existence, of the Society of Jesus, in Portugal and the Portuguese dominions, was undertaken by the great Portuguese minister, Carvalho, better known by his later title as the Marquis of Pombal. "It is not necessary to speculate on the various motives which induced Carvalho to attack the Jesuits, but the principal cause lay in the fact that they were wealthy and powerful, and therefore a dangerous force in an absolutist monarchy. It must be remembered that the Jesuits of the 18th century formed a very different class of men to their predecessors. They were no longer intrepid missionary pioneers, but a corporation of wealthy traders, who made use of their spiritual position to further the cause of their commerce. They had done a great work in America by opening up the interior of Brazil and converting the natives, and their administration of Paraguay, one of the most interesting achievements in the whole history of Christianity, was without doubt a blessing to the people. But by the middle of the 18th century they had gone too far. It was one thing to convert the natives of Brazil, and another to absorb much of the wealth of that country, in doing which they prejudiced not only the Crown but the Portuguese people, whom they kept from settling in the territory under their rule. Whether it was a sufficient reason for Carvalho to attack the order, because it was wealthy and powerful, and had departed from its primitive simplicity, is a question for every one to decide for themselves, but that this was the reason, and that the various excuses alleged by the admirers of the great minister are without foundation, is an undoubted fact. On September 19, 1757, the first important blow was struck, when the king's Jesuit confessor was dismissed, and all Jesuits were forbidden to come to Court. Carvalho, in the name of the King of Portugal, also formally denounced the order at Rome, and Benedict XIV., the then Pope, appointed the Cardinal de Saldanha, a friend of the minister, Visitor and Reformer of the Society of Jesus. The cardinal did not take long in making up his mind, and May 15, 1758, he forbade the Jesuits to engage in trade. An attempt upon the king's life, which shortly followed this measure, gave the minister the opportunity he wanted for urging the suppression of the famous society. The history of the Tavora plot, which culminated in this attempt, is one of the most mysterious affairs in the whole history of Portugal. . . . The three leaders of the plot were the Duke of Aveiro, a descendant of John II., and one of the greatest noblemen in Portugal, the Marquis of Tavora, who had filled with credit the post of Governor-general of India, and the Count of Atouguia, a descendant of the gallant Dom Luis de Athaide, the defender of Goa; but the heart and soul of the conspiracy was the Marchioness of Tavora, a beautiful and ambitious woman, who was bitterly offended because her husband had not been made a duke. The confessor of this lady was a Jesuit named Gabriel Malagrida. . . . The evidence on all sides is most contradictory, and all that is certain is that the king was fired at and wounded on the night of September 3, 1758; and that in the following January, the three noblemen who have been mentioned, the Marchioness of Tavora, Malagrida with seven other Jesuits, and many other individuals of all ranks of life, were arrested as implicated in the attempt to murder. The laymen had but a short trial and, together with the marchioness, were publicly executed ten days after their arrest. King Joseph certainly believed that the real culprits had been seized, and in his gratitude he created Carvalho Count of Oeyras, and encouraged him to pursue his campaign against the Jesuits. On January 19, 1759, the estates belonging to the society were sequestrated; and on September 3rd, all its members were expelled from Portugal, and directions were sent to the viceroys of India and Brazil to expel them likewise. The news of this bold stroke was received with admiration everywhere, except at Rome, and it became noised abroad that a great minister was ruling in Portugal. . . . In 1764 the Jesuit priest Malagrida was burnt alive, not as a traitor but as a heretic and imposter, on account of some crazy tractates he had written. The man was regarded as a martyr, and all communication between Portugal and the Holy See was broken off for two years, while the Portuguese minister exerted all his influence with the Courts of France and Spain to procure the entire suppression of the society which he hated. The king supported him consistently, and after another attempt upon his life in 1769, which the minister as usual attributed to the Jesuits, King Joseph created his faithful servant Marquis of Pombal, by which title he is best known to fame. The prime ministers of France and Spain cordially acquiesced in the hatred of the Jesuits, for both the Duc de Choiseul and the Count d'Aranda had something of Pombal's spirit in them, and imitated his policy; in both countries the society, which on its foundation had done so much for Catholicism and Christianity, was proscribed, and the worthy members treated with as much rigour as the unworthy; and finally in 1773 Pope Clement XIV. solemnly abolished the Society of Jesus. King Joseph did not long survive this triumph of his minister, for he died on February 24, 1777, and the Marquis of Pombal, then an old man of 77, was at once dismissed from office."—H. M. Stephens, *Story of Portugal, ch.* 16.

ALSO IN: G. B. Nicolini, *History of the Jesuits, ch.* 15.—T. Griesinger, *Jesuits, v.* 2, *bk.* 6, *ch.* 4.

1761-1769.—Proceedings against the Order in the Parlement of Paris.—Suppression in France, Spain, Bavaria, Parma, Modena, Venice.—Demands on the pope for abolition of the Society.—"Father Antoine Lavalette, 'procureur' of the Jesuit Missions in the Antilles, resided in that capacity at St. Pierre in the island of Martinique. He was a man of talent, energy, and enterprise; and, following an example by no means uncommon in the Society, he had been for many years engaged in mercantile transactions on an extensive scale, and with eminent success. [He sold the products of Jesuit estates in Martinique, to carry on the work of the mission. Jesuit writers claim that the prohibition concerning trade refers to buying for little and selling for much—acting simply as commercial middle-man—not to the selling of produce of the order at market prices.] It was an occupation expressly prohibited to missionaries; but the Jesuits were in the habit of evading the difficulty by means of an ingenious fiction. Lavalette was in correspondence with the principal commercial firms in France, and particularly with that of Lioncy Brothers and Gouffre, of Marseilles. He made frequent consignments of mer-

chandise to their house, which were covered by bills of exchange, drawn in Martinique and accepted by them. For a time the traffic proceeded prosperously; but it so happened that upon the breaking out of the Seven Years' War, several ships belonging to Lavalette, richly freighted with West Indian produce, were captured by the English cruisers, and their cargoes confiscated. The immediate loss fell upon Lioncy and Gouffre, to whom these vessels were consigned," and they were driven to bankruptcy, the General of the Society of Jesus refusing to be responsible for the obligations of his subordinate, Father Lavalette. "Under these circumstances the creditors determined to attack the Jesuit community as a corporate body," and the latter were so singularly unwary, for once, as not only to contest the claim before the Parliament of Paris, but to appeal to the constitutions of their Society in support of their contention, that each college was independent in the matter of temporal property, and that no corporate responsibility could exist. "The Parliament at once demanded that the constitutions thus referred to should be examined. The Jesuits were ordered to furnish a copy of them; they obeyed. . . . The compulsory production of these mysterious records, which had never before been inspected by any but Jesuit eyes, was an event of crucial significance. It was the turning-point of the whole affair; and its consequences were disastrous." As a first consequence, "the court condemned the General of the Jesuits, and in his person the whole Society which he governed, to acquit the bills of exchange still outstanding, together with interest and damages, within the space of a year from the date of the 'arrêt.' In default of payment the debt was made recoverable upon the common property of the Order, excepting only the endowments specially restricted to particular colleges. The delight of the public, who were present on the occasion in great numbers, 'was excessive,' says Barbier, 'and even indecent.'" As a second consequence, the Parliament, on the 6th of August, 1761, "condemned a quantity of publications by the Jesuits, dating from the year 1590 downwards, to be torn and burnt by the executioner; and the next day this was duly carried out in the court of the Palais de Justice. Further, the 'arrêt' prohibited the king's subjects from entering the said Society; forbade the fathers to give instruction, private or public, in theology, philosophy, or humanity; and ordered their schools and colleges to be closed. The accusation brought against their books was . . . that of teaching 'abominable and murderous doctrine,' of justifying sedition, rebellion, and regicide. . . . The Government replied to these bold measures by ordering the Parliament to suspend the execution of its 'arrêts' for the space of a year. The Parliament affected to obey, but stipulated, in registering the letters-patent, that the delay should not extend beyond the 1st of April, 1762, and made other provisions which left them virtually at liberty to proceed as they might think proper. The Jesuits . . . relied too confidently on the protection of the Crown. . . . But the prestige of the monarchy was now seriously impaired, and it was no longer wise or safe for a King of France to undertake openly the defence of any institution which had incurred a deliberate sentence of condemnation from the mass of his people." In November, 1761, a meeting of French prelates was summoned by the Royal Council to consider and report upon several questions relative to the utility of the Society of Jesus, the character of its teaching and conduct, and the modifications, if any, which should be proposed as to the extent of authority exercised by the General of the Society. The bishops, by a large majority, made a report favorable to the Jesuits, but recommended, "as reasonable concessions to public opinion, certain alterations in its statutes and practical administration. . . . This project of compromise was forwarded to Rome for the consideration of the Pope and the General; and Louis gave them to understand, through his ambassador, that upon no other conditions would it be possible to stem the tide of opposition, and to maintain the Jesuits as a body corporate in France. It was now that the memorable reply was made, either by the General Ricci, or, according to other accounts, by Pope Clement XIII. himself—'Sint ut sunt, aut non sint'; 'Let them remain as they are, or let them exist no longer.'" Even had the proposed reform been accepted, "its success was problematical; but its rejection sealed the fate of the Order. Louis, notwithstanding the ungracious response from Rome, proposed his scheme of conciliation to the Parliament in March, 1762, and annulled at the same time all measures adverse to the Jesuits taken since the 1st of August preceding. The Parliament, secretly encouraged by the Duc de Choiseul, refused to register this edict; the king, after some hesitation, withdrew it; and no available resource remained to shield the Order against its impending destiny. The Parliaments, both of Paris and the Provinces, laid the axe to the root without further delay. By an 'arrêt' of the 1st of April, 1762, the Jesuits were expelled from their 84 colleges in the ressort of the Parliament of Paris, and the example was followed by the provincial tribunals of Rouen, Rennes, Metz, Bordeaux, and Aix. The Society was now assailed by a general chorus of invective and execration. . . . The final blow was struck by the Parliament of Paris on the 6th of August, 1762. . . . The sentence then passed condemned the Society as 'inadmissible, by its nature, in any civilized State, inasmuch as it was contrary to the law of nature, subversive of authority spiritual and temporal, and introduced, under the veil of religion, not an Order sincerely aspiring to evangelical perfection, but rather a political body, of which the essence consists in perpetual attempts to attain, first, absolute independence, and in the end, supreme authority.' . . . The decree concludes by declaring the vows of the Jesuits illegal and void, forbidding them to observe the rules of the Order, to wear its dress, or to correspond with its members. They were to quit their houses within one week, and were to renounce, upon oath, all connection with the Society, upon pain of being disqualified for any ecclesiastical charge or public employment. The provincial Parliaments followed the lead of the capital, though in some few instances the decree of suppression was opposed, and carried only by a small majority; while at Besançon and Douai the decision was in favour of the Society. In Lorraine, too, under the peaceful government of Stanislas Leczinski, and in Alsace, where they were powerfully protected by Cardinal de Rohan, Bishop of Strasburg, the Jesuits were left unmolested. . . . The suppression of the Jesuits—the most important act of the administration of the Duc de Choiseul—was consummated by a royal ordinance of November, 1764, to which Louis did not give his consent without mistrust and regret. It decreed that the Society should cease to exist throughout his Majesty's dominions; but it permitted the ex-Jesuits to reside in France as private citizens, and

to exercise their ecclesiastical functions under the jurisdiction of the diocesans."—W. H. Jervis, *History of the Church of France, v. 2, ch.* 10.—"Almost immediately afterwards, on the 7th of January, 1765, appeared the bull 'Apostolicum,' by which Clement XIII. condemned, with all the weight of supreme and infallible authority, the measure which had deprived the Holy See of its most valiant defenders. . . . The only effect of the intervention of the Roman Curia was to excite further ebullitions of hostility against the prostrate Order. Charles III. of Spain, yielding, as it is alleged, to the exhortations of the Duc de Choiseul, abolished it through his dominions by a sudden mandate of April 2, 1767. . . . The Pope precipitated the final catastrophe by a further act of imprudence. The young Duke of Parma, a prince of the house of Bourbon, had excluded the Jesuits from his duchy, and had published certain ecclesiastical regulations detrimental to the ancient pretensions of the Roman See. Clement XIII., reviving an antiquated title in virtue of which Parma was claimed as a dependent fief of the Papacy, was rash enough to launch a bull of excommunication against the Duke, and deprived him of his dominions as a rebellious vassal. All the Bourbon sovereigns promptly combined to resent this insult to their family. The Papal Bull was suppressed at Paris, at Madrid, at Lisbon, at Parma, at Naples. The Jesuits were expelled from Venice, from Modena, from Bavaria. The Pontiff was summoned to revoke his 'monitorium'; and on his refusal French troops took possession of Avignon and the Comtat Venaissin, while the King of Naples seized Benevento and Pontecorvo. On the 16th of January, 1769, the ambassadors of Spain, France, and Naples presented a joint note to the Holy Father, demanding that the Order of Jesus should be secularised and abolished for ever. Clement, who had suffered severely from the manifold humiliations and reverses of his Pontificate, was overwhelmed by this last blow, from the effects of which he never rallied. He expired almost suddenly on the 2nd of February, 1769."—W. H. Jervis, *History of the Church of France, v. 2, ch.* 10.

Also in: T. Griesinger, *Jesuits, bk.* 6, *ch.* 6, *bk.* 7, *ch.* 1.—I. de Saint-Amand, *Court of Louis XV, pp.* 222-223.

1769-1871.—Papal suppression and restoration of the Order.—"The attitude of the Roman Catholic Courts was so threatening, and their influence with the Conclave so powerful, that Lorenzo Ganganelli was selected [1769] for the triple crown, as the man best suited for their purposes. Belonging to the Franciscans, who had ever been antagonistic to the Jesuits, he had been a follower of the Augustinian theology, and was not altogether free from Jansenism. The Jesuits even went so far as to pray publicly in their churches for the conversion of the Pope. The pontificate of Clement XIV. has been rendered memorable in history by the Papal decree of July 21, 1773, which in its policy adopted the maxim of Lorenzo Ricci, the inflexible General of the Jesuits, 'Sint ut sunt, aut non sint'—Let us be as we are, or let us not be! That decree declared that, from the very origin of the Order, sorrow, jealousies, and dissensions arose, not only among its own members but between them and the other religious orders and their colleges. After further declaring that, urged as its head by a sense of duty to restore the harmony of the Church, and feeling convinced that the Society could no longer subserve the uses for which it was created, and on other grounds of prudence and governmental wisdom, he by his decree abolished the Order of Jesuits, its offices, houses, and institutes. [See also Rome: Modern city: 1773.] . . . The other religious orders at Rome were jealous that Jesuits should have been the confessors of Sovereigns at Westminster, Madrid, Vienna, Versailles, Lisbon, and Naples. The influences of the Dominicans, the Benedictines, and the Oratorians were accordingly exercised for their suppression. . . . The Papal Bull 'Dominus Redemptor noster' was at first resisted by the Jesuits, and their General, Lorenzo Ricci, was sent to the Castle of St. Angelo. Bernardine Renzi, a female Pythoness, having predicted the death of the Pope, two Jesuits, Coltrano and Venissa, who were suspected of having instigated her prophecies, were consigned to the same prison. All that follows relating to the fate of Ganganelli is of mere historic interest; his end is shrouded in mystery, which has been as yet, and is likely to continue, impenetrable.

CLEMENT XIV
(After the original of Dominico by Cazenave)

According to the revelations of Cardinal de Bernis, Ganganelli was himself apprehensive of dying by poison, and a sinister rumour respecting a cup of chocolate with an infusion of 'Aqua de Tofana,' administered by a pious attendant, was generally prevalent throughout Europe; but the time has long since passed for an inquest over the deathbed of Clement XIV."—*Jesuits and their expulsion from Germany* (*Fraser's Magazine, May*, 1873).—"All that follows the publication of the brief—the death of Ganganelli, the fierce and yet unexhausted disputes about the last year of his life, and the manner of his death—are to us indescribably melancholy and repulsive. . . . We have conflicting statements, both of which cannot be true—churchman against churchman—cardinal against cardinal—even, it should seem, pope against pope. On the one side there is a triumph, hardly disguised, in the terrors, in the sufferings, in the madness, which afflicted the later days of Clement; on the other, the profoundest honour, the deepest commiseration, for a wise and holy Pontiff, who, but for the crime of his enemies, might have enjoyed a long reign of peace and respect and inward satisfaction. There a pro-

tracted agony of remorse in life and anticipated damnation—that damnation, if not distinctly declared, made dubious or averted only by a special miracle:—here an apotheosis—a claim, at least, to canonization. There the judgment of God pronounced in language which hardly affects regret; here more than insinuations, dark charges of poison against persons not named, but therefore involving in the ignominy of possible guilt a large and powerful party. Throughout the history of the Jesuits it is this which strikes, perplexes, and appals the dispassionate student. The intensity with which they were hated surpasses even the intensity with which they hated. Nor is this depth of mutual animosity among those or towards those to whom the Jesuits were most widely opposed, the Protestants, and the adversaries of all religion; but among Roman Catholics—and those not always Jansenists or even Gallicans—among the most ardent assertors of the papal supremacy, monastics of other orders, parliaments, statesmen, kings, bishops, cardinals. Admiration and detestation of the Jesuits divide, as far as feeling is concerned, the Roman Catholic world, with a schism deeper and more implacable than any which arrays Protestant against Protestant, Episcopacy and Independency, Calvinism and Arminianism, Puseyism and Evangelicism. The two parties counterwork each other, write against each other in terms of equal acrimony, misunderstand each other, misrepresent each other, accuse and recriminate upon each other, with the same reckless zeal, in the same unmeasured language—each inflexibly, exclusively identifying his own cause with that of true religion, and involving its adversaries in one sweeping and remorseless condemnation. To us the question of the death of Clement XIV. is purely of historical interest. It is singular enough that Protestant writers are cited as alone doing impartial justice to the Jesuits and their enemies: the Compurgators of the 'Company of Jesus' are Frederick II. and the Encyclopedists. Outcast from Roman Catholic Europe, they found refuge in Prussia, and in the domains of Catherine II., from whence they disputed the validity and disobeyed the decrees of the Pope."—*Clement XIV and the Jesuits* (*Quarterly Review, Sept.*, 1848).—"The Jesuit Order remained in abeyance for a period of forty-two years, until Pius VII. on his return to Rome, after his liberation from the captivity he endured under Napoleon I. at Fontainebleau, issued his brief of August 7, 1814, 'solicitudo omnium,' by which he authorised the surviving members of the Order again to live according to the rules of their founder, to admit novices, and to found colleges. With singular fatuity the Papal Edict for the restoration of the Jesuits, contradicting its own title, assigns on the face of the document as the principal reason for its being issued the recommendation contained in the gracious despatch of August 11, 1800, received from Paul, the then reigning Emperor of the Russias. We have the histories of all nations concurring that Paul was notoriously mad, and within six months from the date of that gracious despatch he was strangled in his palace by the members of his own Court, as the only possible means, as they conceived, of rescuing the Empire from his insane and vicious despotism. In return probably for the successful intercession of Paul, Thadeus Brzozowski, a Pole by birth but a Russian subject, was elected the first General of the restored order. We find a striking comment on his recommendation in the Imperial Ukase of his successor, the Emperor Alexander, by which, in June 1817, he banished the Jesuits from all his dominions. Spain, the scene of their former ignominious treatment, was, under the degraded rule of the Ferdinandian dynasty, the first country to which they were recalled; but they were soon again expelled by the National Cortes. Our limits here confine us to a simple category of their subsequent expulsions from Roman Catholic States: from France in 1831, from Saxony in the same year, from Portugal again in 1834, from Spain again in 1835, from France again in 1845, from the whole of Switzerland, including the Roman Catholic Cantons, in 1847, and in 1848 from Bavaria and other German States. In the Revolution of 1848, they were expelled from every Italian State, even from the territories of the Pope; but on the counter Revolution they returned, to be again expelled in 1859 from Lombardy, Parma, Modena and the Legations. They have had to endure even a more recent vicissitude, for, in December 1871, a measure relating to the vexed question, the Union of Church and State, received the sanction of the National Council (Bundesrath) of Switzerland, by which the Jesuits were prohibited from settling in the country, from interfering even in education, or from founding or re-establishing colleges throughout the Federal territories. They have thus within a recent period received sentence of banishment from almost every Roman Catholic Government, but they still remain in Rome."—*Jesuits and their expulsion from Germany* (*Fraser's Magazine, May,* 1873).—See also CENTRAL AMERICA: 1871-1885; FRANCE: 1875-1889.

20th century.—Renewed activity.—More recently the Society of Jesus has resumed its activities in nearly all the countries of the Catholic world. However, the Jesuits, along with other religious orders, came under the ban of the associations law in France in 1901, and they were summarily expelled from Portugal in 1910. At Rome they have charge of the Gregorian University and also of the German and Latin-American colleges, as well as the Institutum Biblicum. In the field of foreign missions they are of course well represented, particularly in India, China and the Belgian Congo.—See also SPAIN: 1900-1909: Causes of discontent.

ALSO IN: C. Coppens, *Who are the Jesuits?*—T. Hughes, *History of the Society of Jesus in North America.*—A. W. Lewis, *Monroe Doctrine unveiled and the Mexican crisis.*—J. McCabe, *Candid history of the Jesuits.*—T. Marquis, *Jesuit missions.*—B. Vaughan, *Jesuit in fact and fiction* (*Nineteenth Century and After, June,* 1914).—H. Boehmer, *Jesuits* (*Contemporary Review, June,* 1910).—*Jesuits* (*Nation, July* 14, 1910).—*Outbreak of hostilities between Germany and the Vatican* (*Current Opinion, Jan.*, 1913).—A. Faulkner, *Probabilism* (*Nation, July* 14, 1910).—*Probabilism and the Jesuits* (*Nation, Oct.* 27, and *Nov.* 24, 1910).

JESUS CHRIST

The life of Jesus Christ (B.C. 4-A.D. 29) is of surpassing interest in the history of the world, because of the influence which He has exercised in the past and which He continues to exercise over every human institution of modern times. "Christ's life was epoch-making; He destroyed and superseded pagan culture, and set in motion a force of moral uplift which puts everything non-Christian into an inferior class. Subtract from our secular, commercial, political and cultural organization the contributions of Christ, and you leave but a mangled corpse. Christ's regenerative, socializing, and morally inspiring power is a massive fact. . . . Great men make their profoundest impression on their contemporaries, the climax of their magnetic spell comes in their life time; they strike twelve before they die. Some men are great by reason of their magnetic personality, by their dominating and attractive power, by the rare quality of their manhood. They seem to absorb and give out afresh all the faith, enthusiasm and force of their age. These men are impressive not only because of what they do, but because of what they are. . . . Christ did not impress His age. His world knew almost nothing of Him, and what it knew, worked confusion and contempt. He was 'to the Jews a stumbling block and to the Greeks foolishness.' Christ did not succeed with His contemporaries. He failed disastrously, and oblivion all but closed over Him; true, he lived in the hearts of some scores of fishermen and publicans and faithful women, but such survival is not fame or fascination. It is another fact that great men win their victories, partially at least, by the aid of spectacular surroundings, or by some picturesque circumstance. . . . Christ . . . had no spectacular assistances, no setting to arrest attention, His world 'saw in Him no beauty that it should desire Him, His background helped Him not.' The state of a village carpenter, the repute of a peasant Rabbi, and a felon's death upon a Roman cross—there was nothing to distinguish Him from other obscure and tragic failures. . . . Another fact must be remarked: the fame and influence of great men gradually fades out when they are gone; their contributions to the world's fame survive them, but are not prominently labelled with their names. . . . Their mighty forms melt into the haze of a vague tradition. What are Cæsar, Cromwell, and Louis Fourteenth, to most of us, but names in musty books? . . . Christ does not fall under this law of diminishing repute and influence. . . . His power increases through the centuries, and has not yet attained its climax. [His] influence blossoming out of obscurity and defeat . . . reverses every human precedent. What is the explanation of this paradox? How came it that the world, unmindful of the Master in His life-time, still treasures every scrap of testimony that throws light upon His personality, His teachings and His deeds? Why have men so scrutinised the scanty record of an obscure career? . . . An explanation may perhaps be found in another momentous fact, namely, that the world has always believed, rightly or wrongly, that Jesus Christ was something more than man." —R. E. Jones, *Mystery of Jesus Christ*.

"In fine, there is no figure in human history that signifies more. Men may love him or hate him, but they do it intensely. If he was only what some say, he ought to be a mere figure of antiquity by now. But he is more than that; Jesus is not a dead issue; he has to be reckoned with still; and men, who are to treat mankind seriously, must make the intellectual effort to understand the man on whom has been centered more of the interest and the passion of the most serious and the best of mankind than on any other. The real secret is that human nature is deeply and intensely spiritual, and that Jesus satisfies it at its most spiritual point. The object before us in these pages is the attempt to know Jesus, if we can, in a more intimate and intelligent way than we have done—at least, to put before our minds the great problem, Who is this Jesus Christ? and to try to answer it. One answer to this question is that Jesus was nothing, never was anything, but a myth developed for religious purposes; that he never lived at all. This view reappears from time to time, but so far it has not appealed to any who take a serious interest in history. No historian of the least repute has committed himself to the theory. Desperate attempts have been made to discredit the Christian writers of the first two centuries; it has been emphasized that Jesus is not mentioned in secular writers of the period, and the passage in Tacitus (*Annals*, xv. 44) has been explained away as a Christian interpolation, or, more gaily, by reviving the wild notion that Poggio Bracciolini forged the whole of the *Annals*. But such trifling with history and literature does not serve. No scholar accepts the theory about Poggio—and yet if the passage about Christ is to be got rid of, this is the better way of the two; for there is nothing to countenance the view that the chapter is interpolated, or to explain when or by whom it was done—the wish is father to the thought. Christians are twice mentioned by Suetonius in dealing with Emperors of the first century, though in one passage the reading *Chrestus* for *Christus* has suggested to some scholars that another man is meant; the confusion was a natural one and is instanced elsewhere, but we need not press the matter. . . . But we are not dependent on books for our evidence of the historicity of Jesus. The whole story of the Church implies him. He is inwrought in every feature of its being. Every great religious movement, of which we know, has depended on a personal impulse, and has behind it some real, living and inspiring personality. It is true that at a comparatively late stage of Hinduism a personal devotion to Shri Krishna grew up, just as in the hour of decline of the old Mediterranean paganism we find Julian the Apostate using a devotional language to Athena at Athens that would have astonished the contemporaries of Pericles. But Jesus, Buddha, and Mohammed stand on a very different footing from Krishna and Athena, even if we concede the view of some scholars that Krishna was once a man, and the contention of Euhemerus, a pre-Christian Greek, that all the gods had once been human. If we posit that Jesus did not exist, we shall be involved in other difficulties as to the story of the Church. Mr. F. C. Conybeare, an Oxford scholar avowedly not in allegiance to the Christian Church, has characterized some of the reconstructions made by contemporary anti-Christian writers as more miraculous than the history they are trying to correct."—T. R. Glover, *Jesus of history*, *pp.* 5, 6, 9.

Testimony of Josephus.—"'And there ariseth . . . at this time Jesus a wise man, . . . since it is befitting to call him a man, . . . for he was a doer of strange . . . works, a teacher of men who receive true words . . . with pleasure; and many

Jews and many, too, of the Greeks, he won to himself. This was Christus; . . . and when Pilate, on the information of the chief men amongst us, had condemned him to the cross, those who loved him at the first did not cease being attached to him, . . . for he appeared to them the third day . . . living again, the Divine Prophets having spoken both these things and ten thousand other marvels concerning him. And even until now, the tribe of the Christians named after this man has not become extinct. . . .

" 'Since, therefore, Ananus was a man of so cruel a nature, and since he thought that he had obtained a favourable opportunity because Festus was dead and Albinus still on the road, he calleth a session of the Sanhedrin, and, having brought before it the brother of Jesus who is called Christ, whose name was James, and certain others, he brought an accusation against them of having transgressed the law, and delivered them up to be stoned. . . .' [These extracts from Josephus, which on their face appear to be valuable historical evidence of the life of Jesus Christ, have been much controverted. Other authors give credence to these passages.] The opening words strike the note of a moderate Jewish polemic, unyielding towards the Christians, but respectful towards the person of Jesus. 'And there appeareth . . . at this time Jesus, a *wise man* (since it is befitting to call him a man), for he was a doer of strange works, a teacher of men who receive true words with pleasure.' . . . 'This *was* Christus.' These words are, at any rate, *not* a Christian confession, the natural form of which would be, 'This *is* Christ.' But the words come quite naturally from an historian who is identifying a person of a former generation whom he prefers to call *Jesus* with one whom some of his readers have been accustomed to call *Christus*. . . . When Josephus says that Jesus *was* Christus, he is doing no more than making an historical explanation. . . . Probably all the trouble over the passage has arisen from an unacknowledged presupposition that Josephus was a Jewish theologian and would necessarily write as one, if he wrote of Jesus and the Christians. But Josephus was rather a man of affairs, intensely proud of his race, but not a divine. He could write respectfully of Jesus and calmly about the Christians from his comfortable house in Rome, whither came only faint rumours of Christian activity. . . . The figure of Jesus, the wise man, the wonder worker, the teacher of true words, stands out in its purity and simplicity against the blood-stained annals of the time, and wins a certain respect from the Jewish historian. At the present day 'the Testimony concerning Jesus Christ,' as Whiston calls it, is of no little value. Josephus completed the *Archæology* in the thirteenth year of the reign of the Emperor Domitian, *i.e.*, in 93 or 94 A.D., having for the first thirty years of his life, *i.e.*, up to 70 A.D., lived in Palestine, both in Jerusalem and in Galilee. As an early Jewish witness, he supplies testimony of an unique kind to some of the outward facts of the beginnings of Christianity, and he blocks the path of those who try to think that 'there is no historic reality' in the figure of Jesus the Christ."—W. E. Barnes, *Testimony of Josephus to Jesus Christ* (*Contemporary Review, v.* 105, *Jan.*, 1914, *pp.* 57-59, 61, 67-68).

Chronology of birth.—Infancy.—"Whether as a human character or one more than human, Jesus, the Christ, is supreme in his perfections and supreme in the historical importance of his few years of teaching in Judea. His birth was in the reign of Augustus, the first of the Roman emperors; his crucifixion in that of the second emperor, Tiberius. . . . If the chronology of our Christian era were true, the birth of Jesus, from which it represents an attempted reckoning, would be dated in the thirty-first year of the supremacy of Augustus at Rome. But that date, the starting-point of Christian chronology, was fixed in the sixth century after Christ, by reckonings which all modern scholars have concluded to be wrong. Jesus was born four years earlier than the year which is designated, by centuries of custom, as the year I *Anno Domini*,—the year of our Lord. The year of the Nativity was the year in which the last substantial Jewish monarchy became extinct, on the death of Herod, its first and last king. . . . Herod died within the year that has been agreed upon most generally as that of the Birth of Jesus."—J. N. Larned, *Seventy centuries of the life of mankind, v.* 1, *pp.* 157, 213, 214.—See also CHRONOLOGY: Christian era.—"It might have been expected that Mary's child would have been born in the city of Nazareth, where Joseph and Mary lived, but circumstances over which they had no control made a distant village the birthplace. The Jewish nation had paid tribute to Rome, through their rulers, since the days of Pompey. . . . Three separate surveys of the empire for such fiscal and military ends are recorded as ordered—in the 726th, 746th, and 767th years of the city of Rome, respectively: the first, long before the birth of Christ; the third, in our Lord's youth; but the second, very near the time when He must have been born. . . . The proclamation having been made through the land, Joseph had no choice but to go to Bethlehem, the city of David, the place in which his family descent, from the house and lineage of David, required him to be inscribed. It must, apparently, have been near the close of the year 749 of Rome, or at the opening of 750. . . . Unwilling to leave her behind in a home so new to her, Joseph took Mary with him. . . . How long Joseph and Mary had been in Bethlehem before Jesus was born is impossible to say, for time is of no value to Orientals, and a stay of a few weeks more or less would be little regarded. St. Luke merely tells us that while they were there Mary gave birth to the Saviour. . . . At the time when the Magi arrived, Herod [ruler of Palestine], now an old man, was sinking into the last stages of disease, but was still as jealous and afraid of attempts against his throne as ever. . . . Summoning the heads of the priesthood and the 'scribes' to his palace, he demanded of them where Christ should be born. . . . Having learned the expected birthplace of the Messiah, which he would himself have known, had he been a Jew and not an Idumean, Herod sent for the Magi and made every inquiry, under the pretext that he, also, wished to do homage to the young child. . . . A band of soldiers was therefore sent to Bethlehem with orders to kill every male child near the supposed age of the infant he dreaded. . . . Joseph and Mary had left Bethlehem before this tragedy, and had fled to the friendly shelter of Egypt. . . . Having heard of Herod's death, Joseph determined to return to Palestine, with the intention of settling permanently at Bethlehem. On reaching Judea, however, and finding Archelaus had been appointed ethnarch, the dread of one who, of all the family, was believed to be the most like the hated tyrant, his father Herod,—the tumults and massacres in Jerusalem at his accession, and the chronic disturbance of the country, induced him to choose his former place of residence, in Galilee, instead."—C. Geikie, *Life and words of Christ, pp.* 108-109, 114, 138-139, 141, 148.

Childhood.—"Once only is the great silence, which lies on the history of Christ's early life, broken. It is to record what took place on His first visit to the Temple. . . . After Jesus had passed His twelfth year, His Parents took Him with them in the 'company' of the Nazarenes to Jerusalem. . . . It was, as we reckon it, in spring A.D. 9, that Jesus for the first time went up to the Paschal Feast in Jerusalem. . . . This, His first visit to its halls, seems also to have called out the first outspoken—and, may we not infer, the first conscious—thought of that Temple as the House of His Father, and with it the first conscious impulse of His Mission and Being. . . . In some part of this Temple, 'sitting in the midst of the Doctors, both hearing them and asking them questions,' we must look for the Child Jesus on the third and the two following days of the Feast on which He first visited the Sanctuary. . . . But if there was nothing so unprecedented as to render His Presence and questioning marvellous, yet all who heard Him 'were amazed' at his 'combinative insight' and 'discerning answers.' . . . With His return to Nazareth began Jesus' life of youth and early manhood, with all of inward and outward development, of heavenly and earthly approbation which it carried. Whether or not He went to Jerusalem on recurring Feasts, we know not, and need not inquire. For only once during that period—on His first visit to the Temple, and in the awakening of His Youth-Life—could there have been such outward forth-bursting of His real Being and Mission. Other influences were at their silent work to weld His inward and outward development, and to determine the manner of His later Manifesting of Himself. We assume that the School-education of Jesus must have ceased soon after His return to Nazareth. Henceforth the Nazareth-influences on the Life and Thinking of Jesus may be grouped —and progressively as He advanced from youth to manhood—under these particulars: *Home, Nature,* and *Prevailing Ideas.*"—A. Edersheim, *Life and times of Jesus the Messiah, v.* 1, *pp.* 235, 236, 242, 243, 246, 247, 250.

Baptism of Jesus.—First event in his public career.—"No prophet of note had appeared for three centuries; for piety had been almost lost in the petty rivalries of sects, and righteousness had become a lifeless thing of rigid forms and ceremonies, some of which must have made life a burden to those who tried to conform to them. At this hour, on the whole perhaps the darkest the chosen race had ever seen, the dim but majestic figure of John the Baptist appeared."—G. S. Hall, *Jesus, the Christ in the light of psychology, v.* 1, *p.* 289.—"To this John [the Baptist, a preacher from the wilderness of Judea], when baptizing on the lower Jordan, all the Evangelists represent Jesus as coming and submitting to his baptism. . . . It was natural for Jesus to be induced to undertake the journey to the Jordan by what he heard of the Baptist, since he also was not satisfied with the existing system of religion; in him also the yearning for something better had become vivid and powerful, and, as we see from his subsequent acts, the way to moral conversion to which John pointed, appeared to him also to be the only right one. He submitted to the ceremony of submersion in the river; and in this was symbolically exhibited that confession of sins which John required of the candidates for baptism. . . . History cannot take up the thread of the life of Jesus before this point [his baptism, when he was thirty years of age]. Out of the tissue of legends referring to his infancy and youth, only two or three points can be adopted as historical. . . . The first point is, that Jesus came from Galilee, from the little town of Nazareth. All his life he is called a Nazarene, a Galilean. . . . Matthew and Luke represent him as having been brought up in Nazareth, they declare his birth-place to have been Bethlehem in Judea (Matt. ii. 1, 22 ff.; Luke ii. 4, 39, iv. 16). But the opposite hypothesis as to the original dwelling-place of his parents from which these Evangelists start in the accounts they give, shews that they are not following any historical authority. . . . As to the next point, there is every probability that the father of Jesus was a carpenter, and belonged, accordingly, to the lower classes of society."—D. F. Strauss, *New life of Jesus, v.* 1, *pp.* 258, 264.—Other authorities on the life of Jesus include certain details of his infancy and childhood as historical.

Teaching.—"It was reserved to Jesus to teach that only a religious and moral new birth of Israel and of humanity could avail. He was the first who founded a religion, not on external precepts, or on a priesthood, or on sacrificial rites, but in the living spirit; in individual personal conviction; in the free, loving surrender of the will to God, as the eternal Truth and Good; a religion which looked first, not at mere acts, but at what men were, and set no value on actions apart from the motive from which they sprang. Hence, the call to repentance was addressed to all without exception. He recognised the difference between man and man, and acknowledged the existence of possible good even in the apparently hopeless. He spoke of the good and evil, the righteous and unrighteous, the just and unjust, those who had gone astray and those who had not; of the sound and the sick; of the pure and the impure; of green trees and dry; of a good and an evil eye, and of good soil and bad. Surveying men, as a whole, with a calm and searching insight, He rejoiced in the light which shone in some souls in the midst of darkness around and within them, and acknowledged its worth. No cold fear of compromise damped His ardour; frank joy and radiant hopefulness, that detected good with instinctive quickness, cheered His spirit to greater effort. It is, indeed, His glory that He led not only the humble and penitent, but the openly evil, to a higher and purer life. Yet, though thus wide in His charity, He had a standard by which all men alike were pronounced sinful, and in need of repentance. In the highest sense, God alone was good. Tried by this awful test of comparison with Him, all men were 'unclean,' 'corrupt,' 'dark,' 'blind,' 'lustful,' 'selfish,' worldly in thought, word, and act; dry trees, dead and lost. All are pronounced in danger of the wrath of God. They may be more or less sinful in degree; but all alike must seek forgiveness; all must repent and be changed, or perish. Thus, when comparing men with men, He recognised better and worse; but before God, and in relation to citizenship in His kingdom, He acknowledged no difference, but condemned all alike as sinners. Before the One who alone is pure and holy, He humbles all. He will suffer no empty pride in the presence of the Creator. In His sight no one is to be called good. All are guilty, and even the best need pardon. In this view of man He declared that He had not come to call the righteous but sinners to repentance. Even the best of men, though righteous before their fellows, are guilty before God. It is the unique characteristic of the teaching of Jesus, that while He distinctly proclaims the moral differences between man and man, He insists with supreme and unchangeable earnestness on the infinite moral distance and contrast between the

creature and the Creator. All before Him are evil, or have evil in them. There may be good among the bad, but sin is not wanting even in the best. The repentance He preached was the child-like humility which has no claim to merit, but, conscious of its own weakness, resigns its will to the guidance of God, and seeks His forgiveness. It has already entered His kingdom."—C. Geikie, *Life and words of Christ, pp.* 513-514.—See also CHRISTIANITY: Three stages in the development of Christianity.

Political situation in Judæa. See JEWS: A.D. 26.

Antagonism roused against Jesus.—Last week in Jerusalem.—Trial and crucifixion.—"Jesus spent the autumn and part of the winter [c. 28-29 A.D.] at Jerusalem. . . . At the end of the month of December, he observed at Jerusalem the feast established by Judas Maccabeus in memory of the purification of the Temple after the sacrileges of Antiochus Epiphanes. . . . The contrast between his ever-increasing exaltation and the indifference of the Jews became wider day by day. At the same time the public authorities began to be bitter against him. In the month of February or early in March a council of the chief priests was assembled, and at this council the question was clearly put: 'Can Jesus and Judaism exist together?' . . . The death of Jesus was thus decided in the month of February or the beginning of March. But he still escaped for a short time. He withdrew to an obscure town called Ephraim or Ephron, in the direction of Bethel, a short day's journey from Jerusalem. There he spent a few weeks with his disciples, letting the storm pass over. But orders for his arrest, the moment he appeared at Jerusalem, were given. . . . The custom was to come to Jerusalem several days before the Passover, in order to prepare for it. Jesus arrived late, and for a moment his enemies thought their hope of seizing him was frustrated. On the sixth day before the feast (Saturday, 8th of Nisan, or 28th of March) he at last reached Bethany. . . . The next day (Sunday, 9th of Nisan) Jesus descended from Bethany to Jerusalem. When, at the bend of the road on the summit of the Mount of Olives, he saw the city lying before him, it is said he wept over it, and addressed to it a last appeal. . . . The multitude which preceded and followed him, carrying palms, cried: 'Hosanna to the son of David! Blessed is he that cometh in the name of the Lord!' Some even gave him the title of king of Israel. . . . The triumph of Bethphage—the audacity of the provincial folk in celebrating the advent of their Messiah-King at the very gates of Jerusalem—completed the exasperation of the Pharisees and the Temple aristocracy. . . . The arrest was therefore decided for the next day, Thursday. It was resolved also not to apprehend him in the Temple, where he came every day, but to observe his habits, that he might be seized in some quiet spot. The agents of the priests sounded his disciples, in the hope of obtaining useful information from their weakness or simplicity. They found what they sought in Judas of Kerioth. This wretch, from motives impossible to explain, betrayed his Master, gave all the necessary information. . . . In the evening he took his last repast with his disciples. . . . The majority of the disciples saw their Master no more after the supper of which we have just spoken. It was the farewell banquet. . . . Night had fallen when they left the room. Jesus, as was his custom, passed through the valley of Kedron; and, accompanied by his disciples, went into the garden of Gethsemane, at the foot of the Mount of Olives, where he sat down. Overawing his friends by his majesty, he watched and prayed. They were sleeping near him, when suddenly an armed troop appeared carrying lighted torches. It was the guards of the Temple, armed with staves, a kind of police force which the priests had been allowed to maintain. They were supported by a detachment of Roman soldiers with their swords. The warrant of arrest emanated from the high priest and the Sanhedrim. Judas, knowing the habits of Jesus, had pointed out this place as being that where he might be most easily surprised, and, according to the unanimous tradition of the earliest times, himself accompanied the detachment. . . . [Some of the disciples prepared to resist.] Jesus made this opposition cease, and gave himself up to the soldiers. . . . Hanan [Annas, former high priest] examined him as to his doctrine and his disciples. Jesus, with just pride, declined to enter into long explanations. He referred Hanan to his teachings, which had been public; he declared that he had never held any secret doctrine; and he asked the ex-high priest to question those who had listened to him. This response was perfectly natural; but the exaggerated respect with which the old priest was surrounded made it seem audacious, and one of the bystanders is said to have replied to it by a blow. . . . Hanan, although the real author of the judicial murder about to be done, had no power to pronounce sentence on Jesus; he sent him to his son-in-law, Kaiapha, who bore the official title [of high priest]. This man, the blind instrument of his father-in-law, naturally had to ratify all that had been done. The Sanhedrim was assembled at his house. . . . The Sanhedrim had not the right to carry out a sentence of death. But in the confusion of powers which then reigned in Judæa, Jesus was none the less condemned from that moment. He remained for the rest of the night exposed to the ill-treatment of an infamous pack of servants, who spared him no indignity. . . . The point was to get Pilate [Roman governor of Judea, Samaria and part of Idumea] to ratify the sentence pronounced by the Sanhedrim, which, since the Roman occupation, was no longer sufficient. The procurator was not invested, like the imperial legate, with the disposal of life and death. But Jesus was not a Roman citizen; the governor's authorisation sufficed for the sentence passed on him being allowed to take its course. . . . The agents of the priests therefore bound Jesus and led him to the Prætorium, which had once been the palace of Herod, near the Tower of Antonia. It was the morning of the day on which the Paschal lamb had to be eaten (Friday, the 14th of Nisan, our 3rd of April). . . . He [Pilate] had scarcely been informed of the accusation before he showed his annoyance at being mixed up in the matter. He then shut himself up in the Prætorium with Jesus. . . . Pilate then would have liked to save Jesus. Perhaps the dignified and calm attitude of the accused made an impression upon him. . . . The title of 'King of the Jews,' which Jesus had never assumed, but which his enemies represented as the sum and substance of his line of actions and pretensions, was naturally that by which it was most possible to excite the suspicions of the Roman authorities. . . . Pilate asked him if he were really the King of the Jews. Jesus concealed none of his thoughts. . . . He avowed his kingship, but uttered at the same time the profound saying: 'My kingdom is not of this world' (Matt. 27:19). Then he explained the nature of his kingship, declaring that it consisted entirely in the possession and the proclamation of truth. Pilate un-

derstood nothing of this lofty idealism. . . . He feared that too much indulgence shown to a prisoner, to whom was given the title of 'King of the Jews,' might compromise himself. . . . Affecting to laugh at the pompous title that had been given to Jesus, he caused him to be scourged. . . . The tumult increased, and became an actual riot. The cry, 'Crucify him! Crucify!' resounded from every side. . . . The cries from without became more and more threatening. The people had already begun to denounce the lack of zeal in a functionary who protected an enemy of Cæsar. . . . The feeble Pilate surrendered; he foresaw the report that his enemies would send to Rome, in which he would be accused of having protected a rival of Tiberius. . . . Jesus was therefore delivered to a cohort of auxiliary troops, and all the most hateful characteristics of executions introduced by the cruel customs of the new conquerors were used in his case. It was about noon. They reclothed him with the garments which they had removed for the scene at the tribunal, and as the cohort already had in reserve two thieves who were to be executed, the three condemned men were put together, and the procession set out for the scene of the execution. This was at a place called Golgotha, situated outside Jerusalem, but near the walls of the city. . . . At last the place of execution was reached. According to Jewish custom, the sufferers were offered a strong aromatic wine, an intoxicating beverage which, by a feeling of pity, was given to the condemned to stupefy them. . . . Jesus, after having touched the edge of the cup with his lips, refused to drink. . . . He was then stripped of his garments and fastened to the cross. . . . It was about three o'clock in the afternoon, according to our manner of reckoning time, when Jesus expired."—E. Renan, *Life of Jesus, pp.* 256, 260, 264, 266, 268, 271, 272, 274, 276, 280-286, 288-293, 296-297, 299, 306.

Historicity of Jesus.—Ancient and modern controversy.—Version of Epiphanius.—Historic testimony.—"Most proposed reconstructions of Christian origins make the idea of salvation the basal thought of the new religion. The validity of this assumption can scarcely be doubted. Christianity from the beginning was unquestionably and pre-eminently a religion of salvation—a salvation which is primarily of divine origin and which is revealed and mediated in the career of a Jesus who thereby becomes the unique object of man's faith and reverence. These are essential items in Christian thinking at a very early date. What is the incentive which starts this new religion on its way? This is the question on which opinion divides. Usually it has been supposed that a unique historical personality, known in tradition as Jesus of Nazareth, made so strong an impression upon men that a new faith reared itself about his person. The critics whose views we are investigating propose a very different answer. They think it absurd to imagine that any historical individual could be given so elevated a position in the thought of men with whom he had been personally associated. His supposed historical form is merely a fanciful portrait giving a concrete setting to the abstract notion that salvation is the outcome of the deity's own activity. Thus the modern radicals hypostatize the salvation-idea, making it of itself the creative force in the genesis of the new religion. The problem of Christianity's origin then becomes the question, How did this conception come into being, and where and when are its earliest 'Christian' manifestations to be found? Bauer and Kalthoff . . . looked for the answer to these questions in the Græco-Roman life of the first and second centuries A.D. Their solution is now generally discarded even by the radicals, who admit that in the third century Christianity is too strongly entrenched in the Roman empire to bring the date of its origin down as late as Bauer and Kalthoff proposed. Moreover the Jewish background of the new religion is too evident to permit of so unconditional a transfer of its birthplace to heathen soil. The solution more commonly offered nowadays [by skeptics] finds the primitive Christian's doctrine of salvation to be less a product of their own experience and more a loan from the contemporary heathen religions. It is pointed out that belief in a redeeming divinity was current at an early date and had found expression in nature myths, in the tenets and practices of secret cults, and in gnostic speculations. Christianity represents the result of a borrowing and recasting of this fundamental conception. The beginnings of the process can no longer be traced with certainty, but they are assigned with confidence to pre-Christian times. This evolution went on both in Palestine and in Hellenistic Judaism, and attained the status of an independent religion at about the time Christianity is traditionally said to have come into existence. Such, in outline, is the radicals' understanding of Christianity's origin. If the kernel of Christianity, the salvation-idea, was thus merely a notion borrowed from the ancient faiths, why did it create for itself a new divinity in the person of Jesus, and whence did it derive its unique vitality? These would seem to be crucial questions for the radicals' constructive hypothesis to answer. . . . To begin with, there is no gainsaying the fact that the word 'Jesus' is the Greek equivalent of the Hebrew 'Joshua.' But this coincidence cannot of itself establish any connection between these individuals. If other men did not bear the same name the case might be different, but the name is a very common one among the Jews. According to Weinel, it belongs to no less than twenty different persons in Josephus' narrative alone. Proof for the contention that Jesus is the perpetuation of a Joshua-deity needs a more substantial basis than the mere identity of names. As a further argument it is urged, by Drews for example, that Joshua was a cult-god, and that the points of resemblance between his career and the life of Jesus, portrayed in the gospels, establish the identity of the two as originally a Jewish divinity. To illustrate, each name signifies 'deliverer,' 'savior'; Joshua's mother (according to an Arabic tradition!) was Miriam, and the mother of Jesus was Mary (Miriam); Joshua led Israel out of distress in the wilderness into the land of promise where milk and honey flowed, that is, the land of the Milky Way and the moon, and Jesus also led his followers into the heavenly kingdom. All this is in turn traceable to an ancient cult of the sun, the Greek legend of Jason forming the connecting link. Jason-Joshua-Jesus. Jesus with his twelve disciples passing through Galilee came to the Passover feast at Jerusalem, Joshua with his twelve helpers passed through the Jordan and offered the Paschal lamb on the other shore, Jason with his twelve companions went after the golden fleece of the lamb, and all originally was the myth of the sun's wandering through the twelve signs of the Zodiac. Thus Joshua-Jesus was an old Ephraimitish god of the sun and of fertility, worshiped among many Jewish sects as the hero-deliverer of ancient Israel and the future messianic savior. This is a bold reconstruction, but it is fatally weak at some essential points. When one asks for explicit evi-

dence of a Joshua-cult among the Jews he finds no answer. Again, is there anywhere in Judaism a clear intimation that Joshua was the hero about whom messianic hopes centered? Here also evidence fails. And as for resemblances between the Jesus of the gospels and this alleged cult-god, Joshua, they do not touch the main features in the career of either personage. Take even the notion of the death and resurrection of a savior-god, which is the item so much emphasized by the radicals, and there is no parallel in this respect between Joshua and Jesus. In fact the only real link between them is the identity of name, a feature of no consequence as we have already observed, when one recalls the frequency of this name among the Jews. The most explicit statement that Jesus belongs to pre-Christian times is found in Epiphanius, and is corroborated by the Babylonian Talmud. Epiphanius, arguing that the high-priestly office is in the line of direct succession from David, sees a prophetic significance in such scriptures as Ps. 132: II f. and Gen. 49: 10, which affirm that David's seed should continue to occupy his throne, and the scepter should not depart from Israel, until that final successor of David, in whom the people's hopes were to find consummation, should appear. On this basis Epiphanius interprets history as follows: 'The priesthood in the holy church is David's throne and kingly seat, for the Lord joined together and gave to his holy church both the kingly and the high-priestly dignity, transferring to it the never-failing (*μηδιαλείποντα εἰς τον αἰῶνα*) throne of David. For David's throne endured in line of succession until the time of Christ himself, rulers from Judah not failing until he came "to whom the things kept in reserve belonged. And he was the expectation of the gentiles." With the advent of the Christ the rulers in line of succession from Judah, reigning until the time of the Christ himself, ceased. For the line fell away and stopped from the time when he was born in Bethlehem of Judea under Alexander, who was of priestly and royal race. From Alexander on this office ceased —from the days of Alexander and Salina, who is also called Alexandra, to the days of Herod the king and Augustus the Roman emperor.' After remarking upon the fact that Alexander was both king and high priest, Epiphanius continues: 'Then afterward a foreign king, Herod, and no longer those who were of the family of David, put on the crown; while in Christ the kingly seat passed over to the church, the kingly dignity being transferred from the fleshly house of Judah and Jerusalem; and the throne is set up in the holy church of God forever, having a double dignity because of both its kingly and its high-priestly character.' In this argument Epiphanius' chief interest clearly is dogmatical rather than historical. Thinking, as he does, that Alexander Jannaeus (104-78 B.C.) was the last of the Jewish kings to combine in one person the offices of both king and high priest, he is led by his Old Testament proof-texts to assume that Jesus was the immediate successor of Alexander. Then Jesus must have been born during Alexander's reign. This is the logic of dogma. But with magnificent inconsistency Epiphanius returns to history and speaks of a gap extending from the time of Alexander to the time of Herod. Why mention an interim whose ulterior limit is fixed by the names of Herod and Augustus? Doubtless because this limit marks the actual appearance of Jesus upon the scene, as Epiphanius is well aware. Indeed he is very emphatic in affirming that Jesus was born in the forty-second year of Augustus' reign. By forcing Epiphanius to read us a new lesson in history, when he is primarily concerned to prove the kingly and high-priestly inheritance of the church in an unbroken succession from David, we do him a great injustice. We should remember that the major premise of his thinking is that no word of Scripture fails. It is not at all improbable that he was well aware of the contradiction involved in placing Christ's birth in the time of Alexander—his language does not imply that he held any doctrine about the 'hiding' of the Messiah—but he took refuge in the pious reflection that Scripture might be enigmatical but could not be erroneous. Yet his inconsistency ought not to cause serious trouble for moderns, who has discarded the ancient custom of using assumed Old Testament predictions as source materials for the writing of later history. Epiphanius clearly was trapped by the logic of his dogmatic into suggesting that Jesus was born under Alexander. The Babylonian Talmud twice narrates the story of a certain Jeshu who lived in the days of King Jannaeus, and who is said to have practiced magic, and corrupted and misled Israel. The Christian Jesus is evidently meant, since 'Jeshu' is a common Talmudic designation for him. But the historical reliability of the story is very doubtful. It so happens that the older Palestinian Talmud contains a parallel to this story, in which there is no mention of 'Jeshu.'" —S. J. Case, *Historicity of Jesus, pp.* 89-91, 95-101.—See also MIRACLES: 1st century.

Christ and Buddha as historical figures.—Influence and mystery of personality.—"The religious faith of more than two-thirds of all the inhabitants of the earth to-day starts from the life on earth of two men, Christ and Buddha, men who lived only a few centuries ago. We have historical proofs of their having actually existed, and that the traditions regarding them, though containing much that is fabulous and uncertain, obscure and contradictory, nevertheless give us a faithful picture of the main features of their real lives. Even apart from this sure result of the scientific investigations of the nineteenth century, [*Footnote.*—'The existence of Christ was denied even in the second century of our era, and Buddha till twenty-five years ago was regarded by many theologians as a mythical figure. *See,* for example, the books of Sénart and Kern.'] men of acute and sound judgment will never have doubted the actual existence of these great moral heroes: for although the historical and chronological material regarding them is extremely scanty and imperfect, yet their moral and intellectual individuality stands out so clearly and brilliantly before our eyes, and this individuality is so incomparable, that it could not be an invention of the imagination. The imagination of man is very narrowly circumscribed; the creative mind can work only with given facts. . . . The figure of Buddha, much less that of Jesus Christ, could not be invented by any human poetical power, neither that of an individual nor that of a whole people; nowhere can we discover even the slightest approach to such a thing. Neither poets, nor philosophers, nor prophets have been able even in their dreams to conceive such a phenomenon. Plato is certainly often mentioned in connection with Jesus Christ; there are whole books on the supposed relation between the two; it is said that the Greek philosopher was a forerunner who proclaimed the new gospel. In reality, however, the great Plato is a quite irreligious genius, a metaphysician and politician, an investigator and an aristocrat. And Socrates! The clever author of grammar and logic, the honest preacher of a morality for philis-

CHRIST BEFORE PILATE
(After painting by M. von Munkacsy)

tines, the noble gossip of the Athenian gymnasia,—is he not in every respect the direct contrast to the divine proclaimer of a Heaven of them 'that are poor in spirit'? In India it was the same: the figure of a Buddha was not anticipated nor conjured up by the magic of men's longing. All such assertions belong to the wide province of that delusive historic philosophy which constructs after the event. If Christ and Christianity had been an historical necessity, as the neoscholastic Hegel asserts, and Pfleiderer and others would have us believe to-day, we should inevitably have seen not one Christ but a thousand Christs arise; I should really like to know in what century a Jesus would not have been just as 'necessary' as our daily bread? Let us therefore discard these views that are tinged with the paleness of abstraction. The only effect they have is to obscure the one decisive and pregnant thing, namely, the importance of the living, individual, incomparable personality. . . . The circumstances in which the personality is placed—a knowledge of its general conditions in respect of time and space—will certainly contribute very much towards making it clearly understood. Such a knowledge will enable us to distinguish between the important and the unimportant, between the characteristically individual and the locally conventional. It will, in short, give us an increasingly clearer view of the personality. But to explain it, to try to show it as a logical necessity, is an idle, foolish task; every figure—even that of a beetle—is to the human understanding a 'wonder'; the human personality is, however, the *mysterium magnum* of life, and the more a great personality is stripped by criticism of all legendary rags and tatters, and the more successful that criticism is in representing each step in its career as something fore-ordained in the nature of things, the more incomprehensible the mystery becomes. This indeed is the final result of the criticism to which the life of Jesus has been submitted in the nineteenth century. This [19th] century has been called an irreligious one; but never yet, since the first Christian centuries, has the interest of mankind concentrated so passionately around the person of Jesus Christ as in the last seventy years; the works of Darwin, however widespread they were, were not bought to one-tenth the extent of those of Strauss and Renan. And the result of it all is, that the actual earthly life of Jesus Christ has become more and more concrete, and we have been compelled to recognize more and more distinctly that the origin of the Christian religion is fundamentally to be traced to the absolutely unexampled impression which this one personality had made and left upon those who knew Him. So it is that to-day this revelation stands before our eyes more definite and for that very reason more unfathomable than ever."—H. S. Chamberlain, *Foundations of the nineteenth century, v.* 1, *pp.* 177-180.—"Before our eyes there stands a vision, distinct, incomparable. This picture which we behold is the inheritance which we have received from our Fathers. Without an accurate appreciation of this vision, we cannot measure and rightly judge the historical significance of Christianity. The converse, on the other hand, does not hold good, for the figure of Jesus Christ has, by the historical development of the Churches, been dimmed and relegated to the background, rather than unveiled to the clear sight of our eyes. To look upon this Figure solely by the light of a church doctrine, narrowed both in respect of place and of time, is voluntarily to put on blinkers and to narrow our own view of the eternally Divine. The vision of Christ, moreover, is hardly touched upon by the dogmas of the Church. They are all so abstract that they afford nothing upon which either our understanding or our feelings can lay hold. We may apply to them in general what an artless witness, St. Augustine, said of the Dogma of the Trinity: 'But we speak of three Persons, not because we fancy that in so doing we have uttered something, but simply because we cannot be silent.' . . . Here is a man born into the world and living a life through which the conception of the moral significance of man, the whole philosophy of life, undergoes a complete transformation—through which the relation of the individual to himself, to the rest of mankind, and to the nature by which he is surrounded, is of necessity illuminated by a new and hitherto unsuspected light, so that all motives of action, all ideals, all heart's-desires and hopes must be remoulded and built up anew from their very foundations. Is it to be believed that this can be the work of a few centuries?"—*Ibid., v.* 1, *pp.* 174-175.

Portraits of Jesus.—Christian art of the Renaissance.—Modern conceptions.—"Modern painters have often pictured Jesus as something of a dreamer, a long-haired, sleepy, abstract kind of person. What a contrast we find in the energy of the real Jesus—in the straight and powerful language which he uses to men, in the sweep and range of his mind, in the profundity of his insight, the drive and compulsiveness of his thinking, in the venturesomeness of his actions."—J. R. Glover, *The Jesus of history, pp.* 129-130.—"With the Renaissance most of the old infirmities and conventions began to be left behind, and we have a long series of bold, frank, free depictions of Christ's face, some of which are transporting and beyond praise. Artists were veritably inspired by their theme and gave rein to their genius, unhampered by tradition. Some of the earliest in this great series agonized for a vision or theophany of the supreme face, and painted metaphorically, if not literally, on the knees. The language of Christian art spoke with new eloquence. Not historic portraits but ideals were striven for, and with a freedom and originality almost suggestive of the German metaphysician who 'proceeded to construct God.' So those painters proceeded to construct the likeness of the God-man, and were unafraid either of the charge of impiety or of the danger that those who adored their creations were thereby trekking toward a new idolatry. Their license was virtually as unchallenged as that we concede to poets. In their theophanies there was, no doubt, always a man behind the face which they felt, if not saw, with the inner eye, but which they could not put on their canvas. Art, then, as well as theology, had its reformation. These pictures were creations, and not copies. Religion had found a new medium of expression. Their enthusiasm was typified in Fra Angelico, who would not lay down his palette and his imaginative renderings for an archbishopric. Thus it is not surprising that even fidelity to type was thrown to the winds, and we have Christs bearded and beardless, large and small, slender and stout, dark and light, dead and alive, in agony and in ecstasy, brachiocephalic, dolichocephalic, low- and high-browed, the ghostly post-resurrection Christ, the splendidly nourished enfleshment by Rubens, Christ with children and judging the world, etc. Despite the mummifying traditions that long persisted, early Italian art thus began to break away; and it is remarkable that it was to so great an extent the inspiration of the Virgin that inaugurated the great emancipation. Prescriptions concerning her were less rigid, and she could be so portrayed as to be

admired as well as adored. The new naturalism which began with the Renaissance had its best expressions in the domain of religious art in the delineations of the Holy Mother, who was conceived in a truly aesthetic spirit, long before the child she held began to take on traits and aspects of real childhood. Thus the right to think and feel freely was vindicating itself. Classical art did not generally favour the admission of suffering, but this was essential, if not central, in the Christian scheme. The Virgin stood both for beauty and for the new patheticism. Moreover, art at its best is always a passion for all-sided expression, and is as incomplete without shadows as without light." —G. S. Hall, *Jesus, the Christ, in the light of psychology, pp.* 18-19.

See also CHRISTIANITY.

ALSO IN: A. Schweitzer, *Quest of the historical Jesus*.—G. Papini, *Life of Christ*.—C. F. Kent and J. W. Jenks, *Jesus' principles of living*.—A. E. Garvie, *Studies in the inner life of Jesus*.

JESUS, Society of. See JESUITS.

JETANS, tribe of American Indians. See APACHE INDIANS.

JEUNESSE DORÉE, or Muscadius, anti-Jacobin party of the French Revolution. See FRANCE: 1794-1795 (July-April).

JEWISH ART THEATER, New York. See JEWS: Drama and theater.

JEWISH ASSEMBLY OF NOTABLES, called by Napoleon, May 30, 1806. See JEWS: France: 1806.

JEWISH LITERATURE. See JEWS: Language and literature.

JEWISH NATIONAL FUND, Zionist institution established for the purpose of acquiring land for the Jewish people in Palestine. See JEWS: Zionism: 20th century.

JEWISH RELIEF: In World War. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: Jewish relief.

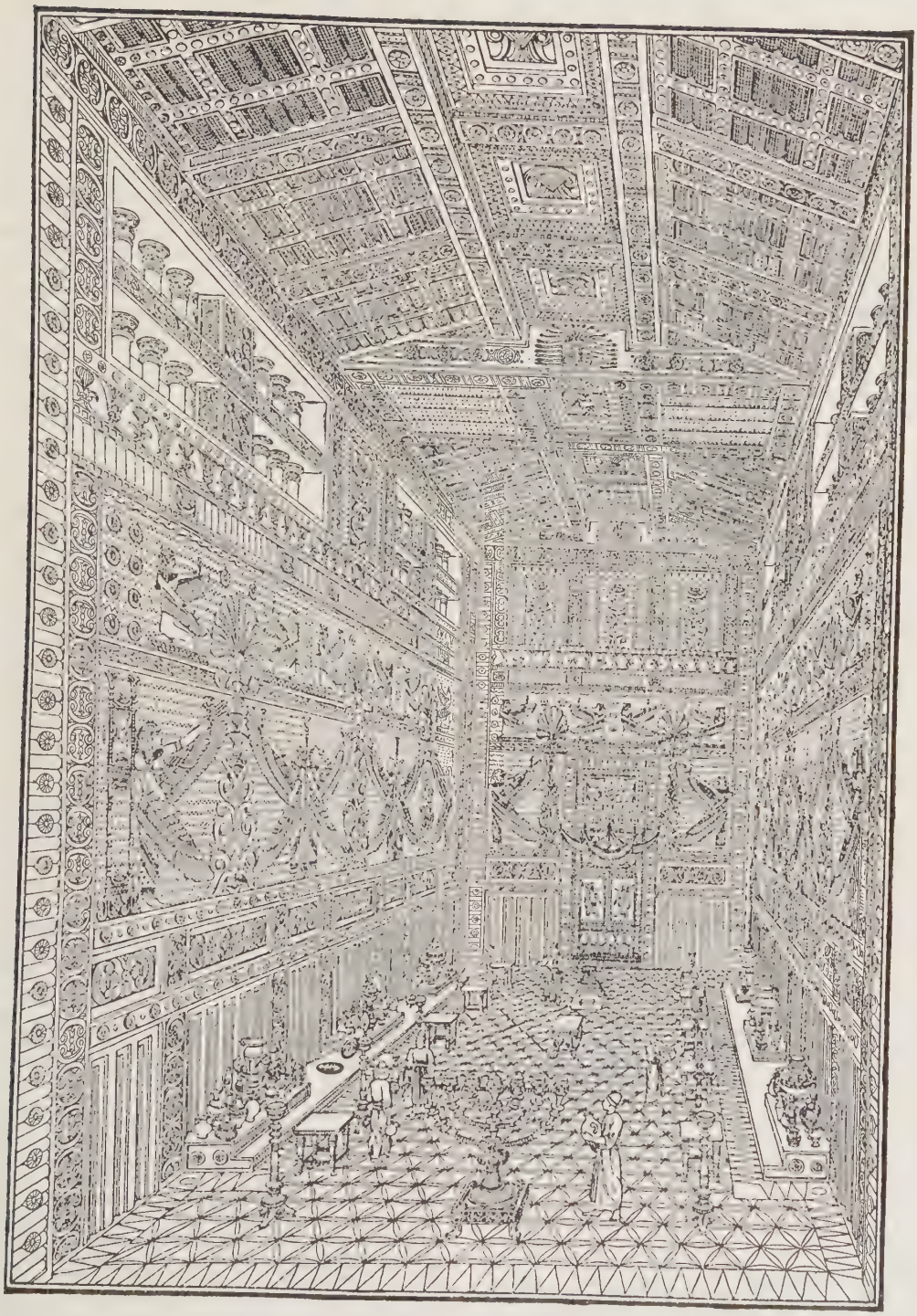
JEWISH WELFARE BOARD: Work in World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IX. War relief: f; XIV. Cost of war: b, 8.

JEWS

Definition.—National names.—"In the Old Testament the term 'Jews' appears to be applied to adherents of the worship of YH W H as conducted at Jerusalem after the exile: it is thus used in the late Book of Esther. In more modern usage the word is often applied to any person of the Hebrew race, apart from his religious creed. At one time during the emancipation era there was a tendency among Jews to avoid the application of the term to themselves; and from 1860 onward the words 'Hebrew' and 'Israelite' were employed to represent persons of Jewish faith and race. . . . At the present time the name 'Jew' is being more commonly employed."—J. Jacobs, *Jew* (*Jewish encyclopedia, v.* 7, *p.* 174).—There have been two principal conjectures as to the origin of the name Hebrews, by which the descendants of Abraham were originally known. One derives the name from a progenitor, Eber; the other finds its origin in a Semitic word signifying "over," or "crossed over." In the latter view, the name was applied by the Canaanites to people who came into their country from beyond the Euphrates. Ewald, who rejects this latter hypothesis, says: "While there is nothing to show that the name emanated from strangers, nothing is more manifest than that the nation called themselves by it and had done so as long as memory could reach; indeed this is the only one of their names that appears to have been current in the earliest times. The history of this name shows that it must have been most frequently used in the ancient times, before that branch of the Hebrews which took the name of Israel became dominant, but that after the time of the Kings it entirely disappeared from ordinary speech, and was only revived in the period immediately before Christ, like many other names of the primeval times, through the prevalence of a learned mode of regarding antiquity, when it came afresh into esteem through the reverence then felt for Abraham."—H. Ewald, *History of Israel, v.* 1, *p.* 284.—After the return of the Israelites from the Babylonian captivity—the returned exiles being mostly of the tribes of Judah and Benjamin—"the name of Judah took the predominant place in the national titles. As the primitive name of 'Hebrew' had given way to the historical name of Israel, so that of Israel now gave way to the name of 'Judaean' or 'Jew.'"—A. P. Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Jewish church, v.* 3, *p.* 101.

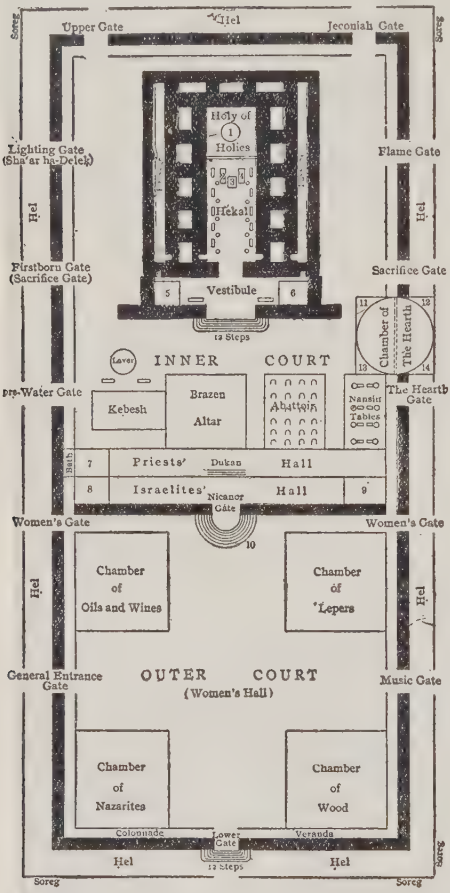
Formation of Hebrew nation.—"The traditions indicate that the Hebrew nation is composed of four groups of tribes, which are said to be descended from four mothers. Of these groups the most important are the Leah tribes and the Rachel tribes. . . . There is considerable evidence, both archæological and biblical, to show that the Leah tribes entered Palestine and secured a footing there about 1375-1350 B.C., and that the Rachel tribes did not enter the country until 1200 B.C. or later. The evidence indicates that the Leah tribes entered the land from the south, the Rachel tribes from the east. The probability is that the Rachel tribes only were in Egypt, that it was they who were led out by Moses, and that it was with them that the covenant was made at the burning mountain called Horeb."—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world, p.* 60.

Religion and the prophets.—"Analogy makes it probable that the religion of these tribes before they entered Palestine did not differ materially from that of other nomadic tribes about them. . . . Each tribe may have had its deity; at least we hear of a god Gad (Isa. 65:11) which was probably originally the god of the tribe Gad, and there is reason to believe that the tribe of Asher worshiped the goddess Ashera. In the tribe of Judah some Kenites settled. The Kenite god was Yahweh (Jehovah), and the J document written in Judah reflects the belief that the worship of Yahweh went back to the earliest times (Gen. 4:26). We cannot now determine the date of this fusion. It is possible that it began before the settlement of the Leah tribes in Palestine. . . . A theory that has in recent years won the assent of the majority of the writers on the religion of Israel is that Yahweh was the god of the Midianite-Kenites before he became the God of Israel. . . . . There are indications that Yahweh may have been a divine name in North Arabia for . . . a thousand years before Moses, and that emigrants from this region to Babylonia and Palestine had carried the name to those countries. . . . Moses, fleeing from Egypt, married the daughter of Jethro, Yahweh's priest among the Midianite-Kenites. At the burning bush on Yahweh's volcanic mountain he was so impressed with the power and majesty of



HOLY OF HOLIES OF THE TEMPLE OF JERUSALEM
Reconstructed by Chipiez

Yahweh that it marked an epoch in his life. He returned to Egypt to preach to his enslaved kinsmen the hope of escape through the power of Yahweh. . . . A box or ark, which could be easily carried from place to place, and which, perhaps, contained a sacred stone, became the symbol of Yahweh's presence with them. The sum of his requirements of his new worshipers, as nearly as we can now ascertain them, consisted of ten commands. . . . The political and religious life of



PLAN OF THE TEMPLE OF SOLOMON

According to the Talmud

1, Eben Shetiyyah; 2, Candlestick; 3, Altar of incense; 4, Table of showbread; 5 and 6, Chamber of knives; 7, Attic of Abtinas; 8, Chamber of the pancake makers; 9, Chamber of Phinehas the vestment keeper; 10, Fifteen semi-circular steps; 11, Chamber of lambs; 12, Bath chamber; 13, Chamber of showbread; 14, Chamber of stones of defiled altar.

the early time was in no sense organized. Until the time of Saul and David there was no national consciousness. In the early days there was no organized priesthood (cf. Judg., chaps. 17, 18). In the union of the tribes the vivid memories which the Rachel tribes entertained of their experiences triumphed over all other traditions of Yahweh. . . . Yahweh was now believed to send the rain and to give the crops. The old gods had been called baals, i.e., owners of the soil, and in time the name was applied to Yahweh also (see Hos. 2:16). To Yahweh's feast new agricultural feasts were added, and agricultural elements were introduced into the old ones. . . . During all this time the orthodox type of sanctuary for Yahweh was a high place open to the sky. We hear of one small temple at Shiloh (I Sam., chaps. 1-5), with doors and apparently a roof—a temple in the holiest place of which Samuel slept! The open-air high place was nevertheless the normal type of sanctuary. Solomon's temple was an innovation. It was constructed on the general plan of the temples of Israel's more civilized neighbors. It contained an altar of bronze, whereas an altar of earth or unhewn stone was regarded long after this as the only proper altar (Exod. 20:24-25). Centuries later the temple of Solomon was revered as the ideal dwelling-place of Yahweh, but for a considerable time it was thought to be of a heretical type. [See also TEMPLE OF SOLOMON; and below: B.C. 537.] In the reign of Ahab there began a religious and social ferment which led to the transformation of Israel's religion. Ahab's Tyrian wife, Jezebel, had brought with her the worship of the Tyrian god Melkart. She and her husband in the case of Naboth (I Kings, chap. 21) outraged Hebrew popular rights. At this juncture Elijah came from Gilead, proclaiming the old nomadic ideal of Yahweh and linking his religious ideals to the rights of the people as against the king. To Elijah and his followers, not only was the worship of the Tyrian Melkart wrong, but the worship of the agriculturized Yahweh of the west Jordan lands was little better. It was, he thought, also the worship of Baal. In the person and work of the prophet Elisha the ideals of Elijah, though somewhat obscured, were to some degree cherished. In the circles of Elijah's disciples stress was laid on ethics rather than upon ritual as the essence of Yahweh's covenant with his people. The insight of four great men, Amos, Hosea, Isaiah, and Micah, who lived and preached between 755 and 690 B.C., carried the work begun by Elijah to much higher levels. While they presented no philosophical theory of monotheism, each one of them was a practical monotheist. . . . They all represented Yahweh as a God whose one desire was his passion for social justice. His chief demand was righteousness between man and man. In their earlier ministry they maintained that this was the sum-total of his religion. They declared that he demanded no sacrifices; that he was disgusted with ritual (Amos 5:21, 25; Isa. 1:12-14); that the essence of his religion was that 'justice roll down as waters and righteousness as an ever-flowing stream' (Amos 5:24). . . . Apparently in his old age Isaiah saw that the world was not ready for a religion without ritual and persuaded King Hezekiah to try to reduce ritual to such limits that it could be purified of those agricultural and primitive elements which the prophets now identified with the worship of the Canaanitish Baals. Hezekiah accordingly attempted to suppress all the outdoor shrines of the land and to center the worship in the temple at Jerusalem (II Kings 18:1-6 and 22). This movement naturally met with much opposition. . . . Under King Manasseh, 686-641 B.C., there was a violent reaction against the prophetic reforms. The country shrines were restored, and the people, led by their king, revived heathen Semitic customs that had been discarded. During this period, while the disciples of the great eighth-century prophets could do nothing openly, they cherished their ideals in secret and made plans for the future. In these circles about 650 B.C. the Deuteronomic law was composed. Its basis was the 'Book of the Covenant,'

Exod. 20:24-23:19, the legal kernel of the E document, but the law of the altar, Exod. 20:24-26, was changed so as to limit the sanctuary to the 'place which Yahweh should choose,' and other features of the code, which presupposed a multiplicity of sanctuaries, were modified to conform to this. . . . Josiah, the grandson of Manasseh, was friendly to the prophetic ideals, and by the eighteenth year of his reign the advocates of those ideals found a favorable opportunity to secure public action. . . . The country shrines were abolished, the cult was centralized in Jerusalem, while pillars, *asheras,* the ministers of social impurity, and other survivals of primitive Semitic religion were removed. The people of Judah did not acquiesce in this reform much more readily than in the time of Hezekiah and Manasseh, and a long spiritual struggle ensued.

"About six years before the finding of the Deuteronomic law, Jeremiah, a very young man, began to prophesy, and his prophetic activity, continued for forty years during the period of Judah's decline and fall. . . . Few realize how great a prophet Jeremiah was. He contributed four great ideas to Israel's religion which became potent in aftertime and which tended greatly to its purification and advancement. The first of these ideas was theoretical monotheism. Earlier prophets had been practical monotheists; it remained for Jeremiah to declare that the gods of the heathen were 'vanities'—mere figments of the imagination (Jer. 10:15, 14:22). As a corollary of this conception he also taught that Yahweh was willing to become the God of the nations as well as of the Jews; that, if they were repentant, he would receive them (Jer. 16:17-21). His third contribution was the doctrine of the inwardness of religion. The heart must be changed, not the outward life only (Jer. 31:31-34). To these great doctrines Jeremiah added that of individual responsibility (Jer. 31:29, 30). Down to his time the nation or family had been the moral unit (see Josh., chap. 7), but on that basis no great progress could be made in personal religion or in ethics. The teaching of Jeremiah set religion free from many time-worn shackles. In addition to these doctrines, Jeremiah revived Hosea's conception of the covenant of Yahweh, enforcing the view that it was a covenant of marriage and that Yahweh was a God of love. . . . Ezekiel, a young priest who had been taken to Babylonia with those first deported by Nebuchadrezzar in 597, began to prophesy five years later. His prophetic activity continued until about 570 B.C. Until the fall of Jerusalem in 586 B.C., Ezekiel in Babylonia reinforced the teaching which Jeremiah was giving in Palestine. He was animated by the same lofty ethical ideals, as is shown by the seventeenth and eighteenth chapters of his prophecy. In 586 B.C. Jerusalem was again captured by Nebuchadrezzar, the temple was destroyed, and another considerable number of the more prominent inhabitants were transported to Babylonia. The poorer peasantry were left behind to drag out their existence among the ruins. After this event Ezekiel, who was a priest as well as a prophet, in brooding over the fortunes of his people felt certain that at some time Yahweh would rehabilitate a Hebrew state in Palestine, and he drew up a form of organization and of law for the regulation of such a state and its worship; see Ezek., chaps. 40-48. The plan outlined by Ezekiel advances a step farther than the law of Deuteronomy in blending prophetic ideals with the ritual law. . . . After the death of Ezekiel no great Hebrew voice was heard for twenty years. . . . About 550 there arose in Babylonia a new prophet, whose utterances are now summed up in chapters 40-45 of the Book of Isaiah. We do not know his name, but we call him the second Isaiah because by some literary accident or misconception his prophecies were attached to the book containing those of Isaiah. . . . About 500 B.C. or earlier (perhaps during the time of the second Isaiah) a priest imbued with the prophetic spirit drew up the so-called Code of Holiness, which, excluding later additions, now constitutes Lev., chaps. 17-26. This writer felt the influence of Ezekiel strongly, as his laws and style prove. These laws were another step toward a religion which should attain by law what the great prophets had attempted to attain by loyalty to Yahweh.

"About 520 B.C. two prophets, Haggi and Zechariah, who had apparently recently returned to Jerusalem from Babylonia, persuaded the Judaeans that a lack of rain and its consequent famine were evidences of Yahweh's displeasure because the temple had not been rebuilt. The voices of these prophets were so persuasive that its rebuilding was undertaken, and by 516 B.C. the temple was completed, though in a fashion far inferior to its former splendor. After the completion of the temple ordinary historical sources fail us for seventy years. During this period, however, probably about 450 B.C., a prophet kindred in spirit to the second Isaiah came forward. . . . While the third Isaiah was preaching in Jerusalem, priestly circles, probably in Babylonia, were busy making a further codification of the priestly law. . . . During the administration of Nehemiah, which began in 444 B.C., a great convocation of Judaeans was held in the temple court at Jerusalem at which the new law was read to them and they bound themselves to keep it (see Neh., chaps. 8-10). The adoption of this law as the fundamental law of religion marked the complete transformation of the religion. The old nature religion was discarded and Judaism was born. While Judaism was the result of the transformation begun by the prophets it differed in many respects from the prophetic ideals of the eighth century. To them Yahweh was a present God, whose voice still spoke in the hearts of his prophets. From the priestly point of view Yahweh was a distant, exalted God, who long ago spoke to Moses. The prophets had little use for ritual; to the priests ritual was of the utmost importance. To all Hebrews up to this time the dealings of Yahweh with his people were confined to life on the earth. He rewarded his faithful here; he punished the wicked in this life. The pictures of the life after death drawn in Isa. 14:9 ff. and Ezek. 32:22-32 present the same gloomy non-religious conception as that held by the Babylonians and as that reflected in the eleventh book of Homer's *Odyssey.* The ancient Hebrews thought that the world was filled with spirits. These spirits were non-ethical. They were subject to Yahweh, and might be sent by him on missions either of blessing to man or of harm (see I Kings, chap. 22; Job, chaps. 1 and 2). In the prophetic period no need was felt for a belief in Satan. Yahweh was thought to do everything both good and evil (see Amos 3:6; Isa. 45:7). It was only after the exile that the figure of Satan began to emerge, and he was then only an adversary (Zech. 3:1), not the full-fledged prince of evil that he afterward became. The development of Israel's religion through the influence of the prophets from its primitive Semitic beginnings to the formation of Judaism is one of the most significant chapters in the history of the human race. In other countries, as in Egypt, monotheism was grasped by a few; in Israel alone was it made

the possession of the people. Others conceived it as a great idea; the prophets linked it with human rights and common justice. Perhaps even here it would have failed but for the misfortunes of the Jewish state. These constituted a sifting process by which the devotees of the higher religion were separated from the reactionaries and formed into a community in which it was an axiom to men, women, and children that there is but one God and that he demands a righteous life. In this achievement were the seeds of the best religious experience of mankind. It was on account of this that the Hebrew religion became the mother of the three great monotheistic religions of the world, Judaism, Mohammedanism, and Christianity."—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world, pp.* 61-77.—See also CODES: B.C. 13th-6th centuries; IDOLATRY AND IMAGE WORSHIP: Influence on Judaism; PRIESTHOOD: Hebrew priesthood from 3000 B.C.; PROPHETS, HEBREW; RELIGION: B.C. 600-A.D. 30: Inner logic of Hebrew religion.

Schools of the Prophets.—Council of Seventy.—Education in the time of Josephus. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 14th-A.D. 6th centuries.

Currency. See MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient: Jews.

Ancient architecture. See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: Palestine; TEMPLE OF SOLOMON; JERUSALEM: B.C. 1400-700.

Development of music. See MUSIC: Ancient: c. B.C. 1000-A.D. 70.

Study and practice of medicine. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: Jewish.

Historiography. See HISTORY: 14.

Early Semitic migrations.—"The original home of the Semites was somewhere in Arabia, but in course of generations of early nomadic life, so early that the exact dates are more or less guesswork, there began a movement resulting in five great migrations from the mother stock. First there was a movement westward toward Egypt. . . . There are always especially dry times in the Arabian peninsula when the nomads were forced to wander far to keep their flocks alive. The Nile Valley was one of the well-watered regions sought again and again in time of drought by the Semitic tribes. Thus, doubtless, in very early days the original Hamitic stock of Egypt became mixed with the Semitic immigrants from the east. This was the first great migration. The second was northward into the upper end of the peninsula. Here what is known as the Mesopotamian branch of the Semites settled. Mesopotamia is a word which the Greeks applied to the region between the two rivers, Tigris and Euphrates, from the Greek words *mesos*, middle, and *potamos*, river. The Semites who were pushing northward and eastward finally settled in this basin of the Euphrates River, forming the colony known as Akkad. [See also AKKAD.] They mixed with an earlier people, the Sumerians, from the mountainous regions northeast of this plain, and gradually pushed south to the mouth of the river forming the Babylonian colony. [See also BABYLONIA: Earliest inhabitants.] They then ceased their wanderings and became agriculturists instead of nomads, and now we find them grouped together in cities. There were ten of these very old cities near the mouth of the Euphrates River. Ur was one of the oldest of them. . . . Farther inland was the city of Babylon, which in time became the capital of the colony. Another of these exceedingly ancient places is Nippur. . . . This migration from Mesopotamia to Babylonia was the third great Semitic movement. These people were called Akkadians and had a well-established kingdom by 2800 B.C. About the same time another branch moved westward from Mesopotamia to the green strip of land on the shore of the Mediterranean Sea. The people taking part in this fourth migration settled on the narrow plain at the foot of the Lebanons, where they formed the Phoenician colony, and also in the lowlands of Palestine, where they formed the Canaanite race. We find this race well established in walled villages by 2500 B.C. Palestine was originally called Canaan, which some scholars derive from a word meaning 'lowland.' Therefore it may have been so named because it was in the green valleys and plains that these early Semitic colonists established themselves. They must, however, be very definitely distinguished from the Hebrews or Israelites, with whose history we are especially concerned. The Phoenicians have been called 'the Canaanites of the Coast.' "—L. H. Wild, *Evolution of the Hebrew people, pp.* 149-151.—See also ARABIA: Ancient succession and fusion of races; Sabæans; ASSYRIA: People, etc.; CANAAN; SEMITES.

Early Hebrew history.—"The narratives in Genesis . . . lead us to the following conception of Israel's early history. Canaan was originally inhabited by a number of tribes—of Semitic origin, . . . who applied themselves to the rearing of cattle, to agriculture, or to commerce, according to the nature of the districts in which they were established. The countries which were subsequently named after Edom, Ammon, and Moab, also had their aboriginal inhabitants, the Horites, the Zamzummites, and the Emites. Whilst all these tribes retained possession of their dwelling-places, and the inhabitants of Canaan especially had reached a tolerably high stage of civilization and development, there occurred a Semitic migration, which issued from Arrapachitis (Arphacsad, Ur Casdim), and moved on in a south-westerly direction. The countries to the east and the south of Canaan were gradually occupied by these intruders, the former inhabitants being either expelled or subjugated; Ammon, Moab, Ishmael, and Edom became the ruling nations in those districts. In Canaan the situation was different. The tribes which—at first closely connected with the Edomites, but afterwards separated from them—had turned their steps towards Canaan, did not find themselves strong enough either to drive out, or to exact tribute from, the original inhabitants; they continued their wandering life among them, and lived upon the whole at peace with them. But a real settlement was still their aim. When, therefore, they had become more numerous and powerful, through the arrival of a number of kindred settlers from Mesopotamia—represented in tradition by the army with which Jacob returns to Canaan—they resumed their march in the same south-westerly direction, until at length they took possession of fixed habitations in the land of Goshen, on the borders of Egypt."—A. Kuenen, *Religion of Israel, v.* 1, *ch.* 2.—See also CANAAN.—"In the oldest extant record respecting Abraham, Gen. xiv., . . . we see him acting as a powerful domestic prince, among many similar princes, who like him held Canaan in possession; not calling himself King, like Melchizedek, the priest-king of Salem, because he was the father and protector of his house, living with his family and bondmen in the open country, yet equal in power to the petty Canaanite kings. . . . Detached as this account may be, it is at least evident from it that the Canaanites were at that time highly civilised, since they had a priest-king like Melchizedek, whom Abraham held in honour, but that they were even then so weakened by endless divisions and by the emasculating in-

fluence of that culture itself, as either to pay tribute to the warlike nations of the north-east (as the five kings of the cities of the Dead Sea had done for twelve years before they rebelled, ver. 4), or to seek for some valiant descendants of the northern lands living in their midst, who in return for certain concessions and services promised them protection and defence. . . . This idea furnishes the only tenable historical view of the migration of Abraham and his kindred. They did not conquer the land, nor at first hold it by mere force of arms, like the four north-eastern kings from whose hand Abraham delivered Lot, Gen. xiv. They advanced as leaders of small bands, with their fencible servants and the herds, at first rather sought or even invited by the old inhabitants of the land, as good warriors and serviceable allies, than forcing themselves upon them. Thus they took up their abode and obtained possessions among them, but were always wishing to migrate farther, even into Egypt. . . . Little as we are able to prove all the details of that migration from the north towards Egypt, which probably continued for centuries, it may with great certainty be conceived as on the whole similar to the gradual advance of many other northern nations; as of the Germans toward Rome, and of the Turks in these same regions in the Middle Ages. . . . We now understand that Abraham's name can designate only one of the most important and oldest of the Hebrew immigrations. But since Abraham had so early attained a name glorious among the Hebrews advancing towards the south, and since he was everything especially to the nation of Israel which arose out of this immigration, and to their nearest kindred, his name came to be the grand centre and rallying-point of all the memory of those times."—H. Ewald, *History of Israel, bk.* I, *sect.* I.

MOSES

(From the statue by Michelangelo, made for the tomb of Pope Julius II, Rome)

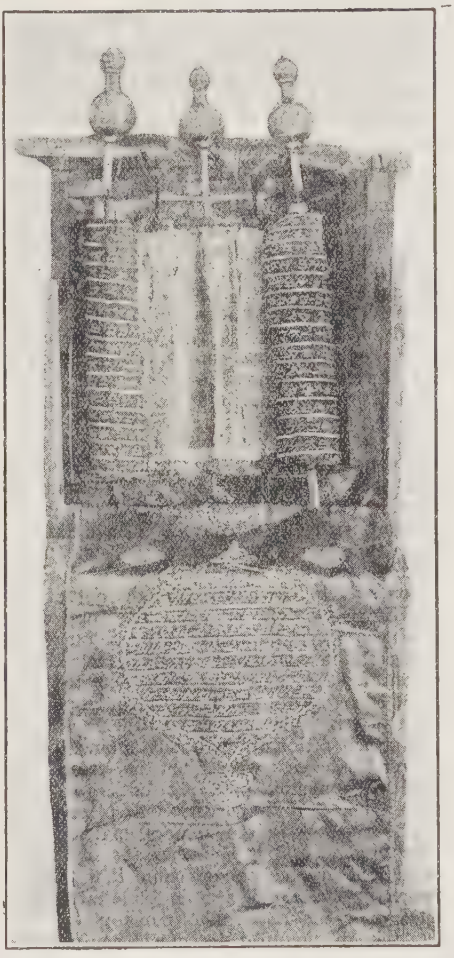
Children of Israel in Egypt.—"It has been very generally supposed that Abraham's visit to Egypt took place under the reign of one of the kings of

the twelfth dynasty [placed by Brugsch 2466-2266 B.C.], but which king has not yet been satisfactorily made out. . . . Some Biblical critics have considered that Amenemha III. was king of Egypt when Abraham came there, and others that Usertsen I. was king, and that Amenemha was the Pharaoh of the time of Joseph. . . . It is generally accepted now that Joseph was sold into Egypt at the time when the Hyksos were in power [and about 1750 B.C.]; and it is also generally accepted that the Exodus took place after the death of Rameses II. and under the reign of Merenptah, or Meneptah. Now the children of Israel were in captivity in Egypt for 400 or 430 years; and as they went out of Egypt after the death of Rameses II., it was probably some time about the year 1350 B.C. There is little doubt that the Pharaoh who persecuted the Israelites so shamefully was Rameses II."—E. A. W. Budge, *Dwellers on the Nile, ch.* 4.—"It is stated by George the Syncellus, . . . that the synchronism of Joseph with Apepi, the last king of the only known Hyksos dynasty, was 'acknowledged by all.' The best modern authorities accept this view, if not as clearly established, at any rate as in the highest degree probable, and believe that it was Apepi who made the gifted Hebrew his prime minister, who invited his father and his brethren to settle in Egypt with their households, and assigned to them the land of Goshen for their residence."—G. Rawlinson, *History of ancient Egypt, v.* 2, *ch.* 19.—"The new Pharaoh, 'who knew not Joseph,' who adorned the city of Ramses, the capital of the Tanitic nome, and the city of Pithom, the capital of what was afterwards the Sethroitic nome, with temple-cities, is no other, can be no other, than Ramessu II. or Rameses—the Sesostris of the Greeks, B.C. 1350, of whose buildings at Zoan the monuments and the papyrus-rolls speak in complete agreement. . . . Ramessu is the Pharaoh of the oppression, and the father of that unnamed princess, who found the child Moses exposed in the bulrushes on the bank of the river. . . . If Ramses-Sesostris . . . must be regarded beyond all doubt as the Pharaoh under whom the Jewish legislator Moses first saw the light, so the chronological relations—having regard to the great age of the two contemporaries, Ramses II. and Moses—demand that Mineptah [his son] should in all probability be acknowledged as the Pharaoh of the Exodus."—H. Brugsch-Bey, *History of Egypt under the Pharaohs, ch.* 14.—The quotations given above represent the orthodox view of early Jewish history, in the light of modern monumental studies,—the view, that is, which accepts the Biblical account of Abraham and his seed as a literal family record, authentically widening into the annals of a nation. The more rationalizing views are indicated by the following: "There can be no doubt . . . as to the Semitic character of these Hyksos, or 'Pastors,' who, more than 2,000 years B.C., interrupted in a measure the current of Egyptian civilisation, and founded at Zoan (Tanis), near the Isthmus, the centre of a powerful Semitic state. These Hyksos were to all appearances Canaanites, near relations of the Hittites of Hebron. Hebron was in close community with Zoan, and there is a tradition, probably based upon historical data, that the two cities were built nearly at the same time. As invariably happens when barbarians enter into an ancient and powerful civilisation, the Hyksos soon became Egyptianised. . . . The Hyksos of Zoan could not fail to exercise a great influence upon the Hebrews who were encamped around Hebron, the Dead Sea, and in the southern districts of Palestine. The antipathy which afterwards existed between the Hebrews and the Canaanites was not as yet very perceptible. . . . There are the best of reasons for believing that the immigration of the Beni-Israel took place at two separate times. A first batch of Israelites seems to have been attracted by the Hittites of Egypt, while the bulk of the tribe was living upon the best of terms with the Hittites of Hebron. These first immigrants found favour with the Egyptianised Hittites of Memphis and Zoan; they secured very good positions, had children, and constituted a distinct family in Israel. This was what was afterwards called the 'clan of the Josephel,' or the Beni-Joseph. Finding themselves well off in Lower Egypt, they sent for their brethren, who, impelled perhaps by famine, joined them there, and were received also favourably by the Hittite dynasties. These new-comers never went to Memphis. They remained in the vicinity of Zoan, where there is a land of Goshen, which was allotted to them. . . . The whole of these ancient days, concerning which Israel possesses only legends and contradictory traditions, is enveloped in doubt; one thing, however, is certain, viz., that Israel entered Egypt under a dynasty favourable to the Semites, and left it under one which was hostile. The presence of a nomad tribe upon the extreme confines of Egypt must have been a matter of very small importance for this latter country. There is no certain trace of it in the Egyptian texts. The kingdom of Zoan, on the contrary, left a deep impression upon the Israelites. Zoan became for them synonymous with Egypt. The relations between Zoan and Hebron were kept up, and . . . Hebron was proud of the synchronism, which made it out seven years older than Zoan. The first-comers, the Josephites, always assumed an air of superiority over their brethren, whose position they had been instrumental in establishing. . . . Their children, born in Egypt, possibly of Egyptian mothers, were scarcely Israelites. An agreement was come to, however; it was agreed that the Josephites should rank as Israelites with the rest. They formed two distinct tribes, those of Ephraim and Manasseh. . . . It is not impossible that the origin of the name of Joseph (addition, adjunction, annexation) may have arisen from the circumstance that the first emigrants and their families, having become strangers to their brethren, needed some sort of adjunction to become again part and parcel of the family of Israel."—E. Renan, *History of the people of Israel, v.* 1, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 10.

"According to the oldest Hebrew records, the part of Egypt in which the Hebrews settled was the land of Goshen. The word has not yet been found on the Egyptian monuments, but there is little doubt regarding its general situation. In its broadest bounds, it apparently included the Wady Tumilat, and extended from the Crocodile Lake, the modern Lake Timsah, to the Pelusiac or the Tanitic branch of the Nile. It was a narrow strip of land thirty or forty miles long. On the west, where the Wady Tumilat opened into the Nile Delta, it broadened into an irregular triangle. Its angles were at the modern cities of Zigazig, in the northwest, Belbeis in the south, and Abu Hammad at the beginning of the valley on the east. By many scholars this triangle is regarded as the original land of Goshen. Until the days of Ramses II the entire region, including the Wady Tumilat, was given up to the shepherds. Here, therefore, the Israelites could keep their flocks and maintain their tribal unity and prac-

tical independence. . . . The great change in the fortunes of the Hebrews was in all probability the result of the policy of Ramses II. To carry out his ambitious building enterprises it was necessary for him to enlist the services of vast bodies of workmen. Into this service he naturally pressed the foreigners resident in or on the borders of Egypt. In order to connect Egypt more closely with its Palestinian provinces, and above all to develop its resources to the full, this famous organizer conceived and carried through the plan of converting the eastern Nile Delta and the Wady Tumilat into tillable land. To this end he probably repaired and enlarged the canal that had been constructed as early as the days of the Twelfth Dynasty. It was about fifteen yards in width and sixteen to seventeen and a half feet in depth, and ran eastward from the Nile Delta through the Wady Tumilat into the Crocodile Lake. According to Pliny, it was sixty-three miles in length. It is paralleled to-day throughout most of its course by the fresh-water canal, which irrigates this region and supplies the towns on the Suez Canal with drinking water. The ancient canal was constructed primarily for navigation, but it was also essential in reclaiming the land on either side."—C. F. Kent, *Biblical geography and history, pp.* 108-110.—Further to effect the transformation of this region it is said of the oppressed Israelites in Egypt that "they built for Pharaoh treasure cities, Pithom and Raamses." (Exodus, 1:11.) One of those "treasure cities," or "store-cities," has been discovered, in a heap of ruins, at a place which the Arabs call "Tell el Maskhutah," and it was supposed at first to be the Raamses of the Biblical record. But explorations made in 1883 by M. Naville seem to have proved that it is the store-city of Pithom which lies buried in the mounds at Tell el Maskhutah and that Raamses is still to be found.—Based on E. Naville, *Store-city of Pithom.*—"In the light of the well-established facts of Egyptian history and of the geographical background, it is easy to appreciate the condition of the nomadic Israelites. Their pasture lands were transformed into cultivated fields and occupied by Egyptian colonists. The sons of the desert, ever restive under the restraints of civil authority, were put at forced labor and compelled to build the border fortresses which made their bondage the more hopeless. Palestine was in the control of their royal Egyptian task-master. The wilderness that stretched almost from their doors far out into the wild, rocky desert, offered the one possible place of escape; but under the iron rule of Ramses II and his successor, Merneptah, the escape of large bodies of fugitives was practically impossible. . . . Moses' work in leading the Hebrews from Egypt is a familiar chapter in biblical history. In the break-down of the Egyptian government and in the period of anarchy which followed the fall of the Nineteenth Dynasty, a supremely favorable opportunity was offered for the escape of the serfs."—C. F. Kent, *Biblical geography and history, pp.* 110-111.—See also Egypt: Hyksos or shepherd kings.

Exodus.—Biblical data.—Critical view.—Probable date.—Route.—According to the Biblical story, the Israelites unable to endure their oppression in the land of Goshen any longer looked about for a way of escape. For this purpose they summoned Moses from the land of Midian. He demanded of Pharaoh his people's release that they might go away and serve Jehovah. But this the Egyptian king refused to grant and Moses was forced to have recourse to miracles. It was not until ten plagues had been visited upon the land that Pharoah allowed the Israelites to depart. In one night, six hundred thousand men, besides women and children, with their cattle and household goods left Rameses for Succoth (Exodus, 13:17). Fearing their return to Egypt Jehovah commanded Moses to encamp before Pihahiroth, "between Migdol and the (Red) sea" (Exodus, 14:2). In the meantime Pharaoh regretted the departure of the Israelites. He decided to recapture them and started out with six hundred chariots and an army. The Israelites in their



© Underwood & Underwood

PENTATEUCH ROLL

terror reproached their leader and called upon God for help. The Lord did not fail them. Moses lifted up his rod, the water receded, and his people passed over the bed of the sea dry-shod. The Egyptians and their King continued their pursuit and were engulfed by the returning waters (Exodus, 14:15). "That the events narrated in Exodus can not be historical in all their details has been generally conceded. The numbers are certainly fanciful: 600,000 men would represent a total of at least two million souls. Where these could have found room and subsistence in the land of Goshen, granted even that many of them lived in Pharaoh's capital, or in the district of Rameses (Gen. xiv. 10, 18; xlvii. 11), and how so vast an

unorganized host could have crossed the Red Sea in one night are questions that have not been explained (Colenso, 'The Pentateuch,' i. 1867; Kuenen, 'Historisch-Kritische Einleitung in die Bücher des Alten Testaments,' i. 1,44 *et seq.*). The Exodus must have been a movement of a much smaller body of men. To doubt, as has been done by Winckler, for instance ('Gesch. Israels in Einzeldarstellungen,' i. 55), the historical possibility of such a movement on the assumption that a confusion has arisen in Hebrew traditions between 'Mizraim' (Egypt) and the 'Muzri,' a North-Arabian tribe, is not reasonable. In view of the central character of the Exodus in all later Hebrew theology, such a denial is inadmissible. Egyptian monuments show that Semitic shepherd tribes settled in Egypt at various periods. Though the theory that the Hebrews are identical with the equestrian clan of the Aper is not tenable (Brugsch, 'Gesch. Aegyptens Unter den Pharaonen,' pp. 582-583), and though the Israelites are nowhere named on the Egyptian monuments as sojourning in Egypt, the historical character of their own traditions on their stay in the country can not well be questioned. . . . Oppressed and compelled to help build the frontier garrison cities devised to keep them in check and their kinsmen across the frontier at bay, the Israelites invoked and received aid from their free brethren, who banded themselves into a confederation and, under the leadership of a great man (Moses), succeeded in their patriotic enterprise. Like all old races, the Israelites regarded their national struggle as a combat between their God and the god or gods of their enemies. In their victory they beheld the triumph of their all-powerful God, 'a warrior' (Ex. xv. 3, Hebr.), over Pharaoh. This stupendous struggle, which must have lasted for a long time, gave the first permanent impulse toward the welding of all the sons of Israel into a nation, which Yhwh had brought out of Egypt to be His people (Ex. xv. 16). The total destruction of the Egyptian army with its king is also an exaggerated statement of the fact that the Egyptian frontier garrisons were defeated in the attempt to recapture the Israelites or impede their onward march. The 'crossing of the Red Sea' has invited much rationalizing about ebbing tides and the effect of the east wind upon the waters. Some natural phenomenon probably underlies the account, as also that of the ten plagues. But this phenomenon is the remote material of an old mythology, and it is rather the mythological construction of the phenomenon than the phenomenon itself that has been elaborated in the Biblical narratives. . . . The dates given in the Bible, though involved in much confusion, . . . lend strong probability to the assumption that the Exodus took place under a king of the nineteenth dynasty (about 1500-1300 B.C.). I Kings vi. 1 fixes the interval between the Exodus and the building of the Temple at over 480 years. Rehoboam—forty-one years after the building of the Temple . . . [I Kings, 14:25]—is contemporaneous with Shishak, the first king of the twenty-second dynasty (*c.* 950 B.C.). This would give about 1470 B.C. for the Exodus (Brugsch, *l. c.* pp. 768 *et seq.*). The finding by Flinders Petrie (1896) of an inscription by Merneptah I. in which for the first time 'Isir'l' occurs in an Egyptian text, as well as the contents of the El-Amarna tablets, has corroborated the virtual correctness of the date given above."—E. G. Hirsch, *Exodus* (*Jewish encyclopedia, v.* 5, *pp.* 294-296).

—"Moses evidently had no definite plans for his horde of runaways beyond getting them safely out of Egypt. He might have taken them in one of three ways: (1) The caravan road to Syria, which would have led them among the newly arrived pirates, the Philistines; (2) the road southward along the eastern shore of the Red Sea, which would have led them into Egyptian garrisons stationed to guard the copper and turquoise mines at Dophkah; and (3) the road he had travelled twice before to the land of Midian, a route used to-day by the pilgrims from Cairo to Mecca. The last road would bring them most speedily beyond Egyptian authority. There is positively no evidence to decide which of the two latter routes he took. Our only authority for placing Mount Sinai where it is generally found on the maps is an ignorant monk of the fourth century A.D. In fact, if the data given in the Bible are carefully weighed, they point to the location of Sinai-Horeb somewhere in the land of Midian east of the Gulf of Akabah, or in the Mount Seir group north of that point. On the whole, it seems probable that the Israelites went straight to Elim (Elath) at the head of the Gulf of Akabah; they sought the mountain of Jehovah to the northeast in the vicinity of Mount Seir, made their attempt to enter Palestine by way of Kadesh Barnea and the South Country; lost their grip upon what little purpose they had and became nomads with Kadesh as their centre; and last of all, struck for the richer grazing-lands that overlooked the Jordan from the east. . . . This itinerary occupied 'forty years' that is, about two generations."—A. E. Bailey and C. F. Kent, *History of the Hebrew commonwealth, pp.* 37-38.

Law of Moses. See CODES: B.C. 13th-6th centuries; History: 14.

Jewish year.—Cycles in use after the dispersion.—Mundane era. See CHRONOLOGY: Jewish year; Cycles in use; Jewish Mundane era.

Conquest of Canaan.—"The first essay [west of Jordan] was made by Judah in conjunction with Simeon and Levi, but was far from prosperous. Simeon and Levi were annihilated; Judah also, though successful in mastering the mountain land to the west of the Dead Sea, was so only at the cost of severe losses which were not again made up until the accession of the Kenite families of the south (Caleb). As a consequence of the secession of these tribes, a new division of the nation into Israel and Judah took the place of that which had previously subsisted between the families of Leah and Rachel; under Israel were included all the tribes except Simeon, Levi, and Judah, which three are no longer mentioned in Judg. v., where all the others are carefully and exhaustively enumerated. This half-abortive first invasion of the west was followed by a second, which was stronger and attended with much better results. It was led by the tribe of Joseph, to which the others attached themselves, Reuben and Gad only remaining behind in the old settlements. The district to the north of Judah, inhabited afterwards by Benjamin, was the first to be attacked. It was not until after several towns of this district had one by one fallen into the hands of the conquerors that the Canaanites set about a united resistance. They were, however, decisively repulsed by Joshua in the neighbourhood of Gibeon [or Beth-horon]; and by this victory the Israelites became masters of the whole central plateau of Palestine. [See also BETH-HORON.] The first camp, at Gilgal, near the ford of Jordan, which had been maintained until then, was now removed, and the ark of Jehovah brought further inland (perhaps by way of Bethel) to Shiloh, where henceforwards the headquarters were fixed,

in a position which seemed as if it had been expressly made to favour attacks upon the fertile tract lying beneath it on the north. The Bne Rachel now occupied the new territory which up to that time had been acquired—Benjamin, in immediate contiguity with the frontier of Judah, then Ephraim, stretching to beyond Shiloh, and lastly Manasseh, furthest to the north, as far as to the plain of Jezreel. The centre of gravity, so to speak, already lay in Ephraim, to which belonged Joshua and the ark. It is mentioned as the last achievement of Joshua that at the waters of Merom he defeated Jabin, king of Hazor, and the allied princes of Galilee, thereby opening up the north for Israelitish settlers. . . . Even after the united resistance of the Canaanites had been broken, each individual community had still enough to do before it could take firm hold of the spot which it had searched out for itself or to which it had been assigned. The business of effecting permanent settlement was just a continuation of the former struggle, only on a diminished scale; every tribe and every family now fought for its own hand after the preliminary work had been accomplished by a united effort. Naturally, therefore, the conquest was at first but an incomplete one. The plain which fringed the coast was hardly touched; so also the valley of Jezreel with its girdle of fortified cities stretching from Acco to Bethshean. All that was subdued in the strict sense of that word was the mountainous land, particularly the southern hill-country of 'Mount Ephraim'; yet even here the Canaanites retained possession of not a few cities, such as Jebus, Shechem, Thebez. It was only after the lapse of centuries that all the lacunæ were filled up, and the Canaanite enclaves made tributary. The Israelites had the extraordinarily disintegrated state of the enemy to thank for the ease with which they had achieved success."—J. Wellhausen, *Sketch of the history of Israel and Judah, ch.* 2.—"Remnants of the Canaanites remained everywhere among and between the Israelites. Beside the Benjamites the Jebusites (a tribe of the Amorites) maintained themselves, and at Gibeon, Kirjath-jearim, Chephirah, and Beeroth were the Hivites, who had made peace with the Israelites. In the land of Ephraim, the Canaanites held their ground at Geser and Bethel, until the latter—it was an important city—was stormed by the Ephraimites. Among the tribe of Manasseh the Canaanites were settled at Beth Shean, Dan, Taanach, Jibleam, Megiddo and their districts, and in the northern tribes the Canaanites were still more numerous. It was not till long after the immigration of the Hebrews that they were made in part tributary. The land of the Israelites beyond the Jordan, where the tribe of Manasseh possessed the north, Gad the centre, and Reuben the south as far as the Arnon, was exposed to the attacks of the Ammonites and Moabites, and the migratory tribes of the Syrian desert, and must have had the greater attraction for them, as better pastures were to be found in the heights of Gilead, and the valleys there were more fruitful. To the west only the tribe of Ephraim reached the sea, and became master of a harbourless strip of coast. The remaining part of the coast and all the harbours remained in the hands of the powerful cities of the Philistines and the Phenicians. No attempt was made to conquer these, although border-conflicts took place between the tribes of Judah, Dan, and Asher, and Philistines and Sidonians. Such an attempt could only have been made if the Israelites had remained united, and even then the powers of the Israelites would hardly have sufficed to overthrow the walls of Gaza, Ascalon, and Ashdod, of Tyre, Sidon, and Byblus. Yet the invasion of the Israelites was not without results for the cities of the coast: it forced a large part of the population to assemble in them, and we shall see . . . how rapid and powerful is the growth of the strength and importance of Tyre in the time immediately following the incursion of the Israelites, i. e., immediately after the middle of the thirteenth century. As the population and in consequence the power of the cities on the coast increased, owing to the collection of the ancient population on the shore of the sea, those cities became all the more dangerous neighbours for the Israelites. It was a misfortune for the new territory which the Israelites had won by the sword that it was without the protection of natural boundaries on the north and east, that the cities of the Philistines and Phenicians barred it towards the sea, and in the interior remnants of the Canaanites still maintained their place. Yet it was a far more serious danger for the immigrants that they were without unity, connection, or guidance, for they had already given up these before the conflict was ended. Undoubtedly a vigorous leadership in the war of conquest against the Canaanites might have established a military monarchy which would have provided better for the maintenance of the borders and the security of the land than was done in its absence. But the isolated defence made by the Canaanites permitted the attacking party also to isolate themselves. The new masters of the land lived, like the Canaanites before and among them, in separate cantons; the mountain land which they possessed was much broken up, and without any natural centre, and though there were dangerous neighbours, there was no single concentrated aggressive power in the neighbourhood, now that Egypt remained in her borders. The cities of the Philistines formed a federation merely, though a federation far more strongly organised than the tribes of the Israelites. Under these circumstances political unity was not an immediately pressing question among the Israelites."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 11.—See also CANAAN; CHRISTIANITY: Map of Canaan.

ALSO IN: H. Ewald, *History of Israel, bk.* 2, *sect.* 2.

Israel under the Judges.—Wars of the period.—Conquest of Gilead and Bashan.—Corrupting influence of Canaanites on Israelites.—Founding of kingdom.—The period from the death of Joshua down to the revival and consolidation of Israel as a kingdom under Saul is generally termed the period of the Judges. The Judges must not be regarded as heads of regularly organized states, but rather as dictators who became the leaders of tribes. In time of peace their function was to settle disputes which could not be settled by the "elders." "After the subjection of the chief Canaanitic peoples, the Israelites had relaxed their energies, and had entered into friendly relations in many cases with their former foes. The result was an oppressive subjugation of the Israelites until they remembered God, who raised up Judges to deliver them. . . . The period was also characterized by a centrifugal tendency both in national and religious life. . . . It was an age of heroes, not only physical but moral."—*New Schaff-Herzog encyclopedia of religious knowledge, v.* 6, *p.* 253.—"The first war mentioned in the days of the Judges is with the Syrians, at a time when the Israelites, or a northern portion of them, were held in servitude for eight years by a king whose name, Cushan-rish-athaim, which may be trans-

lated the 'Most Wicked Negress,' seems to place him in the region of imaginary tradition rather than of history. . . . The next war mentioned was an invasion by the Moabites, who, being joined with a body of Ammonites and Amalakites, harassed the Israelites of the neighbourhood of Gilgal and Jericho. [See also MOABITES; AMALEKITES.] . . . After a servitude of 18 years under the Moabites, Ehud, a Benjamite, found an opportunity of stabbing Eglon, the king of Moab; and shortly afterwards the Benjamites were relieved by a body of their neighbours from the hill country of Ephraim. The Israelites then defeated the Moabites, and seized the fords of the Jordan to stop their retreat, and slew them all to a man. While this war was going on on one side of the land, the Philistines from the south were harassing those of the Israelites who were nearest to their country. . . . The history then carries us back to the northern Israelites, and we hear of their struggle with the Canaanites of that part of the country which was afterwards called Galilee. These people were under a king named Jabin, who had 900 chariots of iron, and they cruelly oppressed the men of Naphtali and Zebulun, who were at that time the most northerly of the Israelites. After a suffering of 20 years, the two tribes of Zebulun and Naphtali, under the leadership of Barak, rallied against their oppressors, and called to their help their stronger neighbours, the men of Ephraim. The tribe of Ephraim was the most settled portion of the Israelites, and they had adopted some form of government, while the other tribes were stragglers scattered over the land, every man doing what was right in his own eyes. The Ephraimites were at that time governed, or, in their own language, judged, by a brave woman of the name of Deborah, who led her followers, together with some of the Benjamites, to the assistance of Barak, the leader of Zebulun and Naphtali; and, at the foot of Mount Tabor, near the brook Kishon, their united forces defeated Sisera, the general of the Canaanites. Sisera fled, and was murdered by Jael, a woman in whose tent he had sought for refuge. . . . The next war that we are told of is an invasion by the Midianites and Amalakites and Children of the East. They crossed the Jordan to attack the men of Manasseh, who were at the same time struggling with the Amorites, the natives who dwelt amongst them. Gideon, the leader of Manasseh, called together the fighting men of his own tribe, together with those of Asher, Zebulun, and Naphtali. The men of Gilead, who had come over to help him, seem to have deserted him. Gideon, however, routed his enemies, and then he summoned the Ephraimites to guard the fords of the Jordan, and to cut off the fugitives. . . . This victory of Gideon, or Jerubbaal, as he was also named, marked him out as a man fit to be the ruler of Israel, and to save them from the troubles that arose from the want of a single head to lead them against the enemies that surrounded them and dwelt among them. Accordingly, he obtained the rank of chief of all the northern Israelites. Gideon had dwelt at Ophrah, in the land of Manasseh; but his son Abimelech, who succeeded him in his high post, was born in Shechem, in the land of Ephraim, and had thus gained the friendship of some of that tribe. Abimelech put to death all but one of his brethren, the other sons of Gideon, and got himself made king at Shechem; and he was the first who bore that title among the Israelites. But his thus violently seizing upon the power was the cause of a long civil war between Ephraim and Manasseh, which ended in the death of the usurper Abimelech, and the transfer of the chieftainship to another tribe. Tola, a man of Issachar, was then made Judge, or ruler of the northern tribes. . . . After Tola, says the historian, Jair of Gilead judged Israel. . . . Jair and his successors may have ruled in the east at the same time that Deborah and Gideon and their successors were ruling or struggling against their oppressors in the west. Jephtha of Gilead is the next great captain mentioned. . . . The Ammonites, who dwelt in the more desert country to the east of Gilead, had made a serious incursion on the Israelites on both sides of the Jordan; and the men of Gilead, in their distress, sent for Jephtha, who was then living at Tob, in Syria, whither he had fled from a quarrel with his brethren. . . . It seems that the Ammonites invaded Gilead on the plea that they had possessed that land before the Israelites arrived there, to which Jephtha answered that the Israelites had dispossessed the Amorites under Sihon, king of Heshbon, and that the Ammonites had not dwelt in that part of the country. In stating the argument, the historian gives a history of their arrival on the banks of the Jordan. On coming out of Lower Egypt, they crossed the desert to the Red Sea, and then came to Kadesh. From thence they asked leave of the Edomites and Moabites to pass through their territory; but, being refused, they went round Moab till they came to the northern bank of the river Arnon, an eastern tributary of the Jordan. There they were attacked by Sihon, king of the Amorites; and on defeating him they seized his territory, which lay between the Arnon and the Jabbok. There the Israelites had dwelt quietly for 300 years, without fighting against either the Moabites or the Ammonites, who were both too strong to be attacked. This is a most interesting narrative, both for what it tells and for what it omits, as compared with the longer narrative in the Pentateuch. . . . It omits all mention of the delivery of the Law, or of the Ark, or of any supernatural events as having happened on the march, and of the fighting with Og, king of Bashan. Og, or Gog, as it is spelled by other writers, was the name of the monarch whose imaginary castles, seen upon the mountains in the distance, the traveller thought it not wise to approach. They were at the limits of all geographical knowledge. At this early time this fabulous king held Mount Bashan; in Ezekiel's time he had retreated to the shores of the Caspian Sea; and ten centuries later the Arabic travellers were stopped by him at the foot of the Altai Mountains, in Central Asia. His withdrawing before the advance of geographical explorers proves his unreal character. He is not mentioned in this earlier account of the Israelites settling in the land of the Amorites; it is only in the more modern narrative in the Book of Numbers that he is attacked and defeated in battle, and only in the yet more modern Book of Deuteronomy that we learn about his iron bedstead of nine cubits in length."—S. Sharpe, *History of the Hebrew nation, pp.* 4-9.—"At the close of the period of the Judges the greater part of the Israelites had quite lost their pastoral habits. They were an agricultural people living in cities and villages, and their oldest civil laws are framed for this kind of life. All the new arts which this complete change of habit implies they must have derived from the Canaanites, and as they learned the ways of agricultural life they could hardly fail to acquire many of the characteristics of their teachers. To make the transformation complete only one thing was lacking—that Israel should also accept the religion of the

aborigines. The history and the prophets alike testify that to a great extent they actually did this. Canaanite sanctuaries became Hebrew holy places, and the vileness of Canaanite nature-worship polluted the Hebrew festivals. For a time it seemed that Jehovah, the ancestral God of Israel, who brought their fathers up out of the house of bondage and gave them their goodly land, would be forgotten or transformed into a Canaanite Baal. If this change had been completed Israel would have left no name in the world's history; but Providence had other things in store for the people of Jehovah. Henceforth the real significance of Israel's fortunes lies in the preservation and development of the national faith, and the history of the tribes of Jacob is rightly set forth in the Bible as the history of that divine discipline by which Jehovah maintained a people for Himself amidst the seductions of Canaanite worship and the ever-new backslidings of Israel. . . . In the end Jehovah was still the God of Israel, and had become the God of Israel's land. Canaan was His heritage, not the heritage of the Baalim, and the Canaanite worship appears henceforth, not as a direct rival to the worship of Jehovah, but as a disturbing element corrupting the national faith, while unable to supplant it altogether. This, of course, in virtue of the close connection between religion and national feeling, means that Israel had now risen above the danger of absorption in the Canaanites, and felt itself to be a nation in the true sense of the word. We learn from the books of Samuel how this great advance was ultimately and permanently secured. The earlier wars recorded in the book of Judges had brought about no complete or lasting unity among the Hebrew tribes. But at length a new enemy arose, more formidable than any whom they had previously encountered. The Philistines from Caphtor, who, like the Israelites, had entered Canaan as emigrants, but coming most probably by sea had displaced the aboriginal Avvim in the rich coastlands beneath the mountains of Judah (Deut. ii. 23; Amos ix. 7), pressed into the heart of the country, and broke the old strength of Ephraim in the battle of Ebenezer. This victory cut the Hebrew settlements in two, and threatened the independence of all the tribes. The common danger drew Israel together."—W. R. Smith, *Prophets of Israel, lect.* 1.

Kingdoms of Israel and Judah.—"No one appeared again in the character at once of judge and warrior, to protect the people by force of arms. It was the Levite Samuel, a prophet dedicated to God even before his birth, who recalled them to the consciousness of religious feeling. He succeeded in removing the emblems of Baal and Astarte from the heights, and in paving the way for renewed faith in Jehovah. . . . It was the feeling of the people that they could only carry on the war upon the system employed by all their neighbors. They demanded a king—a request very intelligible under existing circumstances, but one which nevertheless involved a wide and significant departure from the impulses which had hitherto moved the Jewish community and the forms in which it had shaped itself. . . .The Israelites demanded a king, not only to go before them and fight their battles, but also to judge them. They no longer looked for their preservation to the occasional efforts of the prophetic order and the ephemeral existence of heroic leaders. . . . The argument by which Samuel, as the narrative records, seeks to deter the people from their purpose, is that the king will encroach upon the freedom of private life which they have hitherto enjoyed, employing their sons and daughters in his service, whether in the palace or in war, exacting tithes, taking the best part of the land for himself, and regarding all as his bondsmen. In this freedom of tribal and family life lay the essence of the Mosaic constitution. But the danger that all may be lost is so pressing that the people insist upon their own will in opposition to the prophet. Nevertheless, without the prophet nothing can be done, and it is he who selects from the youth of the country the man who is to enjoy the new dignity in Israel. . . . At first the proceeding had but a doubtful result. Many despised a young man sprung from the smallest family of the smallest tribe of Israel, as one who could give them no real assistance. In order to make effective the conception of the kingly office thus assigned to him, it was necessary in the first place that he should gain for himself a personal reputation. A king of the Ammonites, a tribe in affinity to Israel, laid siege to Jabesh in Gilead, and burdened the proffered surrender of the place with the condition that he should put out the right eyes of the inhabitants. . . . Saul, the son of Kish, a Benjamite, designated by the prophet as king, but not as yet recognized as such, was engaged, as Gideon before him, in his rustic labors, when he learned the situation through the lamentations of the people. . . . Seized with the idea of his mission, Saul cuts in pieces a yoke of oxen, and sends the portions to the twelve tribes with the threat, 'Whosoever cometh not forth after Saul and after Samuel, so shall it be done unto his oxen.' . . . Thus urged, . . . Israel combines like one man; Jabesh is rescued and Saul acknowledged as king. . . . With the recognition of the king, however, and the progress of his good-fortune, a new and disturbing element appears. A contest breaks out between him and the prophet, in which we recognize not so much opposition as jealousy between the two powers. . . . On the one side was the independent power of monarchy, which looks to the requirements of the moment, on the other the prophet's tenacious and unreserved adherence to tradition. . . . The relations between the tribes have also some bearing on the question. Hitherto Ephraim had led the van, and jealously insisted on its prerogative. Saul was of Benjamin, a tribe nearly related to Ephraim by descent. He had made the men of his own tribe captains, and had given them vineyards. On the other hand, the prophet chose Saul's successor from the tribe of Judah. This successor was David, the son of Jesse. . . . In the opposition which now begins we have on the one side the prophet and his anointed, who aim at maintaining the religious authority in all its aspects, on the other the champion and deliverer of the nation, who, abandoned by the faithful, turns for aid to the powers of darkness and seeks knowledge of the future through witchcraft. Saul is the first tragic personage in the history of the world. David took refuge with the Philistines. Among them he lived as an independent military chieftain, and was joined not only by opponents of the king, but by others, ready for any service, or, in the language of the original, 'men armed with bows, who could use both the right hand and the left in hurling stones and shooting arrows out of a bow.' . . . In any serious war against the Israelites, such as actually broke out, the Sarim of the Philistines would not have tolerated him amongst them. David preferred to engage in a second attack upon the Amalekites, the common enemy of Philistines and Jews. At this juncture Israel was defeated by the Philistines. The king's sons were slain; Saul,

in danger of falling into the enemy's hands, slew himself. Meanwhile David with his freebooters had defeated the Amalekites, and torn from their grasp the spoil they had accumulated, which was now distributed in Judah. Soon after, the death of Saul is announced. . . . David, conscious of being the rightful successor of Saul,—for on him too, long ere this, the unction had been bestowed —betook himself to Hebron, the seat of the ancient Canaanitish kings, which had subsequently been given up to the priests and made one of the cities of refuge. It was in the province of Judah; and there, the tribe of Judah assisting at the ceremony, David was once more anointed. This tribe alone, however, acknowledged him; the others, especially Ephraim and Benjamin, attached themselves to Ishbosheth, the surviving son of Saul. . . . The first passage of arms between the two hosts took place between twelve of the tribe of Benjamin and twelve of David's men-at-arms. It led, however, to no result; it was a mutual slaughter, so complete as to leave no survivor. But in the more serious struggle which succeeded this the troops of David, trained as they were in warlike undertakings of great daring as well as variety, won the victory over Ishbosheth; and as the unanointed king could not rely upon the complete obedience of his commander-in-chief, who considered himself as important as his master, David, step by step, won the upper hand. . . . The Benjamites had been the heart and soul of the opposition which David experienced. Nevertheless, the first action which he undertook as acknowledged king of all the tribes redounded specially to their advantage, whilst it was at the same time a task of the utmost importance for the whole Israelitish commonwealth. Although Joshua had conquered the Amorites, one of their strongholds, Jebus, still remained unsubdued, and the Benjamites had exerted all their strength against it in vain. It was to this point that David next directed his victorious arms. Having conquered the place, he transferred the seat of his kingdom thither without delay. [See JERUSALEM: B.C. 2100-1400.] This seat is Jerusalem; the word Zion has the same meaning as Jebus."—L. von Ranke, *Universal history: Oldest historical groups of nations, ch.* 2. —"After Saul's death it was at first only in Judah, where David maintained his government, that a new Kingdom of Israel could be established at all, so disastrous were the consequences of the great Philistine victory. The Philistines, who must have already conquered the central territory, now occupied that to the north, also, while the inhabitants of the cities of the great plain of Jezreel and of the western bank of the Jordan, fled, we are very distinctly informed, across the river."—H. Ewald, *History of Israel, bk.* 3.—But Abner, the strong warrior and the faithful kinsman of Saul's family, took Ishbosheth, the oldest surviving son of his dead king, and throned him in the city of Mahanaim, beyond the Jordan, proceeding gradually to gather a kingdom for him by reconquest from the Philistines. Thus the Israelite nation was first divided into the two kingdoms of Israel and Judah, and there was bitter war between them. But that first division was not to endure long. Abner and Ishbosheth fell victims to treachery, and the tribes which had held by them offered allegiance to David, who then became king over "all Israel and Judah." By the conquest of the city of Jebus from its Canaanite founders and possessors, he acquired a new, impregnable capital, which, under the name of Jerusalem, grew to be the most reverently looked upon of all the cities of the world. "History has been completely distorted in representing David as the head of a powerful kingdom, which embraced nearly the whole of Syria. [See also SYRIA: B.C. 1000-700.] David was king of Judah and of Israel, and that was all; the neighboring peoples, Hebrews, Canaanites, Arameans and Philistines, as far as Mahul Hermon and the desert, were sternly subjected, and were more or less its tributaries. In reality, with the exception, perhaps, of the small town of Ziklag, David did not annex any non-Israelite country to the domain of Israel. The Philistines, the Edomites, the Moabites, the Ammonites, and the Arameans of Zoba, of Damascus, of Rehob and of Maacah were, after his day, very much what they were before, only a little weaker. Conquest was not a characteristic of Israel; the taking possession of the Canaanite lands was an act of a different order, and it came to be more and more regarded as the execution of a decree of Iahveh. As this decree did not extend to the lands of Edom, of Moab, of Ammon and of Aram, the Israelites deemed themselves justified in treating the Edomites, the Moabites, the Ammonites and the Arameans with the utmost severity, in carrying off their precious stones and objects of price, but not in taking their land, or in changing their dynasty. None of the methods employed by great empires such as Assyria was known to these small peoples, which had scarcely got beyond the status of tribes. They were as cruel as Assur, but much less politic and less capable of a general plan. The impression produced by the appearance of this new royalty was none the less extraordinary. The halo of glory which enveloped David remained like a star upon the forehead of Israel." —E. Renan, *History of the people of Israel, v.* 2, *bk.* 3, *ch.* 4.—David died about 1000 B.C. and was succeeded by his son Solomon, whose mother, Bathsheba, secured the throne for him by intrigue. "Solomon was a younger son, to whom the throne had been allotted contrary to ordinary laws of succession, whilst Adonijah, whom a portion of the people had recognised as king, was considered the rightful heir. So long as the latter lived, Solomon's government could not be on a firm basis, and he could never feel himself secure. Adonijah had therefore to be removed; the leader of the body guard, Benaiah, forcibly entered his house and killed him. As an excuse for this act of violence, it was asserted that Adonijah had attempted to win the hand of Abishag, the young widow of David, and thus had revealed his traitorous intention of contesting the throne with his brother. No sooner had he fallen than Joab, the former adherent of Adonijah, feared that a similar fate would overtake him. This exemplary general, who had contributed so considerably to the aggrandisement of the people of Israel and to the power of the house of David, fled to the altar on Mount Zion, and clung to it, hoping to escape death. Benaiah, however, refused to respect his place of refuge, and shed his blood at the altar. In order to excuse this crime, it was circulated that David himself, on his death-bed, had impressed on his successor the duty of preventing Joab's grey head from sinking in peace to its last rest. . . . Adonijah's priestly partisan, Abiathar, whom Solomon did not dare to touch, was deprived of his office as high priest, and Zadok was made the sole head of the priesthood. His descendants were invested with the dignity of high priest for over a thousand years, whilst the offspring of Abiathar were neglected. The Benjamite Shimei, who had attacked David with execrations on his flight from Jerusalem, was also executed, and it was only through this threefold deed of blood that Solo-

mon's throne appeared to gain stability. Solomon then directed his attention to the formation of a court of the greatest magnificence."—H. Graetz, *History of the Jews, v.* 1, *ch.* 9.—"The main characteristic of Solomon's reign was peace. The Philistines, allies of the new dynasty, and given profitable employment by it as mercenaries, were no longer tempted to cross the frontier. . . . The decay of military strength was only felt in the zone of countries which were tributary to the kingdom. Hadad, or Hadar, the Edomite, who had been defeated by Joab and had taken refuge in Egypt, having heard of David's death, and that of Joab as well, left Pharaoh, whose sister-in-law he had married. We have no details of this war. . . . We only know that Hadad braved Israel throughout the whole of Solomon's reign, that he did it all the injury he could, and that he was an independent ruler over a great part at all events of Edom. A still more formidable adversary was Rezon, son of Eliadah, an Aramean warrior who, after the defeat of his lord, Hadadezer, king of Zobah, had assembled about him those who had fled before the sword of David. . . . A lucky 'coup-de-main' placed the city of Damascus at their mercy, and they succeeded in maintaining themselves there. During the whole of Solomon's reign Rezon continued to make war against Israel. The kingdom of Zobah does not appear, however, to have been re-established. Damascus became henceforth the centre and capital of that part of Aramea which adjoined Mount Hermon. David's horizon never extended beyond Syria. With Solomon, fresh perspectives opened up for the Israelites, especially for Jerusalem. Israel is no longer a group of tribes, continuing to lead in its mountains the patriarchal life of the past. It is a well-organised kingdom, small according to our ideas, but rather large judged by the standard of the day. The worldly life of the people of Iahveh is about to begin. If Israel had no other life but that it would not have found a place in history. . . . An alliance with Egypt was the first step in that career of profane politics which the prophets afterwards interlarded with so much that was impossible. . . . The king of Egypt gave Gezer as a dowry to his daughter, and married her to Solomon. . . . It is not too much to suppose that the tastes of this princess for refined luxury had a great influence upon the mind of her husband. . . . The relations of Solomon with Tyre exercised a still more civilising influence. Tyre, recently separated from Sidon, was then at the zenith of its activity, and, so to speak, in the full fire of its first foundation. A dynasty of kings named Hiram, or rather Ahiram, was at the head of this movement. The island was covered with constructions imitated from Egypt. . . . Hiram is the close ally of the king of Israel; it is he who provides Solomon with the artists who were lacking at Jerusalem; the precious materials for the buildings in Zion; seamen for the fleet of Eziongeber. The region of the upper Jordan, conquered by David, appears to have remained tributary to Solomon. What has been related as to a much larger extension of the kingdom of Solomon is greatly exaggerated. . . . The fables as to the pretended foundation of Palmyra by Solomon come from a letter intentionally added to the text of the ancient historiographer by the compiler of the Chronicles. The construction of Baalbec by Solomon rests upon a still more inadmissible piece of identification. . . . In reality, the dominion of Solomon was confined to Palestine. . . . What was better than peoples kept under by force, the Arab brigands were held in check from pillage. The Amalekites, the Midianites, the Beni-Quedem and other nomads were confronted with an impassable barrier all around Israel. The Philistines preserved their independence. . . . When it is surmised that Solomon reigned over all Syria, the size of his kingdom is exaggerated at least fourfold. Solomon's kingdom was barely a fourth of what is now called Syria. . . . Solomon . . . built 'cities of store,' or warehouses, the commercial or military object of which cannot well be defined. There was, more especially, a place named Tamar, in the direction of Petra, of which Solomon made a city, and which became a calling-place for the caravans. . . . With very good reason, too, Solomon had his attention constantly fixed upon the Red Sea, a broad canal which placed the dawning civilisation of the Mediterranean in communication with India, and thus opened up a new world, that of Ophir. The Bay of Suez belonged to Egypt, but the Gulf of Akaba was, one may say, at the mercy of any one who cared to take it. Elath and Asiongaber, according to all appearances, had been of very little importance in earlier times. Without regularly occupying the country, Solomon secured the route by the Valley of Araba. He built a fleet at Asiongaber, though the Israelites had never much liking for the sea. Hiram provided Solomon with sailors, or, what is more probable, the two fleets acted together. On leaving the Straits of Aden, they went to Ophir, that is to say, to Western India, to Guzarate."—E. Renan, *History of the people of Israel, v.* 2, *bk.* 3, *ch.* 10.—See also COMMERCE: Ancient: B.C. 1000. The government of Solomon was extravagant and despotic; it imposed burdens upon the people which were borne impatiently until his death; and when his son Rehoboam refused to lessen them, the nation was instantly broken again on the lines of the earlier rupture. The two tribes of Judah and Benjamin, only, remained faithful to the house of David and constituted the kingdom of Judah. The other ten tribes made Jeroboam their king and retained the name of Israel for their kingdom. The period of this division is fixed at 978 B.C. Jerusalem continued to be the capital of the kingdom of Judah. In the kingdom of Israel several changes of royal residence occurred during the first half century, until Samaria was founded by King Omri and thenceforth became the capital city. "Six miles from Shechem, in the same well-watered valley, here opening into a wide basin, rises an oblong hill, with steep yet accessible sides, and a long level top. This was the mountain of Samaria, or, as it is called in the original, Shômeron, so named after its owner Shemer, who there lived in state, and who sold it to the King for the great sum of two talents of silver."—Dean Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Jewish church, v.* 2, *lect.* 29-30.—For two centuries, until the overthrow of the kingdom, Samaria continued to be the queen of the land, and the seat of government, often giving its name to the whole state, so that the kings were called "Kings of Samaria." "Under the dynasties of Omri and Jehu [10th-8th centuries, B.C.] the Northern Kingdom took the leading part in Israel; even to the Judæan Amos it was Israel 'par excellence.' Judah was not only inferior in political power, but in the share it took in the active movements of national life and thought. In tracing the history of religion and the work of the prophets, we have been almost exclusively occupied with the North; Amos himself, when charged with a message to the whole family that Jehovah brought up out of Egypt, leaves his home to preach in a Northern sanc-

tuary. During this whole period we have a much fuller knowledge of the life of Ephraim than of Judah; the Judæan history consists of meagre extracts from official records, except where it comes into contact with the North, through the alliance of Jehoshaphat with Ahab; through the reaction of Jehu's revolution in the fall of Athaliah, the last scion of the house of Ahab, and the accompanying abolition of Baal worship at Jerusalem, or, finally, through the presumptuous attempt of Amaziah to measure his strength with the powerful monarch of Samaria. While the house of Ephraim was engaged in the great war with Syria, Judah had seldom to deal with enemies more formidable than the Philistines or the Edomites; and the contest with these foes, renewed with varying success generation after generation, resolved itself into a succession of forays and blood-feuds such as have always been common in the lands of the Semites (Amos i.), and never assumed the character of a struggle for national existence. It was the Northern Kingdom that had the task of upholding the standard of Israel: its whole history presents greater interest and more heroic elements; its struggles, its calamities, and its glories were cast in a larger mould. It is a trite proverb that the nation which has no history is happy, and perhaps the course of Judah's existence ran more smoothly than that of its greater neighbor, in spite of the raids of the slave-dealers of the coast, and the lawless hordes of the desert. But no side of national existence is likely to find full development where there is little political activity; if the life of the North was more troubled, it was also larger and more intense. Ephraim took the lead in literature and religion as well as in politics; it was in Ephraim far more than in Judah that the traditions of past history were cherished, and new problems of religion became practical and called for solution by the word of the prophets. So long as the Northern Kingdom endured Judah was content to learn from it for evil or for good. It would be easy to show in detail that every wave of life and thought in Ephraim was transmitted with diminished intensity to the Southern Kingdom. In many respects the influence of Ephraim upon Judah was similar to that of England upon Scotland before the union of the crowns, but with the important difference that after the accession of Omri the two Hebrew kingdoms were seldom involved in hostilities. . . . The internal condition of the [Judæan] state was stable, though little progressive; the kings were fairly successful in war, though not sufficiently strong to maintain unbroken authority over Edom, the only vassal state of the old Davidic realm over which they still claimed suzerainty, and their civil administration must have been generally satisfactory according to the not very high standard of the East; for they retained the affections of their people, the justice and mercy of the throne of David are favourably spoken of in the old prophecy against Moab quoted in Isaiah xv., xvi., and Isaiah contrasts the disorders of his own time with the ancient reputation of Jerusalem for fidelity and justice (i. 21). . . . The religious conduct of the house of David followed the same general lines. Old abuses remained untouched, but the cultus remained much as David and Solomon had left it. Local high places were numerous, and no attempt was made to interfere with them; but the great temple on Mount Zion, which formed part of the complex of royal buildings erected by Solomon, maintained its prestige, and appears to have been a special object of solicitude to the kings, who treated its service as part of their royal state. It is common to imagine that the religious condition of Judah was very much superior to that of the North, but there is absolutely no evidence to support this opinion."—W. R. Smith, *Prophets of Israel, lect.* 5.—In the year 745 B.C. the throne of Assyria was seized by a soldier of great ability, called Pul, or Pulu, who took the name of Tiglath-pileser III and who promptly entered on an ambitious career of conquest, with imperial aims and plans. "In B.C. 738 we find him receiving tribute from Menahem of Samaria, Rezon of Damascus, and Hiram of Tyre. . . . The throne of Israel was occupied at the time by Pekah, a successful general who had murdered his predecessor, but who was evidently a man of vigour and ability. He and Rezon endeavoured to form a confederacy of the Syrian and Palestinian states against their common Assyrian foe. In order to effect their object they considered it necessary to displace the reigning king of Judah, Ahaz, and substitute for him a creature of their own. . . . They were aided by a party of malcontents in Judah itself (Is. viii. 6), and the position of Ahaz seemed desperate. . . . In this moment of peril Isaiah was instructed to meet and comfort Ahaz. He bade him 'fear not, neither be fainthearted,' for the confederacy against the dynasty of David should be broken and overthrown. . . . But Ahaz . . . had no faith either in the prophet or in the message he was commissioned to deliver. He saw safety in one course only—that of invoking the assistance of the Assyrian king, and bribing him by the offer of homage and tribute to march against his enemies. In vain Isaiah denounced so suicidal and unpatriotic a policy. In vain he foretold that when Damascus and Samaria had been crushed, the next victim of the Assyrian king would be Judah itself. The infatuated Ahaz would not listen. He 'sent messengers to Tiglath-pileser king of Assyria, saying, I am thy servant and thy son: come up and save me out of the hand of the king of Syria, and out of the hand of the king of Israel, which rise up against me.' [The king of Assyria responded to the call (734 B.C.). He defeated Rezon in battle, laid siege to Damascus, swept the tribes east of the Jordan into captivity, overran the territory of Israel, captured Samaria and put to death Pekah the king. In place of Pekah he set up a vassal-king Hoshea. Six years later, Tiglath-pileser having died, and the Assyrian throne having been seized by another strong soldier, Shalmaneser IV., Hoshea attempted a revolt, looking to Egypt for help. But before Sabako king of Egypt could move to his assistance], Hoshea was defeated by the Assyrian king or his satraps, and thrown into chains. The ruling classes of Samaria, however, still held out. An Assyrian army, accordingly, once more devastated the land of Israel, and laid siege to the capital. For three years Samaria remained untaken. Another revolution had meanwhile broken out in Assyria; Shalmaneser had died or been put to death, and a fresh military adventurer had seized the crown, taking the name of Sargon, after a famous monarch of ancient Babylonia. Sargon had hardly established himself upon the throne when Samaria fell (B.C. 722). . . . He contented himself with transporting only 27,280 of its inhabitants into captivity, only the upper classes, in fact, who were implicated in the revolt of Hoshea. An Assyrian satrap, or governor, was appointed over Samaria, while the bulk of the population was allowed to remain peaceably in their old homes."—A. H. Sayce, *Life and times of Isaiah, ch.* 3.—"Much light is thrown upon the conditions of the national religion then and upon its subsequent development by the single fact that

the exiled Israelites were absorbed by the surrounding heathenism without leaving a trace behind them, while the population of Judah, who had the benefit of a hundred years of respite, held their faith fast throughout the period of the Babylonian exile, and by means of it were able to maintain their own individuality afterwards in all the circumstances that arose. The fact that the fall of Samaria did not hinder but helped the religion of Jehovah is entirely due to the prophets."—J. Wellhausen, *Sketch of the history of Israel and Judah, ch.* 6.—"The first generation of the exiles lived to see the fall of their conquerors. . . . After this it is difficult to discover any distinct trace of the northern tribes. Some returned with their countrymen of the southern kingdom. . . . The immense Jewish population which made Babylonia a second Palestine was in part derived from them; and the Jewish customs that have been discovered in the Nestorian Christians, with the traditions of the sect itself, may indicate at any rate a mixture of Jewish descent. That they [the 'lost Ten Tribes'] are concealed in some unknown region of the earth, is a fable with no foundation either in history or prophecy."—Dean Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Jewish church, v.* 2, *lect.* 34.—See also JERUSALEM: B.C. 1400-700.

Military organization in the time of Solomon. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 4.

B.C. 724-604.—Kingdom of Judah to the end of Egyptian domination.—Three years before Sargon's destruction of Samaria, "Hezekiah had succeeded his father Ahaz upon the throne of Jerusalem. . . . Judah was tributary to Assyria, and owed to Assyria its deliverance from a great danger. But the deliverer and his designs were extremely dangerous, and made Judah apprehensive of being swallowed up presently, when its turn came. The neighbouring countries,—Phœnicia on the north, Moab, Ammon, and the Arabian nations on the east, Philistia on the west, Egypt and Ethiopia on the south,—shared Judah's apprehensions. There were risings, and they were sternly quelled; Judah, however, remained tranquil. But the scheme of an anti-Assyrian alliance was gradually becoming popular. Egypt was the great pillar of hope. By its size, wealth, resources, pretensions, and fame, Egypt seemed a possible rival to Assyria. Time went on. Sargon was murdered in 705; Sennacherib succeeded him. Then on all sides there was an explosion of revolts against the Assyrian rule. The first years of Sennacherib's reign were spent by him in quelling a formidable rising of Merodach Baladan, king of Babylon. The court and ministers of Hezekiah seized this opportunity for detaching their master from Assyria, for joining in the movement of the insurgent states of Palestine and its borders, and for allying themselves with Egypt. . . . In the year 701, Sennacherib, victorious in Babylonia, marched upon Palestine."—M. Arnold, *Isaiah of Jerusalem, introduction.*—Sennacherib advanced along the Phœnician coast. "Having captured Ascalon, he next laid siege to Ekron, which, after the Egyptian army sent to its relief had been defeated at Eltekeh, fell into the enemy's hand, and was severely dealt with. Simultaneously various fortresses of Judah were occupied, and the level country was devastated (Isa. i.). The consequence was that Hezekiah, in a state of panic, offered to the Assyrians his submission, which was accepted on payment of a heavy penalty, he being permitted, however, to retain possession of Jerusalem. He seemed to have got cheaply off from the unequal contest. The way being thus cleared, Sennacherib pressed on southwards, for the Egyptians were collecting their forces against him. The nearer he came to the enemy the more undesirable did he find it that he should leave in his rear so important a fortress as Jerusalem in the hands of a doubtful vassal. Notwithstanding the recently ratified treaty, therefore, he demanded the surrender of the city, believing that a policy of intimidation would be enough to secure it from Hezekiah. But there was another personality in Jerusalem of whom his plans had taken no account. Isaiah had indeed regarded the revolt from Assyria as a rebellion against Jehovah Himself, and therefore as a perfectly hopeless undertaking, which could only result in the utmost humiliation and sternest chastisement for Judah. But much more distinctly than Amos and Hosea before him did he hold firm as an article of faith the conviction that the kingdom would not be utterly annihilated; all his speeches of solemn warning closed with the announcement that a remnant should return and form the kernel of a new commonwealth to be fashioned after Jehovah's own heart. . . . Over against the vain confidence of the multitude Isaiah had hitherto brought into prominence the darker obverse of his religious belief, but now he confronted their present depression with its bright reverse; faintheartedness was still more alien to his nature than temerity. In the name of Jehovah he bade King Hezekiah be of good courage, and urged that he should by no means surrender. The Assyrians would not be able to take the city, not even to shoot an arrow into it, nor to bring up their siege train against it. 'I know thy sitting, thy going, and thy standing,' is Jehovah's language to the Assyrian, 'and also thy rage against Me. And I will put my ring in thy nose, and my bridle in thy lips, and I will turn thee back by the way by which thou camest.' And thus it proved in the issue. By a still unexplained catastrophe, the main army of Sennacherib was annihilated on the frontier between Egypt and Palestine, and Jerusalem thereby freed from all danger. The Assyrian king had to save himself by a hurried retreat to Nineveh; Isaiah was triumphant. A more magnificent close of a period of influential public life can hardly be imagined."—J. Wellhausen, *Sketch of the history of Israel and Judah, ch.* 7.—"We possess in duplicate, on the Taylor Cylinder, found at Nineveh in 1830, and now in the British Museum, and on the Bull-inscription of Kouyunjik, Sennacherib's own account of the stages of his campaign. Sidon and the cities of Phœnicia were the first to be attacked; and, after reducing these, and receiving homage from several of the kings of the countries bordering on Palestine, who apparently were not this time implicated in the plan of revolt, Sennacherib started southwards, aiming to recover similarly Ashkelon, Ekron, and Jerusalem. In Ashkelon he deprived Zedek of his crown, which he bestowed upon Sarludari, the son of a former king, doubtless on the ground that he was friendly to Assyrian interests: at the same time four subject-cities belonging to Zedek, Beth-dagon, Joppa, Bene-Barak, and Azuru were captured and plundered. Sennacherib next proceeds to deal with Ekron. The people of Ekron, in order to carry through their plan for the recovery of independence without hindrance, had deposed their king Padi, who remained loyal to Assyria, and sent him bound in chains to Hezekiah. Upon news of the approach of the Assyrians, they had summoned the Egyptians to their aid; they arrive now 'with forces innumerable'; the encounter takes place at Altaku (probably not far from Ekron); victory declares for the Assyrian, and the Egyptians retire without effecting the desired relief. After this

Sennacherib soon reduces Ekron; he obtains, moreover, the surrender of Padi from Jerusalem, and restores him to his throne. Now follows the account of the aggressive measures adopted by him against Judah and Jerusalem. 'And Hezekiah of Judah, who had not submitted to my yoke, forty-six of his strong cities, fortresses and smaller towns round about their border without number, with laying low of the walls, and with open (?) attack, with battle . . . of feet, . . . hewing about and trampling down (?), I besieged, I took 200,150 people, small and great, male and female, horses, mules, asses, camels, oxen, and sheep without number, from the midst of them I brought out, and I counted them as spoil. Himself, as a bird in a cage, in the midst of Jerusalem, his royal city, I shut up. Siege-works against him I erected, and the exit of the great gate of his city I blocked up. His cities which I had plundered, from his domain I cut off; and to Mitinti, king of Ashdod, to Padi, king of Ekron, and to Zilbel, king of Gaza, I gave them; I diminished his territory. To the former payment of their yearly tribute, the tribute of subjection to my sovereignty I added; I laid it upon them. Himself, Hezekiah, the terror of the splendour of my sovereignty overwhelmed: the Arabians and his dependents, whom he had introduced, for the defence of Jerusalem, his royal city, and to whom he had granted pay, together with 30 talents of gold, 800 talents of silver, bullion (?) . . . precious (?) stones of large size, couches of ivory, lofty thrones of ivory, elephant-skins, ivory, . . . wood, . . . woods of every kind, an abundant treasure, and in addition, his daughters, the women of his palace, his male and female harem(?)-attendants unto Nineveh, my royal city, he caused to be brought after me. For the payment of tribute, and the rendering of homage, he sent his envoy.' Here the account on the Inscription closes, the lines which follow relating to the campaign of the subsequent year."—S. R. Driver, *Isaiah: His life and times, ch.* 7.—"Between the retreat of Sennacherib's army and the capture of the capital by Nebuchadrezzar there was an interval of little more than a century, yet, meanwhile, upon the basis of the prophetical teaching, the foundations of Judaism were laid. . . . But though Sennacherib had retreated from Palestine, Judah still remained the vassal of Assyria. The empire of Assyria was scarcely affected by the event which was to change the face of the world, and for more than half-a-century its power was undiminished and supreme. Yet, as regards the internal condition of Judah, the great deliverance was the occasion of a reform which at first may well have made Isaiah's heart beat high. . . . Influential as he was at the court and with the king, and with reputation enormously enhanced by the fulfilment of his promise of deliverance, he probably urged and prompted Hezekiah to the execution of a religious reform. The meagre verse in the Book of Kings which describes this reform is both inaccurate and misplaced. There is no hint in the authentic writings of Isaiah or Micah that any religious innovations had been attempted before the Assyrian war. It was the startling issue of Sennacherib's invasion which afforded the opportunity and suggested the idea. Moreover, wider changes are attributed to Hezekiah than he can actually have effected. . . . The residuum of fact contained in the 18th chapter of the Second Book of Kings must be probably limited to the destruction of the Nehushtan, or brazen serpent, that mysterious image in which the contemporaries of Hezekiah, whatever may have been its original signification, doubtless recognized a symbol of Yahveh. Yet indirect evidence would incline us to believe that Hezekiah's reform involved more than the annihilation of a single idol; it is more probably to be regarded as an attempt at a general abolition of images, as well as a suppression of the new Assyrian star-worship and of the 'Moloch' sacrifices which had been introduced into Judah in the reign of Ahaz. Whether this material iconoclasm betokened or generated any wide moral reformation is more than doubtful. . . . Hezekiah's reign extended for about fourteen years after the deliverance of Jerusalem in 701. To the early part of this, its second division, the religious reformation must be assigned. A successful campaign against the Philistines, alluded to in the Book of Kings, probably fell within the same period. Beyond this, we know nothing, though we would gladly know much, of these fourteen concluding years of an eventful reign. In 686 Hezekiah died, and was succeeded by his son Manasseh, who occupied the throne for forty-five years (686-641). The Book of Kings does not record a single external incident throughout his long reign. It must have been a time of profound peace and of comparative prosperity. Manasseh remained the vassal of Assyria, and the Assyrian inscriptions speak of him as paying tribute to the two kings, Esarhaddon (681-669), Sennacherib's successor, and Asurbanipal (669-626), till whose death the supremacy of Assyria in Palestine was wholly undisputed. Uneventful as Manasseh's reign was in foreign politics, it was all the more important in its internal and religious history. In it, and in the short reign of Amon, who maintained the policy of his father, there set in a period of strong religious reaction, extending over nearly half-a-century (686-638). Manasseh is singled out by the historian for special and repeated reprobation. In the eyes of the exilic redactor, his iniquities were the immediate cause of the destruction of the national life. Not even Josiah's reformation could turn Yahveh 'from the fierceness of his great wrath, wherewith his anger was kindled against Judah, because of all the provocations that Manasseh had provoked him withal.' Jeremiah had said the same. Exile and dispersion are to come 'because of Manasseh, the son of Hezekiah, king of Judah, for that which he did in Jerusalem.' . . . What were the sins of Manasseh? It has already been indicated that the Assyrians made their influence felt, not only in politics, but also in religion. It was the old Babylonian worship of the luminaries of heaven which was introduced into Judah in the eighth century, and which, after receiving a short check during the reign of Hezekiah, became very widely prevalent under his son. . . . There are many tokens in the literature of the seventh century that the idolatrous reaction of Manasseh penetrated deep, making many converts. . . . Manasseh would apparently brook no opposition to the idolatrous proclivities of his court; he met the indignation of Isaiah's disciples and of the prophetical party by open and relentless persecution. . . . The older historian of the Book of Kings speaks of 'Manasseh shedding innocent blood very much, till he had filled Jerusalem from one end to another.' This innocent blood must have mainly flowed from those who opposed his idolatrous tendencies. . . . From the accession of Manasseh to the death of Amon (686-638), a period of forty-eight years, this internal conflict continued; and in it, as always, the blood of martyrs was the seed of the Church. In 638, Amon was succeeded by his son Josiah, then only eight years old. It is possible that his accession brought about some ameliora-

tion in the condition of the prophetical party, and that active persecution ceased. But the syncretistic and idolatrous worship was still maintained for another eighteen years, though those years are passed over without any notice in the Book of Kings. They were, however, years of great importance in the history of Asia, for they witnessed the break-up of the Assyrian empire, and the inroads of the Scythians. The collapse of Assyria followed hard upon the death of Asurbanipal in 626: Babylon revolted, the northern and north-western provinces of the empire fell into the hands of the Medes, and the authority of Assyria over the vassal kingdoms of the west was gradually weakened."—C. G. Montefiore, *Lectures on the origin and growth of religion, as illustrated by the religion of the ancient Hebrews* (*Hibbert Lectures*, 1892), *lect.* 4.—"The Assyrian empire was much weakened and the king could not think of maintaining his power in the more distant provinces. . . . In the year 610 B.C., Nineveh was again besieged, this time by the Medes and Babylonians in league together. In the same year Psammetichus, king of Egypt, died and was succeeded by his son Necho. If Psammetichus had already tried to enlarge his kingdom at the expense of Assyria, Necho was not the man to miss the golden opportunity that now presented itself: he proposed to seize Syria and Palestine, the Assyrian provinces that bordered on his own kingdom, and thus to obtain his share of the spoil, even if he did not help to bring down the giant. By the second year after his accession to the throne he was on the march to Syria with a large army. Probably it was transported by sea and landed at Acco, on the Mediterranean, whence it was to proceed overland. But in carrying out this plan he encountered an unexpected obstacle: Josiah went to meet him with an army and attempted to prevent his march to Syria. . . . Josiah must have firmly believed that Jahveh would fight for his people and defeat the Egyptian ruler. From what Jeremiah tells us of the attitude of the prophets in the reigns of Jehoiakim and Zedekiah, we must infer that many of them strengthened the king in his intention not to endure an encroachment such as that of the Pharaoh. The Chronicler relates that Necho himself endeavored to dissuade Josiah from the unequal contest. But [uselessly]. . . . The decisive battle was fought in the valley of Megiddo: Judah was defeated; Josiah perished. . . . After the victory in the valley of Megiddo and the death of Josiah, Necho was master of the kingdom of Judah. Before he arrived there, 'the people of the land' made Jehoahaz, a younger son of Josiah, king, presumably because he was more attached than his elder brother to his father's policy. At all events, Necho hastened to depose him and send him to Egypt. He was superseded by Eliakim, henceforward called Jehoiakim. At first Jehoiakim was a vassal of Egypt, and it does not appear that he made any attempt to escape from this servitude. But it was not long before events occurred elsewhere in Asia that entirely changed his position. Nineveh had fallen; the Medes and the Chaldeans or Babylonians now ruled over the former territory of the Assyrians; Syria and Palestine fell to the share of the Babylonians. Of course, the Egyptians were not inclined to let them have undisputed possession. A battle was fought at Carchemish (Circesium), on the Euphrates between the armies of Necho and Nebuchadnezzar, who then commanded in the name of his father, Nabopolassar, but very shortly afterwards succeeded him. The Egyptians sustained a crushing defeat (604 B.C.). This decided the fate of Western Asia, including Judæa." —A. Kuenen, *Religion of Israel, v.* 2, *ch.* 6.

B.C. 604-536.—Fall of kingdom of Judah.—Babylonian captivity.—"In the fourth year of Jehoiakim (B.C. 604) the mightiest monarch who had wielded the Assyrian power, Nebuchadnezzar, was associated in the empire with his father, and assumed the command of the armies of Assyria. Babylon now takes the place of Nineveh as the capital of the Assyrian empire. . . . Vassalage to the dominion of Egypt or of Babylon is now the ignominious doom of the king of Judah. . . . Nebuchadnezzar, having retaken Carchemish (B.C. 601), passed the Euphrates, and rapidly overran the whole of Syria and Palestine. Jerusalem made little resistance. The king was put in chains to be carried as a prisoner to Babylon. On his submission, he was reinstated on the throne; but the Temple was plundered of many of its treasures, and a number of well-born youths, among whom were Daniel, and three others, best known by their Persian names, Shadrach, Meshech, and Abednego. From this date commence the seventy years of the Captivity. Jehoiakim had learned neither wisdom nor moderation from his misfortunes. Three years after, he attempted to throw off the yoke of Chaldea. . . . At length this weak and cruel king was slain (B.C. 598). . . . Jehoiachin (Jeconias or Coniah), his son, had scarcely mounted the throne, when Nebuchadnezzar himself appeared at the gates of Jerusalem. The city surrendered at discretion. The king and all the royal family, the remaining treasures of the Temple, the strength of the army and the nobility, and all the more useful artisans, were carried away to Babylon. Over this wreck of a kingdom, Zedekiah (Mattaniah), the younger son of Josiah, was permitted to enjoy an inglorious and precarious sovereignty of eleven years, during which he abused his powers, even worse than his imbecile predecessors. In his ninth year, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the wise Jeremiah, he endeavoured to assert his independence; and Jerusalem, though besieged by Nebuchadnezzar in person, now made some resistance. . . . At length, in the city, famine reduced the fatal obstinacy of despair. Jerusalem opened its gates to the irresistible conqueror. The king, in an attempt to break through the besieging forces, or meditating flight towards his ally, the king of Ammon, was seized on the plain of Jericho. His children were slain before his face, his eyes put out, and thus the last king of the royal house of David, blind and childless, was led away into a foreign prison. The capture of Jerusalem took place on the ninth day of the fourth month: on the seventh day of the fifth month (two days on which Hebrew devotion still commemorates the desolation of the city by solemn fast and humiliation) the relentless Nebuzaradan executed the orders of his master by levelling the city, the palaces, and the Temple, in one common ruin. The few remaining treasures, particularly the two brazen pillars which stood before the Temple, were sent to Babylon; the chief priests were put to death, the rest carried into captivity. . . . The miserable remnant of the people were placed under the command of Gedaliah, as a pasha of the great Assyrian monarch; the seat of government was fixed at Mizpeh. . . . Nebuzaradan (the general of Nebuchadnezzar) only left, according to the strong language of the Second Book of Kings, xxv., 12, 'of the poor of the land, to be vine-dressers and husbandmen.' . . . In general it seems that the Jewish exiles [in Babylonia] were allowed to dwell together in considerable bodies, not sold as household or per-

sonal or prædial slaves, at least not those of the better order of whom the Captivity chiefly consisted. They were colonists rather than captives, and became by degrees possessed of considerable property. . . . They had free enjoyment of their religion, such at least as adhered faithfully to their belief in Jehovah. We hear of no special and general religious persecution. The first deportation of chosen beautiful youths, after the earlier defeat of Jehoiakim, for hostages, or as a kind of court-pages, was not numerous. The second transportation swept away the king, his wife, all the officers and attendants of his court, 7,000 of the best of the army, 1,000 picked artisans, armourers, and others, amounting to 10,023 men. The last was more general: it comprehended the mass of the people, according to some calculations towards 300,000 or 400,000 souls."—H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews, v. 1, bk. 8-9; with foot-note.*—The inhabitants left behind in Judæa "formed but a pitiful remnant of the former kingdom of Judah. Part of them had grown wild and led the lives of freebooters. Others busied themselves with agriculture, but they had much to suffer from the bands of Chaldean soldiers that roved about the land, and from the neighbouring tribes, who took advantage of Israel's abasement to extend their territories. . . . We do not know with certainty the number of the exiles carried off by Nebuchadnezzar: the returns given in the Old Testament are evidently incomplete. But that their number was very considerable, can be gathered from the number of those who afterwards went back. For their intrinsic worth, even more than for their numerical strength, these exiles had a right to be regarded as the real representatives of the kingdom of Judah and thus of all Israel. . . . It was . . . the kernel of the nation that was brought to Babylonia. Our information as to the social condition of the exiles is very defective. Even to the question, where they had to settle, we can only return an imperfect answer. We meet with a colony of exiles, companions of Jeconiah, at Tel-abib, in the neighbourhood of the river Chebar, usually supposed to be the Chaboras, which runs into the Euphrates not far from Circesium, but considered by others to be a smaller river, nearer to Babylon. It lay in the nature of the case, that the second and third company of captives received another destination. Even had it been possible, prudence would have opposed their settling in the immediate vicinity of their predecessors. We are not surprised therefore that Ezekiel, who lived at Tel-abib, does not mention their arrival there. Where they did go we are not told. The historian says 'to Babylon,' to which place, according to him, the first exiles (597 B.C.) were also brought; probably he does not, in either passage, mean only the capital of the Chaldean kingdom, but rather the province of that name to which the city of course belonged. . . . Nebuchadnezzar's purpose, the prevention of fresh disturbances, having been attained by their removal from Judæa, he could now leave them to develop their resources. It was even for the interest of the districts in which they settled, that their development should not be obstructed. Many unnecessary and troublesome conflicts were avoided and the best provision was made for the maintenance of order, by leaving them free, within certain limits, to regulate their own affairs. So the elders of the families and tribes remained in possession of the authority which they had formerly exercised."—A. Kuenen, *Religion of Israel, v. 2, ch. 7.*—"About the middle of the sixth century before Christ, Cyrus, King of Elam, began the career of conquest which left him master of Western Asia. Greek writers of history have done full justice to the character of this extraordinary man, but what they tell of his origin, his early adventures and rise to power, is for the most part mere fable. . . . A new light has been thrown on one of the dimmest figures of the old world by the discovery of contemporary documents, in which the Conqueror of Babylon himself records his victories and the policy of his reign. . . . It appears from the Inscriptions that the founder of the Persian Empire was by no means the parvenu prince described by Herodotus. Cyrus was a king's son, and in early youth, by legitimate succession, himself became a king. From Susa (Shushan) on the Choaspes, his capital city, he ruled over the fertile and populous region lying eastward of the Lower Tigris which bore the name of Elam or Susiana. This realm was one of the most ancient in Western Asia. . . . Nabonidus became king of Babylon in the year 555 B.C. He had raised himself to the throne by conspiracy and murder, and his position at first was insecure. The eastern provinces, Syria and Phœnicia, rose in revolt against the usurper, while the Medes on the north began a harassing warfare and threatened an invasion of Babylonia. This latter danger was averted for the time by an unlooked-for deliverance. In the sixth year of Nabonidus (550 B.C.) Cyrus led his army against Astyages, the Median king. The discontented soldiery of Astyages mutinied on the eve of battle, seized the person of their sovereign, and delivered him up to the enemy. . . . This bloodless victory added Media to the dominions of Cyrus, gave him Ecbatana as a second capital and place of arms, and more than doubled his military strength. . . . The real aim of Cyrus was the overthrow of Babylon, and the construction of a new and still wider empire on the ruins of the old. . . . Within the two years following his conquest of the Medes he had extended his sway over the kindred race of the Persians, from which he himself had sprung. The wild tribes of Iran had long looked greedily on the rich Chaldæan plains and cities, and only waited a leader before swooping down like ravenous birds on their prey. This leader appeared in Cyrus. . . . Forty years had passed since the destruction of Jerusalem and the deportation of the great mass of the Jewish people to Babylonia (588 B.C.). During this period, under Nebuchadnezzar and his immediate successors on the throne, the exiles had lived in peace, following without interference their own customs, religious and social. . . . Nothing hindered them from leading a quiet and comfortable life among the Chaldæans, if only they were content to break with their past and give up hope for the future. But this was impossible for all true Israelites. They could not forget what they had been, or reconcile themselves to be what they now were. They had the means of livelihood in abundance, but to them their drink was as vinegar, their meat as gall. . . . The homesickness of the people finds manifold expression in the literature of the Exile. . . . Now, as at every crisis in the national history, the Prophets stood forth, the true leaders of Israel. They kept the people constantly in mind of their high destinies, and comforted and encouraged them in their darkest hours. . . . Among the Jewish exiles, enlightened by the prophetic word, the name Koresh passed from lip to lip, and the movements of this new Conqueror were followed with straining eyes. . . . In the month Nisan (March) of the year 547 B.C., the ninth year of Nabonidus, Cyrus crossed the Tigris at the fords of Arbela, eastward of the modern Mosul, and began his first invasion

THE JEWS BEING CARRIED INTO THE BABYLONIAN CAPTIVITY

(After painting by Eduard Bendemann in the Royal National Gallery, Berlin)

of Babylonia. . . . Meanwhile the fainéant king Nabonidus lingered in his palace near Babylon, leaving the defence of the empire to his eldest son, the Prince Royal Belshazzar. Whether worsted in battle or, as is more likely, baffled by the difficulties in the way of an invader—the country seamed with water-courses, the numerous fortified towns, the Median Wall—Cyrus was forced to retreat. . . . In the seventeenth year of Nabonidus (539 B.C.) the King of Elam once more took the field against Babylon. This time the attack was made from the southeast. An opportune revolt of the southern provinces, probably fomented by Cyrus himself, opened the way for him into the heart of the land. . . . On all sides the disaffected subjects of Nabonidus went over to the invader, who passed on at the head of his 'vast army, innumerable, like the waters of a river,' without meeting any serious resistance. The last hope of Nabonidus rested on his Army of the North. In the month Tammuz (June) a pitched battle was fought near Routou, a town in Accad, and ended in the defeat of the Babylonians. A revolution followed at once. . . . Some days later the victorious army, under a lieutenant of the King, appeared before the walls of Babylon. The collapse of all authority made useless defences which were the wonder of the world; friendly hands threw open the brazen gates, and without a struggle the great city fell. . . . Four months later Cyrus entered Babylon in triumph. . . . The hitherto accepted opinion that Cyrus was an Aryan monotheist, a worshipper of Ormazd, and therefore so far in religious sympathy with the Jews, is seriously shaken if not overthrown by the Inscriptions which record his Babylonian conquest. Even if allowance be made for the fact that these are state documents, and reveal only what the monarch professed, not necessarily what he believed, there still remains the strong probability that Cyrus was not Zoroastrian in creed, but polytheist like his people of Elam. The Cyrus of the Inscriptions is either a fanatical idolater or simply an opportunist in matters of religion. The latter alternative is the more probable."—P. H. Hunter, *After the exile, pt.* 1, *ch.* 1-2.—See also BABYLONIA: Nebuchadrezzar; Invasion by Cyrus.

B.C. 537.—Return from Babylon.—"The fall of the metropolis had decided the fortune of the Babylonian kingdom, and the provinces. The most important of these was Syria, with the great trading places of the Phenicians on the Mediterranean. . . . The hopes of the Jews were at last fulfilled. The fall of Babylon had avenged the fall of Jerusalem, and the subjugation of Syria to the armies of Babylon opened the way for their return. Cyrus did not belie the confidence which the Jews had so eagerly offered him; without hesitation he gave the exiles permission to return and erect again their shrine at Jerusalem. The return of the captives and the foundation of a new state of the Jews was very much to his interest; it might contribute to support his empire in Syria. He did not merely count on the gratitude of the returning exiles, but as any revival of the Babylonian kingdom, or rebellion of the Syrians against the Persian empire, imperilled the existence of this community, which had not only to be established anew, but would never be very strong, it must necessarily oppose any such attempts. Forty-nine years—seven Sabbatical years, instead of the ten announced by Jeremiah—had passed since the destruction of Jerusalem, and more than sixty since Jeremiah had first announced the seventy years of servitude to Babylon. Cyrus commissioned Zerubbabel, the son of Salathiel, a grandson of Jechoniah, the king who had been carried away captive, and therefore a scion of the ancient royal race, and a descendant of David, to be the leader of the returning exiles, to establish them in their abode, and be the head of the community; he bade his treasurer Mithridates give out to him the sacred vessels, which Nebuchadnezzar had carried away as trophies to Babylon, and placed in the temple of Bel; there are said to have been more than 5,000 utensils of gold and silver, baskets, goblets, cups, knives, etc. But all the Jews in Babylon did not avail themselves of the permission. Like the Israelites deported by Sargon into Media and Assyria some 180 years previously, many of the Jews brought to Mesopotamia and Babylonia at the time of Jechoniah and Zedekiah, had found there a new home, which they preferred to the land of their fathers. But the priests (to the number of more than 3,000), many of the families of the heads of the tribes, all who cared for the sanctuary and the old country, all in whom Jehovah 'awoke the spirit,' as the Book of Ezra says, began the march over the Euphrates. With Zerubbabel was Joshua, the high priest, the most distinguished among all the Jews, a grandson of the high priest, Zeraiah, whom Nebuchadnezzar had executed after the capture of Jerusalem. . . . It was a considerable multitude which left the land 'beyond the stream,' the waters of Babylon, to sit once more under the fig-tree in their ancient home, and build up the city of David and the temple of Jehovah from their ruins; 42,360 freemen, with 7,337 Hebrew men-servants and maid-servants; their goods were carried by 435 camels, 736 horses, 250 mules, and 6,720 asses (537 B.C.). The exodus of the Jews from Babylon is accompanied by a prophet with cries of joy, and announcements filled with the wildest hopes. . . . The Edomites had, in the mean-time, extended their borders and obtained possession of the South of Judah, but the land immediately round Jerusalem was free and no doubt almost depopulated. As the returning exiles contented themselves with the settlement at Jerusalem, the towns to the North, Anathoth, Gebah, Michmash, Kirjath-Jearim, and some others—only Bethlehem is mentioned to the South—they found nothing to impede them. Their first care was the restoration of the worship, according to the law and the custom of their fathers. . . . Then voluntary gifts were collected from all for the rebuilding of the temple; contributions even came in from those who had remained in Babylonia, so that 70,000 pieces of gold and 5,000 minæ of silver are said to have been amassed. Tyrian masons were hired, and agreements made with Tyrian carpenters, to fell cedars in Lebanon, and bring them to Joppa, for which Cyrus had given his permission. The foundation of the temple was laid in the second year of the return (536 B.C.). . . . The fortunate beginning of the restoration of the city and temple soon met with difficulties. The people of Samaria, who were a mixture of the remnant of the Israelites and the strangers whom Sargon had brought there after the capture of Samaria, . . . and Esarhaddon at a later date, . . . came to meet the exiles in a friendly spirit, and offered them assistance, from which we must conclude that in spite of the foreign admixture the Israelitish blood and the worship of Jehovah were preponderant in Samaria. The new temple would thus have been the common sanctuary of the united people of Israel. But the 'sons of captivity' were too proud of the sorrows which they had undergone, and the fidelity which they had preserved to Jehovah, and their pure descent, to accept this offer. Hence the old quarrel between Israel and Judah broke out

anew, and the exiles soon felt the result. After their repulse the Samaritans set themselves to hinder the building by force; 'they terrified the exiles that they built no more, and hired counsellors to make the attempt vain during the whole of the remainder of the reign of Cyrus.'"—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity, v.* 6, *bk.* 8, *ch.* 8.—The duration of the Captivity, strictly speaking, "was only forty-seven years, if we reckon by the Canon of Ptolemy, from the 19th year of Nabuchodrozzor to the first of Cyrus; or, better, forty-nine years, if we add on, as we probably ought to do, the two years' reign of the Median king whom Cyrus set on the throne of Babylon."—H. Ewald, *History of Israel, bk.* 5, *introduction.*—"The decree of Cyrus, at the close of the captivity, extended only to the rebuilding of the Temple. 'Thus said Cyrus, king of Persia, The Lord God of heaven . . . hath charged me to build him an house at Jerusalem.' And under this decree Jeshua and Zerubbabel 'builded the altar of the God of Israel. . . . But the foundation of the Temple of the Lord was not yet laid.' Afterwards they 'laid the foundation of the Temple of the Lord,' including, apparently, the outer wall, for their enemies made a representation to the king of Persia that the Jews were rebuilding the walls of their city: 'The Jews which came up from thee to us are . . . building the rebellious and the bad city, and have set up the walls thereof, and joined the foundations.' And as the wall of the Temple, which was about twelve feet thick, gave colour to the charge, a decree was issued by Artaxerxes to prohibit the further prosecution of the work. 'Then ceased the work of the house of God, which is at Jerusalem.' On the accession of Darius to the throne of Persia, Jeshua and Zerubbabel recommenced the restoration of the Temple, including the wall of the Outer Temple, for they 'began to build the house of God,' when their enemies again stepped forward, saying, 'Who hath commanded you to build this house, and to make up this wall?' And on a renewed complaint to the king of Persia, search was made for the decree of Cyrus, and when it was found, Darius permitted the Jews to proceed with the Temple; 'Let the governor of the Jews and the elders of the Jews build this house of God in his place,' and thereupon the structure and the outer walls thereof (the square of 600 feet) were completed: 'They builded and finished it . . . on the third day of the month Adar, which was in the sixth year of the reign of Darius the king.' Thus far the rebuilding extended to the Temple only, and not to the walls of the city. Ezra afterwards obtained a decree to restore the nationality of the Jews, viz., to 'set magistrates and judges, which might judge all the people'; and afterwards Nehemiah, the cupbearer to the king, was enabled in a favourable moment to win from him express permission to rebuild the Baris, or Vestry, afterwards Antonia, and also the city: 'Send me unto Judah, unto the city of my fathers' sepulchres, that I may build it'; and a direction was given to the governors beyond the Euphrates to forward Nehemiah and his company to Jerusalem; and the king's forester was required to supply the necessary timber."—T. Lewin, *Jerusalem, ch.* 2.—"The Jews returned home sobered and improved by their sufferings in exile, and entirely cured of their early hankering after idolatry. Having no political independence, and living under a governor, they devoted themselves all the more to religion, the only source and support of their nationality, and became zealots for the law, and for a devout carrying out of all its precepts, as far as practicable. All, indeed, could not be again restored. The most holy of the new temple was empty, for it was without the lost and irreplaceable ark of the covenant; the oracular ornaments of the high-priest had disappeared. As Jerusalem was now, far more than formerly, the head and heart of the nation, the high-priesthood . . . was the authority to which the nation willingly submitted; it served as the representative and pillar of unity, and the sons of David were forgotten. Another of the abiding consequences of their exile was the altered mode of life which the nation led. At first they had been exclusively devoted to agriculture; but after mixing with strangers they learnt to engage in trade, and this inclination went on always increasing; it contributed essentially to their being spread far beyond the borders of Palestine, and to their multiplying their settlements in foreign lands."—J. J. I. Döllinger, *Gentile and Jew in the courts of the Temple of Christ, v.* 2, *bk.* 10, *sect.* 1.—See also Persia: B.C. 549-521.

Also in: H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews, bk.* 9.

B.C. 536-A.D. 50.—Babylonian Jews.—"There is something very remarkable in the history of this race, for the most part descendants of those families which had refused to listen to the summons of Zorobabel, Ezra and Nehemiah, and to return to the possession of their native country. . . . The singular part of their history is this, that, though willing aliens from their native Palestine, they remained Jews in character and religion; they continued to be a separate people, and refused to mingle themselves with the population of the country in which they were domiciliated. While those who returned to the Holy Land were in danger of forming a mixed race, by intermarriages with the neighbouring tribes, which it required all the sternest exercise of authority in their rulers to prevent, the Babylonian Jews were still as distinct a people as the whole race of Israel has been since the final dispersion. . . . Nor did they, like the Jews of Alexandria, become in any degree independent of the great place of national worship; they were as rigid Jews as if they had grown up within sight of the Temple. . . . The Temple became what the Caaba of Mecca is to the Mohammedans, the object of the profoundest reverence, and sometimes of a pious pilgrimage; but the land of their fathers had lost its hold on their affections; they had no desire to exchange the level plains of Babylonia for the rich pastures, the golden cornfields, or the rocky vineyards of Galilee and Judæa. This Babylonian settlement was so numerous and flourishing, that Philo more than once intimates the possibility of their marching in such force to the assistance of their brethren in Palestine, in case the Roman oppression was carried to excess, as to make the fate of the war very doubtful. Their chief city, Nearda,, was strongly situated in a bend of the river Euphrates, which almost surrounded the town." [About the middle of the first century (of the Christian era) a band of freebooters, formed by two brothers of this Jewish community, gave great provocation to the Babylonians, and to the Parthian king whose subjects they then were. They were finally, but with much difficulty, destroyed, and the Babylonians then] began to commit dreadful reprisals on the whole Jewish population. The Jews, unable to resist, fled in great numbers to Seleucia; six years after many more took refuge from a pestilence in the same city. Seleucia happened to be divided into two factions: one of the Greeks, the other of the Syrians. The Jews threw themselves into the scale of the Syrians, who thus obtained a superiority, till the Greeks came to terms with the Syrians; and both parties agreed to fall upon the un-

happy Jews. As many as 50,000 men were slain. The few who escaped fled to Ctesiphon. Even there the enmity of the Seleucians pursued them; and at length the survivors took refuge in their old quarters, Nearda and Nisibis."—H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews, v. 2, bk. 12.*

B.C. 433-332.—Century of Silence.—"The interval between the Testaments has been called 'The Centuries of Silence.' The phrase is most untrue; for, as a whole, this time was vocal with the cry of a battle in which empire contended with empire, and philosophy with philosophy: it was an age of earnest and angry contention. But the hundred years succeeding the death of Nehemiah are for us, so far as any record remains of that Judæan history, a century of silence. For some reason which does not appear, the period from the death of this sturdy old captain at Jerusalem to the time of the Greek conquest of Persia has no Jewish history. That it was a period of growth and development with the Judæans—especially in their theological and ecclesiastical life—is evident from the changes which the close of the century shows. The stress of external events made it a time of heavy taxation and distress,—a time of struggle with Samaria, and of internal conflict for the control of the high priest's office."—T. R. Slicer, *Between the Testaments (New World, Mar., 1892).*

B.C. 413-332.—Rule of High Priests.—"After the death of Nehemiah and the high priest, Eliashib (413 B.C.), the Persian Court did not appoint governors of Judea. Samaria was the seat of the Persian Satrap for Syria, Phœnicia and Palestine. The sons of David had lost prestige under Nehemiah (Psalm lxxxix.). The ruler acknowledged by the Law, the prophet (Deuter. xviii. 15), was no more; the last prophets under Nehemiah, with the exception of Malachi, had proved unworthy of their illustrious predecessors. Therefore, the high priest was now the first man in the theocracy, and, contrary to the Laws of Moses (Leviticus x. 3), he was acknowledged the chief ruler of the nation, although he was no longer the bearer of the Urim and Thumim (Ezra ii. 63). He presided over the Great Synod, was the representative of the people before the king and his satrap, and gradually he established himself in the highest dignity of the nation."—I. M. Wise, *History of the Hebrews' second commonwealth, 1st period, ch. 4.*

B.C. 332-167.—Greek domination.—Hellenism. —Jewish dispersion.—On the fall of the Persian monarchy, Judea, with all the rest of western Asia, was gathered into the empire of Alexander the Great (see MACEDONIA: B.C. 334-330 to B.C. 277-244), Jerusalem submitting to him without a siege, and so avoiding the fate of Tyre. In the wars between Alexander's generals and successors, which followed his death, Palestine changed masters several times, but does not seem to have been much disturbed. The High Priests continued to be the chiefs of the nation, and neither the religion nor the internal government of the Hebrew state suffered much interference. The final partition made among the new Macedonian kings (B.C. 302), gave Palestine to Ptolemy of Egypt, and it remained subject to Egypt for a century. This period was a happy one, on the whole, for the Jews. The Ptolemies were friendly to them, with one exception, respecting their religion and laws. Large numbers of them settled in Egypt, and especially in the rising new capital and emporium of trade—Alexandria. But in 201 B.C. Antiochus the Great, king of the Syrian or Seleucid monarchy, wrested Cœlosyria and Palestine from the Ptolemies and added it to his own dominions. (See SELEUCIDÆ: B.C. 224-187.) Antiochus dealt favorably with the Jews, but his successors proved harder masters than the Egyptian Greeks.—H. Ewald, *History of Israel, v. 5, bk. 5, sect. 2.*—"These kings promoted the settlement of Greeks and Syrians in Palestine, so that it was by degrees all covered with cities and towns of Grecian nomenclature. The narrow territory of Judea alone kept free of them, but was surrounded with settlers whose speech, customs, and creed were Greek. On the other hand, the Jews went on spreading in lands where Greek was spoken. A good many of these were planted in Egypt, in the newly founded capital Antioch, in Lydia and Phrygia. Led on by their love of trade, they soon became numerous in the commercial cities of western Asia, Ephesus, Pergamus, Miletus, Sardis, &c. From Egypt and Alexandria, in which city, at a later period, they formed two-fifths of the inhabitants, they drew along the coast of Africa to Cyrene and the towns of the Pentapolis, and from Asia Anterior to the Macedonian and Greek marts; for the national love of commerce became more and more developed, till it absorbed all other occupations, and to this certainly the general inclination for commercial intercourse, prevalent at that period, greatly contributed. Thus it happened that two movements, identical in their operation, crossed each other, viz., an influx of Greek, or of Asiatic but hellenized, settlers into Palestine, and an outpouring of Jews and Samaritans into the cities speaking the Greek tongue. In olden times, while the Israelites still possessed a national kingdom, they felt their isolation from other people as a burden. It was an oppressive yoke to them, which they bore impatiently, and were always trying to shake off. They wanted to live like other nations, to eat, drink, and intermarry with them, and, together with their own God, honour the gods of the stranger also; for many raw and carnally-minded Jews only looked upon the one special God and protector of their nation as one god amongst many. But now there was a complete change in this respect. The Jews everywhere lived and acted upon the fundamental principle, that between them and all other nations there was an insurmountable barrier; they shut themselves off, and formed in every town separate corporations, with officers of their own; while at the same time they kept up a constant connexion with the sanctuary at Jerusalem. They paid a tribute to the temple there, which was carefully collected everywhere, and from time to time conveyed in solemn procession to Jerusalem. There alone, too, could the sacrifices and gifts which were demanded by the law be offered. In this wise they preserved a centre and a metropolis. And yet there followed from all this an event, which in its consequences was one of the most important in history, namely, the hellenising of the Jews who were living out of Judea, and even, in a degree, of those who remained in their own land. They were a people too gifted intellectually to resist the magnetic power by which the Hellenistic tongue and modes of thought and action worked even upon such as were disposed to resist them on principle. The Jews in the commercial towns readily acquired the Greek, and soon forgot their mother tongue; and as the younger generation already in their domestic circle were not taught Greek by natives, as might be supposed, this Jewish Greek grew into a peculiar idiom, the Hellenistic. During the reign of the second Ptolemy, 284-247 B.C., the law of Moses was translated at Alexandria into Greek, probably more to meet the religious wants of the Jews of the dispersion than to gratify the desire of the king. The necessity of a knowledge of Hebrew for the use of the holy Scriptures was thereby done away with, and Greek lan-

guage and customs became more and more prevalent. Individuals began to join this or that school of philosophy, according to predilection and intellectual bias. The Platonic philosophy had necessarily most attractions for the disciples of Moses. The intrusion of Hellenism into Judea itself met with a much more considerable resistance from the old believing and conservative Jews. Those of the heathen dispersion were obliged to be satisfied with mere prayer, Bible readings and expositions, in their proseuchæ and synagogues, and to do without the solemn worship and sacrifices of the temple; but in Jerusalem the temple-worship was carried out with all its ancient usages and symbols. There presided the Sopherim, the Scribes or skilled expounders of the law, a title first appropriated to Esdras (about 450 B.C.). He was one of the founders of the new arrangements in the restored state, and was a priest, and at the same time a judge appointed by the king of Persia. . . . From that time forth dependence on the law, pride in its possession as the pledge of divine election, and the careful custody of this wall of partition, sank deep into the character of the nation, and became the source of many advantages as well as of serious faults. . . . The later Jewish tradition makes much mention of the great synagogue believed to have existed already in the time of Esdras, or to have been founded by him. It is supposed to have mustered 120 members, and, under the presidency of the high-priest, was to be the guardian of the law and doctrine. One of its last rulers was Simon the Just, who was high-priest, and the most distinguished doctor of his time (that of the first Ptolemys). Afterwards this threefold dignity or function of high-priest, scribe or rabbi, and of Nasi or prince of the synagogue, were never united in one person. . . . The high-priesthood fell into contempt, the more it served foreign rulers as the venal instrument of their caprice; but the Scribes flourished as being the preservers of all theological and juridical knowledge, and were supported by the respect and confidence of the people. . . . By the year 170 B.C., Hellenism had undoubtedly made such progress among the Jews, in Palestine even, that the Assyrian king, Antiochus Epiphanes, was able to plan the extirpation of the Jewish religion, and the conversion of the temple at Jerusalem into a temple of Jupiter Olympus."—J. J. I. Döllinger, *Gentile and Jew in the courts of the Temple of Christ, v. 2, bk. 10, sect. 1.*—Twice, Antiochus Epiphanes crushed rebellion in Jerusalem with awful ferocity. On the last occasion, the slain were believed to number 80,000, while 10,000 captives were led away and sold as slaves. The city was sacked and partly burned; the Temple was plundered and polluted. "Not content with these enormities, Antiochus determined to abolish altogether the Jewish religion, and, if possible, entirely to exterminate the race. With this intention, he issued an edict throughout his dominions, calling upon all the nations who were subject to his authority to renounce their religion and worship his gods, and this order he enforced with the most severe pains and penalties. The Jews were the only people who ventured to disobey the edict, whereupon, Antiochus ordered them to be treated with the utmost rigour, and sent to Jerusalem an old man named Atheneas, who was well versed in the rites of the Greek worship, as commissioner, to enforce obedience to his commands. This old pagan dedicated the Temple to Jupiter Olympus, and placed a statue of that false deity upon the altar of burnt offering. This desecration was not confined to Jerusalem, for everywhere throughout the Syrian empire groves and temples were dedicated, and statues and altars erected, to the heathen deities, and the worship of the true God was everywhere prohibited, and punished as the worst of crimes. That the chief fury of Antiochus's impious rage was directed against the Jews is evident from the fact that, whilst a general edict was published, condemning to death or torture all those who refused to worship the idols, a special decree was promulgated, by which it was made death to offer sacrifices to the God of Israel, observe the Sabbath, practise circumcision, or indeed to conform in the smallest degree to the precepts of the Mosaic law. Every effort was also made to destroy the copies of the Holy Scriptures; and persons refusing to deliver them up were punished by death. In this terrible distress, many of the Jews abandoned their homes and took shelter in the wilderness, where 'they lived in the mountains after the manner of beasts, and fed on herbs continuously lest they should be partakers of the pollution' (Macc. v.). Of those who remained behind, some few yielded to the temptation, and saved themselves by apostacy, but the majority remained faithful to the God of their forefathers, Who, in His own good time, hearkened to the prayers of His people, and sent them a deliverer." —E. H. Palmer, *History of the Jewish nation, ch. 7.*—See also HELLENISM: Hellenism and the Jews.

B.C. 166-40.—Revolt of Maccabees.—Reign of Asmoneans.—Pompey's siege and capture of Jerusalem.—His other conquests.—Loss of freedom of the Jews.—Rise of Herod.—The heroic family called The Maccabees, which began and led the revolt of the Jewish people against the oppression and persecution of the Seleucidæan kings, bore, also, the name of the Asmonean or Hasmonean family, derived from the name of "its chief of four generations back, Chasmon, or Asmon, 'the magnate.'" The head of the family at the time of the outbreak of the revolt, and who precipitated, it was Mattathias. He had five sons, the third of whom, Judas, became the military leader and great hero of the nation in its struggle. To Judas was given the surname or appellation of Makkabi, from whence came his historical name of Judas Maccabæus, and the general name of The Maccabees by which his family at large is commonly designated. Under Judas the revolt assumed larger proportions, and in a short time he was able to meet and defeat the Syrians in the open field. The situation which the Romans had created in Syria was favourable to the Jewish cause. In order to find money to pay the tribute imposed by Rome upon his house, Antiochus had to undertake an expedition into the Far East, which depleted Syria of a large number of troops. During the king's absence the government of the country was entrusted to a high functionary named Lysias. Lysias took a serious view of the rebellion in Judæa, and despatched a force under the command of three generals to suppress it. But this army met with alarming reverses at the hands of Judas, and Lysias was obliged to go to Palestine in person to conduct the campaign. Meanwhile Antiochus had been apprised of the disasters which had befallen his captains, and was hastening homewards to assume the supreme direction of affairs, when death put a termination to his career (B.C. 164). The pressure of Roman policy upon Antiochus was the indirect cause of the Jewish revolt, and the immediate cause of the king's inability to suppress it. After the death of Antiochus, the distracted state of Syria and the struggles of rival pretenders for the crown strengthened the position of the Jewish patriots. Antiochus V., son of the late king, was only nine years old when he began to reign (B.C.

164). His father had appointed a courtier named Philip regent during his son's minority. But this arrangement did not satisfy Lysias, who had the young king in his custody, and who was carrying on the campaign in Palestine when the news of his supersession by Philip arrived. Lysias immediately left off the contest with Judas, and devoted his energies to the task of resisting Philip's claims. At this juncture, if any historic value can be attached to a statement in the Second Book of the Maccabees, two Roman envoys, Quintus Memmius and Titus Manlius, who were probably on their way from Alexandria to Antioch, offered to take charge of Jewish interests at the Syrian capital. Peace is said to have been the outcome of their efforts (B.C. 162). But it was a peace which did not endure. In the following year the Syrian king once more invaded Palestine at the head of a great army, and, in spite of the strenuous opposition of Judas, laid siege to the Holy City. Famine soon reduced the garrison to the last extremities, and their fate would have been a hard one had not the disordered condition of Syria compelled the besiegers to accept honourable terms. Whilst the siege was in progress news came to the Syrian camp that Philip had put himself at the head of a large army, with the intention of enforcing his claims to the regency. No time was to be lost, and the king, acting on the advice of Lysias, accorded the Jews religious liberty. Jerusalem capitulated; and the same order of things was established as had existed previous to the insurrection. Soon after these events Antiochus V. was dethroned and executed by his relative, Demetrius I. In Judæa the new monarch allowed the people to retain the religious liberties granted them by his predecessor, and had he exercised more judgment in the selection of a High Priest it would have been impossible for Judas to renew the struggle against Syria with any prospect of success. The Assidæans, or Pious Ones, who afterwards developed into the party known as the Pharisees, and who, while their religion was at stake, were devoted followers of Judas, were satisfied with the attainment of religious freedom. [See also CHASIDIM.] But Judas and his friends, who formed the party which afterwards became the Sadducees, . . . were unwilling to relax their efforts till the country was completely independent. The Assidæans, consisting of the scribes and the bulk of the population, accepted Alcimus, the High Priest whom Demetrius had appointed, and were disposed for peace. But the senseless barbarities of Alcimus threw the Assidæans once more into the arms of the war party, and the struggle began afresh. The High Priest was obliged to flee from Jerusalem; Demetrius sent an army to reinstate him, but Judas defeated the Syrian forces, and the Jews enjoyed a short period of repose. . . . Two Jewish delegates, Eupolemos and Jason, were sent to Italy to form an alliance with Rome. The Senate, which never neglected an opportunity of crippling the Syrian monarchy, accorded a favourable reception to the Jewish envoys, and acknowledged the independence of their country. . . . While these negotiations were taking place the Syrian army again invaded Palestine. Judas went forth to meet them, and, after a desperate conflict, was defeated and slain [at Beer-Zath] (B.C. 161). The death of their leader shattered the party of freedom, and the Romans, probably because they saw no distinct centre of authority left standing in the country, ignored the treaty they had just made with the Jewish envoys, and left Judæa to its fate. It was not by direct intervention that the Romans helped the Jews forward on the path of independence; it was by the disintegrating action of Roman policy on the kingdom of Syria. The Jewish leaders did not fail to take advantage of the opportunities which were thus afforded them. About nine years after the death of Judas Maccabæus, the Romans started a new pretender to the Syrian crown in the person of Alexander Balas, a young man of unknown origin (B.C. 152). Supported by the allies of Rome, Balas was able to take the field against Demetrius, who became alarmed at the threatening aspect of affairs. Jonathan, a brother of Judas, was then at the head of the Jewish patriots (B.C. 161-142), and Demetrius attempted by concessions to win him over to his side. When the pretender Balas heard of this, he immediately outbade Demetrius, and offered Jonathan the High Priesthood as the price of his support. Jonathan sold himself to the highest bidder, and, notwithstanding further profuse promises from Demetrius, the Jewish leader remained true to his allegiance. The war between the two rivals did not last long; Demetrius was overthrown and slain (B.C. 151), and at the marriage of the new king, Jonathan was appointed civil and military governor of Judæa." The spiritual and the temporal government of the Jews was now united in the office of High Priest. Jonathan, captured and murdered by one of the Syrian pretenders, was succeeded in the office (142 B.C.), by another brother, Simon, who was assassinated, 135 B.C., by an ambitious son-in-law. Simon's son, John Hyrcanus, took his place.—W. D. Morrison, *Jews under Roman rule, ch.* 1.—The Asmonean family had now become so established in its princely character that the next of the line, Judas (who took the Greek name Aristobulus), assumed the crown and title of King (105 B.C.). Aristobulus reigned less than two years, and was succeeded by his brother Jonathan (Jannæus) Alexander. "These Jewish princes were as wide apart in character as in name from the house whose honours they inherited. Aristobulus, the bloody, . . . starved in prison his mother, whom John had left as regent. . . . Alexander, named Jannæus, in a reign of five and twenty years, was mostly occupied in petty wars,—generally unsuccessful, but indefatigable to begin afresh. He signalized himself in successive revolts of his people, first by the barbarous slaughter of 6,000, then by a civil war of some six years, which cost 10,000 lives, and finally by crucifying 800. . . . A restless, dissolute, ambitious man, called 'the Thracian' for his barbarities, his rule abhorred except for the comparative mercy he showed in the cities he had conquered, he died [B.C. 79] before the age of fifty, having done the one service of confirming the Jewish power upon the soil of Palestine."—J. H. Allen, *Hebrew men and times, ch.* 10.—See also GAZA: B.C. 100.—"When . . . Jannæus Alexander died, the Jewish kingdom stretched towards the south over the whole Philistian territory as far as the Egyptian frontier; towards the south-east as far as the Nabatæan kingdom of Petra, from which Jannæus had wrested considerable tracts on the right bank of the Jordan and the Dead Sea; towards the north over Samaria and the Decapolis up to the lake of Gennesareth; here he was already making arrangements to occupy Ptolemais (Acco) and victoriously to repel the aggressions of the Ityræans. The coast obeyed the Jews from Mount Carmel as far as Rhinocorura, including the important Gaza—Ascalon alone was still free; so that the territory of the Jews, once almost cut off from the sea, could now be enumerated among the asylums of piracy. Now that the Armenian invasion, just as it approached the borders of Judæa, was averted by the intervention of Lucullus,

. . . the gifted rulers of the Hasmonæan house would probably have carried their arms still further, had not the development of the power of that remarkable conquering sacerdotal state been arrested by internal divisions. The spirit of religious independence and the national patriotism—the energetic union of which had called the Maccabee state into life—very soon became dissociated and even antagonistic. The Jewish orthodoxy [or Pharisaism] gaining fresh strength in the times of the Maccabees, . . . proposed as its practical aim a community of Jews composed of the orthodox in all lands essentially irrespective of the secular government—a community which found its visible points of union in the tribute to the temple at Jerusalem obligatory on every conscientious Jew and in the schools of religion and spiritual courts, and its canonical superintendence in the great temple consistory at Jerusalem, which was reconstituted in the first period of the Maccabees and may be compared as respects its sphere of jurisdiction to the Roman pontifical college. Against this orthodoxy, which was becoming more and more ossified into theological formalism and a painful ceremonial service, was arrayed the opposition of the so-called Sadducees—partly dogmatic, in so far as these innovators acknowledged only the sacred books themselves and conceded authority merely, not canonicity, to the 'bequests of the scribes,' that is canonical tradition; partly political, in so far as instead of a fatalistic waiting for the strong arm of the Lord of Zebaoth they taught that the salvation of the nation was to be expected from the weapons of this world, and above all from the internal and external strengthening of the kingdom of David as re-established in the glorious times of the Maccabees. The partisans of orthodoxy found their support in the priesthood and the multitude. . . . Jannæus had kept down the priesthood with a strong hand; under his two sons there arose . . . a civil and fraternal war, since the Pharisees opposed the vigorous Aristobulus and attempted to obtain their objects under the nominal rule of his brother, the good-natured and indolent Hyrcanus. This dissension not merely put a stop to the Jewish conquests, but gave also foreign nations opportunity to interfere and to obtain a commanding position in southern Syria. This was the case first of all with the Nabatæans. This remarkable nation has often been confounded with its eastern neighbours, the wandering Arabs, but it is more closely related to the Aramæan branch than to the proper children of Ishmael. This Aramæan, or, according to the designation of the Occidentals, Syrian, stock must have in very early times sent forth from its most ancient settlements about Babylon a colony, probably for the sake of trade, to the northern end of the Arabian gulf; these were the Nabatæans on the Sinaitic peninsula, between the gulf of Suez and Aila, and in the region of Petra (Wadi Mousa). In their ports the wares of the Mediterranean were exchanged for those of India; the great southern caravan-route, which ran from Gaza to the mouth of the Euphrates and the Persian gulf, passed through the capital of the Nabatæans—Petra—whose still magnificent rock-palaces and rock-tombs furnish clearer evidence of the Nabatæan civilization than does an almost extinct tradition. The party of the Pharisees, to whom after the manner of priests the victory of their faction seemed not too dearly bought at the price of the independence and integrity of their country, solicited Aretas the king of the Nabatæans for aid against Aristobulus, in return for which they promised to give back to him all the conquests wrested from him by Jannæus. Thereupon Aretas had advanced with, it was said, 50,000 men into Judæa and, reinforced by the adherents of the Pharisees, he kept king Aristobulus besieged in his capital."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, v.* 4, *bk.* 5, *ch.* 4.—See also Sadducees; Essenes.—"While this was going on, Pompey had meanwhile begun his victorious campaign in Asia. [See Rome: Republic: B.C. 69-63.] He had conquered Mithridates in B. C. 66, and had in the same year received the voluntary submission of Tigranes. While he himself now pressed on farther into Asia, he sent Scaurus to Syria in B.C. 65. When that general arrived at Damascus he heard of the war between the brothers in Judea, and pushed forward without delay to see how he might turn to account this strife between the rival princes. He had scarcely reached Judea when ambassadors presented themselves before him, both from Aristobulus and from Hyrcanus. They both sought his favour and support. Aristobulus offered him in return four hundred talents; and Hyrcanus could not be behind, and so promised the same sum. But Scaurus trusted Aristobulus rather because he was in a better position to fulfil his engagement, and so decided to take his side. He ordered Aretas to withdraw if he did not wish to be declared an enemy of the Romans. Aretas did not venture to show opposition. He therefore raised the siege, and thereupon Scaurus returned to Damascus. But Aristobulus pursued Aretas on his way homeward, and inflicted upon him a crushing defeat. But the Roman favour which Aristobulus had so exerted himself to secure, under the protection of which he believed himself to be safe, soon proved fatal to his well-being and that of his country. He himself left no stone unturned in order to win the goodwill of Pompey as well as of Scaurus. He sent Pompey a costly present, a skilfully wrought golden vine worth five hundred talents, which Strabo found still on view at Rome in the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus. But all this could not save Aristobulus, whenever Pompey found it to be for his advantage to withdraw his favour and take the side of Hyrcanus. In the spring of B.C. 63, Pompey proceeded from his winter quarters into Syria, subdued the greater and smaller princes in the Lebanon, and advanced by way of Heliopolis and Chalcis upon Damascus. There he was met at one and the same time by representatives of three Jewish parties. Not only did Aristobulus and Hyrcanus appear, but the Jewish people also sent an embassy. Hyrcanus complained that Aristobulus, in defiance of all law, had violently assumed the government; Aristobulus justified his conduct by pointing out the incapacity of Hyrcanus. But the people wished to have nothing to do with either, asked for the abolition of the monarchy and the restoration of the old theocratic constitution of the priests. Pompey heard them, but cautiously deferred any decision, and declared that he would put all things in order when he had accomplished his contemplated expedition against the Nabateans. Till then all parties were to maintain the peace. Aristobulus, however, was by no means satisfied with this arrangement, and betrayed his discontent by suddenly quitting Dium, whither he had accompanied Pompey on his expedition against the Nabateans. Pompey grew suspicious, postponed his campaign against the Nabateans, and marched immediately against Aristobulus. He . . . pursued him through Jericho, and soon appeared in the neighbourhood of Jerusalem. But now Aristobulus lost heart. He betook himself to the camp of Pompey, gave him further presents, and promised to surrender to him the city if Pompey would suspend hostilities. Pompey was satisfied

with this, and sent his general Gabinius to take possession of the city, while he retained Aristobulus in the camp. But Gabinius returned without having obtained his object, for the people in the city had shut the gates against him. Pompey was so enraged at this that he put Aristobulus in prison, and immediately advanced against the city. . . . The city was surrendered to Pompey, who sent in his legate Piso, and without drawing sword took possession of it. But the war faction gathered together on the temple mount and there prepared themselves for resistance. The temple mount was then, as afterwards, the strongest point in Jerusalem. It presented to the east and the south a sheer precipice. Also on the west it was separated from the city by a deep ravine. Only on the north was there a gradual slope; but even there approach was made almost impossible by the construction of strong fortifications. In this fortress, well nigh impregnable, the adherents of Aristobulus had now taken refuge, and Pompey, whether he would or not, had to engage upon a regular siege. . . . After a three months' siege, a breach was made in the wall. A son of the dictator Sulla was the first to make way through it with his troops. Others quickly followed. Then began a frightful massacre. The priests, who were then engaged offering sacrifice, would not desist from the execution of their office, and were hewn down at the altar. No less than 12,000 Jews are said to have lost their lives in this general butchery. It was towards the close of autumn of the year B.C. 63, under Cicero's consulship, according to Josephus on the very day of atonement, according to Dio Cassius on a Sabbath, that this holy city bowed its head before the Roman commander. Pompey himself forced his way into the Most Holy Place, into which only the feet of the high priest had ever before entered. But he left the treasures and precious things of the temple untouched, and also took care that the service of God should be continued without interruption. On the besieged he passed a severe sentence. Those who had promoted the war were beheaded; the city and the country were made tributary. . . . The boundaries of the Jewish territories were greatly curtailed. All the coast towns from Raphia to Dora were taken from the Jews; and also all non-Jewish towns on the east of the Jordan, such as Hippos, Gadara, Pella, Dium, and others; also Scythopolis and Samaria, with the regions around them. All these towns were immediately put under the rule of the governor of the newly-formed Roman province of Syria. The contracted Jewish territory was given over to Hyrcanus II., who was recognised as high priest, without the title of king. . . . With the institutions of Pompey the freedom of the Jewish people, after having existed for scarcely eighty years, if we reckon it as beginning in B.C. 142, was completely overthrown. Pompey, indeed, was acute enough to insist upon no essential change in the internal government of the country. He suffered the hierarchical constitution to remain intact, and gave the people as their high priest Hyrcanus II., who was favoured by the Pharisees. But the independence of the nation was at an end, and the Jewish high priest was a vassal of the Romans."—E. Schürer, *History of the Jewish people in the time of Jesus Christ, div.* 1, *pp.* 317-324.—See also Rome: Republic: B.C. 78-68; 69-63; Syria: B.C. 64-63.—Hyrcanus II. was not merely the vassal of the Romans; he was the puppet of one of his own partisans—the able Idumean, Antipater, who gathered the reins of government into his own hands. "Antipater ruled without interfering with Hyrcanus; he rebuilt the walls of Jerusalem, and appointed Phasael, the eldest of his four heroic sons (whose mother was Kypros, an Arabian), to be ruler of the district of the holy city, and Herod the younger to be ruler of Galilee. This young man, who was at that time scarcely twenty-five years old, was soon able to surpass even his father. . . . He purified Galilee from the robber-bands, of which Hezekiah was the most dreaded leader, and by so doing, although he was already a mark for the hatred borne by the national and priestly party against the Edomites, as friends of their new tyrants the Romans, he distinguished himself by dealing summarily with the robbers, without appealing to the legal authorities. He therefore appeared before the Sanhedrin of Jerusalem, to which he was summoned by Hyrcanus, with a military escort, wearing purple, with his head anointed, and bearing a letter of safe-conduct from his patron Sextus Cæsar, the ruler of Syria. . . . Hyrcanus allowed him to withdraw in defiance: he hastened to Syria, bought the governments of Cœle-Syria and Samaria (B.C. 46), marched thence with an army towards Jerusalem, and when he had with difficulty been persuaded by his father and brother to return, he rejoiced that he had at least menaced the country. Neither the death of Julius Cæsar (B.C. March 44), the civil war at Rome, nor the poisoning of his father Antipater at the table of Hyrcanus in the year 43, interfered with Herod's success. He bought the favour of Cæsar's murderers by the unexampled haste with which he brought in large contributions, amounting to a hundred talents (more than £20,000) from Galilee alone, so that Cassius appointed him Procurator of Syria, and promised him the dignity of king, in the even of a victory over Anthony and Octavianus, a prospect which indeed cost his father his life. Nor was Herod's power destroyed by the unfortunate battle of Philippi in the autumn of B.C. 42. He succeeded in gaining Anthony by the influence of his person and of his wealth; and in spite of all the embassies of the Jews, Phasael and Herod were appointed tetrarchs of the whole of Judea in the year B.C. 41. His betrothal to Mariamne, grand-child of Hyrcanus, which took place at the same time, added the illusion of national and hereditary right to Herod's previous good fortune. But there was first an interval of hardship. Immediately afterwards, the Parthian armies overran Upper Asia, while Anthony remained in Egypt, ensnared by Cleopatra: they took Jerusalem [40 B.C.], and to please that place as well as the Jews of Babylon, they installed Antigonus, the son of Aristobulus, as king, taking Phasael and Hyrcanus prisoners, while Herod escaped with difficulty. All was ended with a blow, Herod was put to flight, Phasael killed himself, and Antigonus cut off the ears of Hyrcanus the high priest. Herod landed in Italy as an adventurer. He met Anthony, and by his means also gained over Octavianus. Fear and hatred of the Parthians effected even more than old acquaintance and new engagements: and beyond his most daring hopes a decree of the senate [40 B.C.] bestowed the kingdom of Judea upon him."—T. Keim, *History of Jesus of Nazara, v.* 1, *p.* 231.—See also History: 14.

B.C. 40-A.D. 44.—Herod and Herodians.—Sanhedrin.—Roman rule.—End of line of Herod.—Returning to Judæa with his new rank and the confirmed support of Rome, "Herod slowly obtained possession of the country, not without the help of Roman legions, and in a third campaign, in June (Sivan), B.C. 37, occupied Jerusalem [after a siege of half a year] and the Temple, in the halls of which fire raged, contrary to his wish, and blood streamed through its courts. This was

the second Roman occupation of Jerusalem, after an interval of twenty-six years, even to a day. Antigonus fell, by the king's wish, beneath the axe of Anthony, and the Maccabean house had ceased to reign. The new kingdom underwent its final crisis in the war between Octavianus and Anthony, in which Herod was constrained to take part with Anthony. . . . The frankness with which, after the battle of Actium (Sept., B.C. 31), he proclaimed his friendship for Anthony to Octavianus at the island of Rhodes, in order to set before him the prospect of a like faithfulness, procured the crown for him afresh, which Octavianus set upon his head. [Octavianus] restored to him all the possessions which his intriguing enemy Cleopatra had obtained at his expense in the south of the country and on its western coast, giving to him Gadra, Hippo, Samaria, and on the coast Gaza, Anthedon, Joppa, the tower of Strato, and in short the whole country, and even more than he had lost by Pompey's conquests. [See also Rome: Republic: B.C. 31.] A few years later the same benefactor enlarged the kingdom on the north-east, by making over to Herod, between the years B.C. 24-21, the wide extent of territory reaching to Anti-Lebanon, and Damascus, in order to protect that city from attacks on the side of the desert. He was appointed Procurator-General of Syria, and afterwards nearly obtained the government of Arabia. It was in fact almost the kingdom of David which was again united under Herod. Herod enjoyed the favour of Octavianus, with few intervals, to the last. . . . Herod did not merely owe his success to that officious attention which displayed the greatness of Rome in costly hospitalities, gifts, and edifices of every kind, but to his genuine fidelity and manly heroism, his pre-eminent wisdom and readiness to accept the culture of the West, qualities which were recognized as adapting him to be a most useful ally in the territory which bounded the eastern empire of Rome, where the inhabitants were so ready to take offence. Herod, in a certain sense, emulated his friend in Rome, in introducing an Augustan era into his land. He, as well as Octavianus, put an end to war, and the dominion which had been cemented together by the blood of its citizens enjoyed a long peace, lasting for almost forty years. . . . The prosperity of the country increased so much in these quiet times that Herod, when he began to build the Temple, boasted of the wealth and income which had accumulated in an unprecedented manner, so as to confirm the most fabulous accounts of the luxurious expenditure of his reign. . . . Herod was not devoid of nobler qualities, even although they have been forgotten by the Jews and Christians. He was not merely a brave leader in war, a bold hunter and rider, and a sagacious ruler; there was in him a large-heartedness and an innate nobility of mind which enabled him to be a benefactor of his people. This fundamental characteristic of his nature, inherited from his father, is admitted by the Jewish historian, times out of number, and has been shown by his affection for his father, mother, and brothers, and also for his friends, by his beneficence in good fortune, and even in adversity. . . . When in the thirteenth year of his reign (B.C. 25), some years before the building of the Temple, famine and sickness devastated the land, he sold the gold and silver treasures in his house, and himself became poor, while he bespoke great quantities of grain from Egypt, which he dispensed, and caused to be made into bread: he clothed the poor, and fed 50,000 men at his own expense: he himself sent help to the towns of Syria, and obtained the immediate, and indeed the enduring gratitude of the people as a second Joseph. Yet it was only the large-heartedness of a barbarian, without true culture, or deeper morality. Hence came the unscrupulousness, the want of consideration for the national peculiarities which he opposed, the base cunning and vanity which coloured all his actions, and hence again, especially in later life, he became subject to caprices, to anger and repentance, to mistrust and cruelty, to the wiles of women and of eunuchs. He was, in short, only the petty tyrant, the successful upstart who was self-seeking, and at once rash and timid; a beggar before Augustus; a foolish time-server before the Greek and Roman world; a tyrant in his own house, and incapable either of resisting influence or of enduring contradiction. . . . The dangerous position of the upstart, with respect to the earlier royal family and to the national aversion, the divisions of his numerous family, the intrigues of a court of women, eunuchs, barbers, and frivolous flatterers of every description, drew him on, as if with demoniacal power, from one stage of cruelty to another. . . . Daily executions began on his entry into Jerusalem in the year B.C. 37 with the execution of Antigonus, of the nephew of Hyrcanus, and of his own dependants. . . . He pardoned no one whom he suspected: he enforced obedience by an oath, and whoever would not swear forfeited his life. Innumerable people disappeared mysteriously in the fortress of Hyrcania. Life was forfeited even for the offence of meeting or standing together, when it was noticed by the countless spies in the city and on the highways, and indeed by himself in his rounds by night. The bloody decimation of his own family was most revolting. About the year B.C. 35 he caused his wife's brother Aristobulus, who had been high priest for eighteen years, to be stifled by his Gallic guards in a pond at Jericho, because he was popular, and belonged to the old family: in the year B.C. 31, after the battle of Actium, he murdered his grandfather-in-law Hyrcanus, aged eighty years, and in the year B.C. 30 or 29 his wife Mariamne, and a little later her intriguing mother Alexandra, since they had become objects of suspicion to him: in the year B. C. 25 his brother-in-law, Kostobar, and a long line of friends were slain: about the year B.C. 6, the sons of Mariamne, Alexander and Aristobulus, were judiciously condemned and strangled in Samaria: and finally the diabolical Antipater, the son of the first marriage, who, together with Salome, Herod's sister, and with Alexandra, his mother-in-law, had taken the greatest part in the crimes of the family." —T. Keim, *History of Jesus of Nazara, v.* 1, *pp.* 233-246.—Herod died within the year 4 B.C., which has been most generally agreed upon as that of the birth of Jesus. By ten wives he had had many children, and had slain not a few; but a large family survived, to quarrel over the heritage, disputing a will which Herod left. There was a hearing of the disputants at Rome, and also a hearing given to deputies of the Jewish people, who prayed to be delivered from the Herodian family, all and singly. The latter prayer, however, received small consideration. The imperial judgment established Archelaus, eldest son of Herod's sixth wife, Malthace, in the sovereignty of Judæa, Idumæa, and Samaria, with the title of Ethnarch. To Herod Antipas, second son of the same mother, it gave Galilee and Peræa. Philip, another son, by a seventh wife, was made tetrarch of a small principality. Archelaus governed so oppressively that, after some years (6 A.D.), he was deposed by the Romans and banished to Gaul. Judæa was then joined to the præfecture of Syria, under a

succession of Roman governors, the fifth of whom was Pontius Pilate. "Judæa thus became in the year 6 A.D. a Roman province of the second rank, and, apart from the ephemeral restoration of the kingdom of Jerusalem under Claudius in the years 41-44, thenceforth remained a Roman province. Instead of the previous native princes holding office for life and, under reservation of their being confirmed by the Roman government, hereditary, came an official of the equestrian order, nominated and liable to recall by the emperor. The port of Caesarea rebuilt by Herod after a Hellenic model became, probably at once, the seat of Roman administration. The exemption of the land from Roman garrison, as a matter of course, ceased, but, as throughout in provinces of second rank, the Roman military force consisted only of a moderate number of cavalry and infantry divisions of the inferior class; subsequently one ala and five cohorts —about 3,000 men—were stationed there. These troops were perhaps taken over from the earlier government, at least in great part formed in the country itself, mostly, however, from Samaritans and Syrian Greeks. The province did not obtain a legionary garrison, and even in the territories adjoining Judaea there was stationed at the most one of the four Syrian legions. To Jerusalem there came a standing Roman commandant, who took up his abode in the royal castle, with a weak standing garrison; only during the time of the Passover, when the whole land and countless strangers flocked to the temple, a stronger division of Roman soldiers was stationed in a colonnade belonging to the temple. . . . For the native authorities in Judaea as everywhere the urban communities were, as far as possible, taken as a basis. Samaria, or as the town was now called, Sebaste, the newly laid out Caesarea, and the other urban communities contained in the former kingdom of Archelaus, were self-administering, under superintendence of the Roman authority. The government also of the capital with the large territory belonging to it was organised in a similar way. Already in the pre-Roman period under the Seleucids there was formed . . . in Jerusalem a council of the elders, the Synhedrion, or as Judaised, the Sanhedrin. [See also SANHEDRIM.] The presidency in it was held by the high priest, whom each ruler of the land, if he was not possibly himself high priest, appointed for the time. To the college belonged the former high priests and esteemed experts in the law. This assembly, in which the aristocratic element preponderated, acted as the supreme spiritual representative of the whole body of Jews, and, so far as this was not to be separated from it, also as the secular representative in particular of the community of Jerusalem. It is only the later Rabbinism that has by a pious fiction transformed the Synhedrion of Jerusalem into a spiritual institute of Mosaic appointment. It corresponded essentially to the council of the Greek urban constitution, but certainly bore, as respected its composition as well as its sphere of working, a more spiritual character than belonged to the Greek representations of the community. To this Synhedrion and its high priest, who was now nominated by the procurator as representative of the imperial suzerain, the Roman government left or committed that jurisdiction which in the Hellenic subject communities belonged to the urban authorities and the common councils. With indifferent short-sightedness it allowed to the transcendental Messianism of the Pharisees free course, and to the by no means transcendental land-consistory—acting until the Messiah should arrive—tolerably free sway in affairs of faith, of manners, and of law, where Roman interests were not directly affected thereby. This applied in particular to the administration of justice. It is true that, as far as Roman burgesses were concerned in the matter, justice in civil as in criminal affairs must have been reserved for the Roman tribunals even already before the annexation of the land. But civil justice over the Jews remained even after that annexation chiefly with the local authority. Criminal justice over them was exercised by the latter probably in general concurrently with the Roman procurator; only sentences of death could not be executed by it otherwise than after confirmation by the imperial magistrate. In the main those arrangements were the inevitable consequences of the abolition of the principality, and when the Jews had obtained this request of theirs, they in fact obtained those arrangements along with it. . . . The local coining of petty moneys, as formerly practised by the kings, now took place in the name of the Roman ruler; but on account of the Jewish abhorrence of images the head of the emperor was not even placed on the coins. Setting foot within the interior of the temple continued to be forbidden in the case of every non-Jew under penalty of death. . . . In the very beginning of the reign of Tiberius the Jews, like the Syrians, complained of the pressure of the taxes; especially the prolonged administration of Pontius Pilatus is charged with all the usual official crimes by a not unfair observer. But Tiberius, as the same Jew says, had during the twenty-three years of his reign maintained the time-hallowed holy customs, and in no part set them aside or violated them. This is the more to be recognised, seeing that the same emperor in the West interfered against the Jews more emphatically than any other, and thus the long-suffering and caution shown by him in Judaea cannot be traced back to personal favour for Judaism. In spite of all this both the opposition on principle to the Roman government and the violent efforts at self-help on the part of the faithful developed themselves even in this time of peace."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, bk.* 8, *ch.* 11.—In the year 41 A.D. the house of Herod rose to power again, in the person of his grandson, Herod Agrippa, descendant of the unfortunate Mariamne. Agrippa had lived long at Rome and won the favor of two successive emperors, Caligula and Claudius. Caligula deposed Herod Antipas from the tetrarchy of Galilee and conferred it on Agrippa. Claudius, in 41, added Judæa and Samaria to his dominions, establishing him in a kingdom even greater than that of his grandfather. He died suddenly in 44 A.D. and Judæa again relapsed to the state of a Roman province. His young son, also named Herod Agrippa, was provided, after a few years, with a small kingdom, that of Chalcis, exchanged later for one made up of other districts in Palestine. After the destruction of Jerusalem he retired to Rome, and the line of Herod ended with him.—Based on H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews, bk.* 12.

ALSO IN: Josephus, *Antiquities of the Jews, bk.* 15-20.—H. Ewald, *History of Israel, bk.* 5, *sect.* 2.—M. Sulzberger, *Status of labor in ancient Israel.*

B.C. 4-A.D. 29.—Life and death of Jesus Christ. See JESUS CHRIST.

A.D. 26.—Political situation of Judæa at time of appearance of Jesus.—"Let us recall, in a few outlines, the political situation of Judæa at the exact moment when Jesus appeared before His countrymen. The shadow of independence, which had been left to it under the vassal kingdom of Herod the Great, had long vanished. Augustus

had annexed Judæa to the Roman empire, not by making it one of those senatorial provinces governed by proconsuls, but as a direct dependant on his authority. He associated it with the government of Syria, the capital of which was Antioch, the residence of the imperial legate. In consequence, however, of its importance, and the difficulties presented by the complete subjection of such a people, the procurator of Judæa enjoyed a certain latitude in his administration; he at the same time managed the affairs of Samaria, but as a second department, distinct from the first. Faithful to the wise policy which it had pursued with so much success for centuries, Rome interfered as little as possible with the usages and institutions of the conquered province. The Sanhedrim was, therefore allowed to continue side by side with the procurator, but its power was necessarily very limited. Its jurisdiction was confined to matters of religion and small civil causes: the procurator alone had the right of decreeing capital punishment. The high-priestly office had lost much of its importance. The Asmoneans and Herods had reduced it to a subordinate magistracy, of which they made a tool for their own purposes. Herod the Great had constituted himself guardian of the sacerdotal vestments, under pretext that he had had them restored to their first magnificence, on the Levitical model; he bestowed them only on the men of his choice. The Romans hastened to follow his example, and thus to keep in their hands an office which might become perilous to them. The procurator of Judæa resided at Cæsarea. He only came to Jerusalem for the solemn feasts, or in exceptional cases, to administer justice. His prætorium stood near the citadel of Antonia. The Roman garrison in the whole of Palestine did not exceed one legion. The levying of imposts on movable property, and on individuals, led to perpetual difficulties; no such objection was raised to the tribute of two drachms for the temple, which was levied by the Sanhedrim. The tax-gatherers in the service of the Romans were regarded as the representatives of a detested rule; thus the publicans—for the most part Jews by birth—were the objects of universal contempt. The first rebellion of any importance took place on the occasion of the census under Cyrenius. At the period at which we have arrived, Judæa was governed by Pilate, the third procurator since the annexation to the empire; he had found in the high-priestly office John, surnamed Caiaphas, son-in-law of Annas, the son of Seth, who had for a long time filled the same office under Valerius Gratus. Pilate had an ally rather than a rival in the Sadducee Caiaphas, who acted on no higher principle than the interest of his order, and the maintenance of his power. Pontius Pilate was wanting in the political tact which knows how to soften in form the severities of a foreign rule; he was a man of vulgar ambition, or rather, one of those men without patriotism, who think only of using their authority for their own advantage. He took no heed of the peculiar dispositions and aversions of the people whom he was to govern. Thus he sent to Jerusalem a Roman garrison with standards; the Jews regarded this as a horrible profanation, for the eagles were worshipped as gods. Assailed in his prætorium at Cæsarea by a suppliant crowd, which no violence could disperse, the procurator was compelled to yield to prayers, which might soon be changed into desperate resistance. From that moment his influence was gone in Judæa; he compromised it still further when he caused shields of gold, bearing his name engraved beside that of the emperor Tiberias, to be suspended from the outer walls of the citadel of Antonia. This flattery to the sovereign, which might have been unaccompanied with peril elsewhere, was received at Jerusalem as a gratuitous provocation, and he was obliged to recall a measure, persistence in which would have led to a terrible tumult. Having thus made himself an object of general aversion, he could not even do good without danger: his plan to build an aqueduct, a thing peculiarly needed on the burning soil of Judæa, created opposition so violent, that it could only be put down by force. Under such a governor, the national passions were in a perpetual state of agitation. This increase of patriotic fanaticism created great obstacles to a purely spiritual work like that of Jesus. Gaulonitis, Peræa, and Galilee still belonged, at this time, to the family of Herod. The tetrarch Philip governed the north-west of the country for thirty-seven years, and was distinguished for his moderation. . . . Galilee and Peræa were the portion of Herod Antipas, the murderer of John the Baptist. His divorce from the daughter of Aretas, after his marriage with Herodias, his brother's wife, had brought war upon the wide provinces which he governed. He was about soon to undergo a humiliating defeat. Like his brother, he was childless. Under the influence of such a prince, surrounded by a licentious court, evil propensities had free play, and the corruption of manners was a bad preparation for a religion of purity and self-denial. In the lowness of the times, the Herods, though of the family of the vile despots who had sold the independence of the Jews, were regarded as in some measure a national dynasty. They had a party which bore their name, and which, in religious matters, combined, after the example of Herod the Great, Pharisaism and Sadduceeism. Such were the political circumstances in the midst of which Jesus was placed."—E. de Pressensé, *Jesus Christ: His times, life, and work, bk.* 3, *ch.* 1.

33-70.—Rise of Christianity.—Attempts to harmonize Judaism and Christianity.—Revolt of Hellenists.—Work of Apostles. See CHRISTIANITY: Three stages in the development of Christianity, to A.D. 35-64; BIBLE, ENGLISH: Sources; EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Intellectual bankruptcy, etc.

66-70.—Great Revolt.—Destruction of Jerusalem.—The oppression of the Jewish nation under the Roman governors who ruled Judæa directly, after the death of the first Herod Agrippa, 44 A.D., may not have been heavier in reality than it had been while the dependent and Romanized tyranny of the Herodian kings prevailed, but it proved to be more irritating and exasperating. "The burden, harshly shifted, was felt to be more galling. The priests and nobles murmured, intrigued, conspired; the rabble, bolder or more impatient, broke out into sedition, and followed every chief who offered to lead them to victory and independence. . . . It was only indeed under extraordinary provocation that the populace of the Jewish capital, who were generally controlled by the superior prudence of their chiefs, broke into violence in the streets. . . . But the ruder independence of the Galileans was not so easily kept in check. Their tract of heath and mountain was always then, as it has since always been, in a state of partial insurrection. . . . For their coercion [at Jerusalem] the Romans had invented a peculiar machinery. To Agrippa, the tetrarch [the second Herod Agrippa], . . . they had given the title of King of the Sacrifices, in virtue of which he was suffered to reside in the palace at Jerusalem, and retain certain functions, fitted to impose on the imagination of the more ardent votaries of Jewish

nationality. The palace of the Herods overlooked the Temple, and from its upper rooms the king could observe all that passed in that mart of business and intrigue. Placed, however, as a spy in this watch-tower, he was regarded by the Zealots, the faction of independence, as a foe to be baffled rather than a chief to be respected and honoured. They raised the walls of their sanctuary to shut out his view, and this, among other causes of discontent between the factions in the city, ripened to an enmity. . . . And now was introduced into the divisions of this unhappy people a new feature of atrocity. The Zealots sought to terrify the more prudent or time-serving by an organized system of private assassination. Their 'Sicarii,' or men of the dagger, are recognised in the records of the times as a secret agency, by which the most impatient of the patriots calculated on exterminating the chief supporters of the foreign government. . . . Hitherto the Romans, from policy rather than respect, had omitted to occupy Jerusalem with a military force. They were now invited and implored by the chiefs of the priesthood and nobility, and Florus [the Roman governor] sent a detachment to seize the city and protect the lives of his adherents. This was the point to which the Zealots themselves had wished to lead him."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans, ch.* 59.—A furious battle in the streets of Jerusalem occurred on the entrance of the Roman troops. The latter gained possession of the citadel, with the upper city, but, after seven days of fighting, were forced to capitulate, and were ruthlessly put to the sword, in violation of sworn pledges. "On that very day and hour, while the Jews were plunging their daggers in the hearts of the Romans, a great and terrible slaughter of their own people was going on in Cæsarea, where the Syrians and Greeks had risen upon the Jews, and massacred 20,000 of them in a single day. And in every Syrian city the same madness and hatred seized the people, and the Jews were ruthlessly slaughtered in all. No more provocation was needed; no more was possible. . . . The heads of the people began the war with gloomy forebodings; the common masses with the wildest enthusiasm, which became the mere intoxication of success when they drove back Cestius from the walls of the city, on the very eve of his anticipated victory —for Cestius [præfect of Syria] hastened southwards with an army of 20,000 men, and besieged the city. The people, divided amongst themselves, were on the point of opening the gates to the Romans, when, to the surprise of everybody, Cestius suddenly broke up his camp and began to retreat. Why he did so, no one ever knew. . . . The retreat became a flight, and Cestius brought back his army with a quarter of its numbers killed. . . . Vespasian was sent hastily with a force of three legions, besides the cohorts of auxiliaries. . . . Of the first campaign, that in Galilee, our limits will not allow us to write. . . . The months passed on, and yet the Romans did not appear before the walls of the city. This meantime was a prey to internal evils, which when read appear almost incredible. . . . The events at Rome which elevated Vespasian to the throne were the principal reasons that the siege of Jerusalem was not actually commenced till the early summer of the year 70, when, in April, Titus began his march from Cæsarea. . . . The city, meanwhile, had been continuing those civil dissensions which hastened its ruin. John [of Gischala], Simon Bar Gioras, and Eleazar, each at the head of his own faction, made the streets run with blood. John, whose followers numbered 6,000, held the Lower, New, and Middle City; Simon, at the head of 10,000 Jews and 5,000 Idumeans, had the strong post of the Upper City, with a portion of the third wall; Eleazar, with 2,000 zealots, more fanatic than the rest, had barricaded himself within the Temple itself. . . . In the sallies which John and Simon made upon each other all the buildings in this part of the town were destroyed or set on fire, and all their corn burned; so that famine had actually begun before the commencement of the siege."—W. Besant and E. H. Palmer, *Jerusalem, the city of Herod and Saladin, ch.* 1-2.—The awful but fascinating story of the siege, as told by Josephus and repeated by many writers since, is familiar to most readers and will not be given here. It was prolonged from April until the 7th of September, 70 A.D., when the Romans forced their way into the upper city. "They spread through the streets, slaying and burning as they went. In many houses where they expected rich plunder, they found nothing but heaps of putrid bodies, whole families who had died of hunger; they retreated from the loathsome sight and insufferable stench. But they were not moved to mercy towards the living; in some places the flames were actually retarded or quenched with streams of blood; night alone put an end to the carnage. . . . The city was ordered to be razed, excepting the three towers, which were left as standing monuments of the victory. . . . During the whole siege the number killed [according to Josephus] was 1,100,000, that of prisoners 97,000. In fact, the population not of Jerusalem alone, but that of the adjacent districts—many who had taken refuge in the city, more who had assembled for the feast of unleavened bread—had been shut up by the sudden formation of the siege. . . . [Of those who survived to the end and were spared, when the Roman soldiers had tired of slaughter], all above seventeen years old were sent to Egypt to work in the mines, or distributed among the provinces to be exhibited as gladiators in the public theatres, and in combats against wild beasts. Twelve thousand died of hunger. . . . Thus fell, and forever, the metropolis of the Jewish state. . . . Of all the stately city—the populous streets, the palaces of the Jewish kings, the fortresses of her warriors, the Temple of her God—not a ruin remained, except the tall towers of Phasaelis, Mariamne, and Hippicus, and part of the western wall, which was left as a defence for the Roman camp."—H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews, bk.* 16.

Also in: H. Ewald, *History of Israel, bk.* 7.—F. Josephus, *Jewish War.*—A. J. Church, *Story of the last days of Jerusalem.*—I. M. Wise, *History of the Hebrews' second commonwealth, 7th period.*

70-133.—**After the war with Rome.—State of surviving people.**—"It might have been expected that, from the character of the great war with Rome, the people, as well as the state of the Jews, would have fallen into utter dissolution, or, at least, verged rapidly towards total extermination. Besides the loss of nearly a million and a half of lives during the war, the markets of the Roman empire were glutted with Jewish slaves. . . . Yet still this inexhaustible race revived before long to offer new candidates for its inalienable inheritance of detestation and misery. Of the state of Palestine, indeed, immediately after the war, we have little accurate information. It is uncertain how far the enormous loss of life, and the numbers carried into captivity drained the country of the Jewish population; or how far the rescript of Vespasian, which offered the whole landed property of the province for sale, introduced a foreign race into possession of the soil. The immense numbers

engaged in the rebellion during the reign of Hadrian imply, either that the country was not nearly exhausted, or that the reproduction in this still fertile region was extremely rapid. In fact, it must be remembered that . . . the ravage of war was, after all, by no means universal in the province. Galilee, Judæa, and a great part of Idumæa were wasted, and probably much depopulated; but, excepting a few towns which made resistance, the populous regions and wealthy cities beyond the Jordan escaped the devastation. The dominions of King Agrippa were, for the most part, respected. Samaria submitted without resistance, as did most of the cities on the sea-coast. . . . The Jews, though looked upon with contempt as well as detestation, were yet regarded, during the reign of Vespasian and his immediate successors, with jealous watchfulness. A garrison of 800 men occupied the ruins of Jerusalem, to prevent the reconstruction of the city by the fond and religious zeal of its former inhabitants. . . . Still . . . it is impossible, unless communities were suffered to be formed, and the whole race enjoyed comparative security, that the nation could have appeared in the formidable attitude of resistance which it assumed in the time of Hadrian."—H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews, v. 2, bk. 18.*

116.—Uprising in Trajan's reign.—"Not quite fifty years after the destruction of Jerusalem, in the year 116, the Jews of the eastern Mediterranean rose against the imperial government. The rising, although undertaken by the Diaspora, was of a purely national character in its chief seats, Cyrene, Cyprus, Egypt, directed to the expulsion of the Romans as of the Hellenes, and, apparently, to the establishment of a separate Jewish state. It ramified even into Asiatic territory, and seized Mesopotamia and Palestine itself. When the insurgents were victorious they conducted the war with the same exasperation as the Sicarii in Jerusalem; they killed those whom they seized. . . . In Cyrene 220,000, in Cyprus even 240,000 men are said to have been thus put to death by them. On the other hand, in Alexandria, which does not appear itself to have fallen into the hands of the Jews, the besieged Hellenes slew whatever Jews were then in the city. The immediate cause of the rising is not clear. . . . To all appearance it was an outbreak of religious exasperation of the Jews, which had been growing in secret like a volcano since the destruction of the temple. . . . The insurgents were nowhere able to offer resistance to the compact troops, . . . and similar punishments were inflicted on this Diaspora as previously on the Jews of Palestine. That Trajan annihilated the Jews in Alexandria, as Appian says, is hardly an incorrect, although perhaps a too blunt expression for what took place."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, v. 2, bk. 8, ch. 11.*—See also CYPRUS: 117.

130-134.—Revolt in Hadrian's reign.—Complete dispersion of Jews in the West.—Jerusalem occupied by Roman colony under Roman name.—The Emperor Hadrian, when his tour through the Empire brought him to Palestine, 130, resolved to erect the destroyed holy city of the Jews as a Roman colony with a Roman name, and to divest it altogether of the character which made it sacred in the eyes of the Jews. He forbade their sojourn in the new city, and exasperated them still more by showing favor, it is said, to the Christian sect. By this and by other measures a fresh revolt was provoked, 132, incited by the priest Eleazar and led by the bandit-chief Barcochebas, or Bar-Kokheba ("Son of the Star"). "The whole body of the Jews at home and abroad was agitated by the movement and supported more or less openly the insurgents on the Jordan; even Jerusalem fell into their hands, and the governor of Syria and indeed the emperor Hadrian appeared on the scene of conflict. . . . As in the war under Vespasian no pitched battle took place, but one place after another cost time and blood, till at length after a three years' warfare the last castle of the insurgents, the strong Bether, not far from Jerusalem, was stormed by the Romans. The numbers handed down to us in good accounts of 50 fortresses taken, 985 villages occupied, 580,000 that fell, are not incredible, since the war was waged with inexorable cruelty, and the male population was probably everywhere put to death. In consequence of this rising the very name of the vanquished people was set aside; the province was thenceforth termed, not as formerly Judaea, but by the old name of Herodotus, Syria of the Philistines, or Syria Palaestina. The land remained desolate; the new city of Hadrian continued to exist, but did not prosper. The Jews were prohibited under penalty of death from ever setting foot in Jerusalem."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, v. 2, bk. 8, ch. 11.*—"The dispersion of the unhappy race, particularly in the West, was now complete and final. The sacred soil of Jerusalem was occupied by a Roman colony, which received the name of Ælia Capitolina, with reference to the emperor who founded it [Publius Ælius Hadrianus] and to the supreme God of the pagan mythology, installed on the desecrated summits of Zion and Moriah."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans, ch. 65.*

200-400.—Nation without a country.—Two governments.—"In less than sixty years after the war under Hadrian, before the close of the second century after Christ, the Jews present the extraordinary spectacle of two regular and organized communities: one under a sort of spiritual head, the Patriarch of Tiberias, comprehending all of Israelitish descent who inhabited the Roman empire; the other under the Prince of the Captivity, to whom all the eastern [Babylonian] Jews paid their allegiance. . . . Unfortunately it is among the most difficult parts of Jewish history to trace the growth of the patriarchal authority established in Tiberias, and its recognition by the whole scattered body of the nation, who, with disinterested zeal, and I do not scruple to add, a noble attachment to the race of Israel, became voluntary subjects and tributaries to their spiritual sovereign, and united with one mind and one heart to establish their community on a settled basis. It is a singular spectacle to behold a nation dispersed in every region of the world . . . submitting to the regulations, and taxing themselves to support the greatness, of a supremacy which rested solely on public opinion, and had no temporal power whatever to enforce its decrees. It was not long before the Rabbins, who had been hunted down with unrelenting cruelty, began to creep forth from their places of concealment. The death of Hadrian, in a few years after the termination of the war, and the accession of the mild Antonius, gave them courage, not merely to make their public appearance, but openly to reëstablish their schools and synagogues. . . . The Rabbinical dominion gradually rose to greater power; the schools flourished; perhaps in this interval the great Synagogue or Sanhedrin had its other migrations, . . . and finally to Tiberias, where it fixed its pontifical throne and maintained its supremacy for several centuries. Tiberias, it may be remembered, was a town built by Herod Antipas, over an ancient

cemetery, and therefore abominated by the more scrupulous Jews, as a dwelling of uncleanness. But the Rabbins soon obviated this objection. Simon Ben Jochai, by his cabalistic art, discovered the exact spot where the burial-place had been; this was marked off, and the rest of the city declared, on the same unerring authority, to be clean. Here, then, in this noble city, on the shore of the sea of Galilee, the Jewish pontiff fixed his throne; the Sanhedrin, if it had not, as the Jews pretend, existed during all the reverses of the nation, was formally reëstablished. Simon, the son and heir of Gamaliel, was acknowledged as the Patriarch of the Jews, and Nasi or President of the Sanhedrin. . . . In every region of the West, in every province of the Roman empire, the Jews of all ranks and classes submitted, with the utmost readiness, to the sway of their Spiritual Potentate. His mandates were obeyed, his legates received with honour, his supplies levied without difficulty, in Rome, in Spain, in Africa. . . . In the mean time the rival throne in Babylonia, that of the Prince of the Captivity, was rapidly rising to the state and dignity which perhaps did not attain its perfect height till under the Persian monarchs. There seems to have been some acknowledged hereditary claim in R. Hona, who now appears as the Prince of the Captivity, as if his descent from the House of David had been recognized by the willing credulity of his brethren. . . . The Court of the Resch-Glutha [Prince of the Captivity] is described as . . . splendid; in imitation of his Persian master, he had his officers, counsellors, and cupbearers. Rabbins were appointed as satraps over the different communities. This state, it is probable, was maintained by a tribute raised from the body of the people, and substituted for that which, in ancient times, was paid for the Temple in Jerusalem. . . . Whether the authority of the Prince of the Captivity extended beyond Babylonia and the adjacent districts is uncertain."—H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews, v.* 2, *bk.* 19.

415.—Driven from Alexandria by Cyril. See Alexandria: 413-415.

5th-6th centuries.—Early Jewish settlements in Europe.—Arian toleration and Catholic persecution.—Contribution of Spanish Jews to Judaism.—"The survey of the settlement of the Jews in Europe begins, as we leave Asia, with the Byzantine Empire. They already lived in its cities before Christianity acquired the empire of the world. In Constantinople the Jewish community inhabited a separate quarter, called the brass-market, where there was also a large synagogue. They were, however, expelled thence by an emperor, either Theodosius II., or Justinus II., and the synagogue was converted into the 'Church of the Mother of God.' . . . In Greece, Macedonia, and Illyria the Jews had already been settled a long time. . . . In Italy the Jews are known to have been domiciled as early as the time of the Republic, and to have been in enjoyment of full political rights until these were curtailed by the Christian emperors. They probably looked with excusable pleasure on the fall of Rome. . . . When Italy became Ostrogothic under Theodoric, the position of the Jews in that country was peculiar. Outbreaks of a spirit of hostility to them were not infrequent during this reign, but at the bottom they were not directed against the Jews, but were meant to be a demonstration against this hated Arian monarch. . . . Those nations . . . which were baptised in the Arian creed betrayed less intolerance of the Jews. Thus the more Arianism was driven out of Europe and gave way before the Catholic religion, the more were the Jews harassed by proselytising zeal. . . . In spite of the antipathy entertained against them by the leaders of opinion, the Jews of Italy were happy in comparison with their brethren of the Byzantine empire. . . . Even when the Lombards embraced the Catholic faith the position of the Jews in Italy remained supportable. The heads of the Catholic Church, the Popes, were free from savage intolerance. Gregory I. (590-604), surnamed the great and holy, who laid the foundation of the power of Catholicism, gave utterance to the principle, that the Jews should only be converted by means of persuasion and gentleness, not by violence. . . . In the territory which was subject to the Papal sway, in Rome, Lower Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia, he steadfastly persisted in this course in the face of the fanatical bishops, who regarded the oppression of the Jews as a pious work. . . . In the west of Europe, in France and Spain, where the Church was first obliged to make its way laboriously, the situation of the Jews assumed a different and much more favourable aspect. . . . It was a long while before Catholicism gained a firm footing in the west of Europe, and the Jews who had settled there enjoyed undisturbed peace until the victorious Church gained the upper hand. The immigration of the Jews into these important and wealthy provinces took place most probably as early as the time of the Republic or of Cæsar. . . . The presence of the Jews in the west of Europe is, however, not certain until the 2d century. The Gaulish Jews, whose first settlement was in the district of Arles, enjoyed the full rights of Roman citizenship, whether they arrived in Gaul as merchants or fugitives, with the pedlar's pack or in the garb of slaves; they were likewise treated as Romans by the Frankish and Burgundian conquerors. . . . [The Burgundian King Sigismund, who embraced the Catholic faith in 516], first raised the barrier between Jews and Christians. . . . A spirit of hostility to the Jews gradually spread from Burgundy over the Frankish countries. . . . The later of the Merovingian kings became more and more bigoted, and their hatred of the Jews consequently increased. . . . The Jews of Germany are certainly only to be regarded as colonies of the Frankish Jews, and such of them as lived in Austrasia, a province subject to the Merovingian kings, shared the same fate as their brethren in France. . . . While the history of the Jews in Byzance, Italy, and France, possesses but special interest, that of their brethren in the Pyrenean peninsula rises to the height of universal importance. . . . Jewish Spain contributed almost as greatly to the development of Judaism as Judæa and Babylonia. . . . Cordova, Grenada, and Toledo, are as familiar to the Jews as Jerusalem and Tiberias, and almost more so than Naherdea and Sora. When Judaism had come to a standstill in the East, and had grown weak with age, it acquired new vigour in Spain. . . . The first settlement of the Jews in beautiful Hesperia is buried in dim obscurity. It is certain that they came there as free men as early as the time of the Roman Republic, in order to take advantage of the productive resources of this country. The tortured victims of the unhappy insurrections under Vespasian, Titus, and Hadrian were also dispersed to the extreme west, and an exaggerated account relates that 80,000 of them were dragged off to Spain as prisoners. . . . The Jews . . . were unmolested under the Arian kings; . . . but as soon as the Catholic Church obtained the supremacy in Spain, and Arianism began to be persecuted, an unfavourable crisis set in."—H. Graetz, *History of the Jews, v.* 3, *ch.* 2.

615.—Siege and capture of Jerusalem by Persians.—Sack and massacre. See JERUSALEM: 615.

637.—Surrender of Jerusalem to Moslems. See JERUSALEM: 637; CALIPHATE: 632-639.

7th century.—Epoch of Geonim.—Exilarchate and Gaonate.—After the death of the Caliph Othman (655), when the followers of Mohammed were divided into two camps—the partisans of Ali and the partisans of Moawiyah, "the Babylonian Jews and Nestorian Christians sided with Ali, and rendered him their assistance. . . . [Prominent among the Jewish supporters of Ali was Mar-Isaac, the head of a school.] The unhappy Ali valued this homage, and, doubtless, accorded privileges to the Jewish head of the school. It it quite probable that from this time the head of the school of Sora occupied a certain dignity, and took the title of Gaon. There were certain privileges connected with the Gaonate, upon which even the Exilarch—also politically appointed—did not venture to encroach. Through this there arose a peculiar relationship between the two entirely opposing offices—the Exilarchate and the Gaonate. This led to subsequent quarrels. With Bostanaï [then Exilarch] and Mar-Isaac, the Jewish officials recognised by the Caliph, there begins a new period in Jewish history—the Epoch of the Geonim. . . . For the space of 40 years (680 to 720), only the names of the Geonim and Exilarchs are known to us; historical details, however, are entirely wanting. During this time, through quarrels and concessions, there arose peculiar relations between the officials of the Jewish-Persian kingdom, which developed into a kind of constitution. The Jewish community in Babylonia (Persia), which had the appearance of a state, had a peculiar constitution. The Exilarch was at their head, and next to him stood the Gaon. Both together they formed the unity of the community. The Exilarch filled political functions. He represented the Babylonian-Persian Judaism under the Caliphs. He collected the taxes from the various communities, and paid them into the treasury. The Exilarchs, both in their outer appearance and mode of life, were like princes. They drove about in a state carriage; they had outriders and a kind of body guard, and received princely homage. The religious unity of Judaism, on the other hand, was represented in the two chief schools of Sora and Pumbaditha. They expounded the Talmud, giving it a practical application; they made new laws and institutions, and saw that they were carried out, by allotting punishments for those who transgressed them. The Exilarch shared the judicial power in common with the Gaon of Sora and the head of the school of Pumbaditha. . . . The head of the school of Sora, however, was alone privileged to be styled 'Gaon'; the head of the school of Pumbaditha did not bear the title officially. The Gaon of Sora enjoyed general preference over his colleague of Pumbaditha."—H. Graetz, *History of the Jews, v.* 3, *ch.* 4.

8th century.—Conversion of Khazars to Judaism. See KHAZARS.

8th century.—Origin of Karaites. See KARAISM.

1076.—Capture of Jerusalem by Seljuk Turks. See CRUSADES: Causes.

1096-1146.—Massacre of Jews in Europe by Crusaders.—The lawless and savage mobs of Crusaders which followed in the wake of the disorderly hosts of Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless, 1096, expended their zeal, at the outset of their march, in hunting and killing Jews "Acting on the notion that the infidels dwelling in Europe should be exterminated before those in Asia should be attacked, [they] murdered 12,000 Jews. In Trèves, many of these unfortunate men, driven to despair, laid violent hands on their children and on themselves, and multitudes embraced Christianity, from which they lapsed the moment the peril had passed. Two hundred Jews fled from Cologne and took refuge in boats; they were overtaken and slain. In Mayence, the archbishop, Rudhart, took them under his protection, and gave them the great hall of his castle for an asylum; the pilgrims, nevertheless, forced their way in, and murdered 700 of them in the archbishop's presence. At Spires the Jews valiantly defended themselves. At Worms they all committed suicide. At Magdeburg the archbishop, Ruprecht, amused himself by attacking them during the celebration of the feast of tabernacles, and by seizing their property."—W. Menzel, *History of Germany, v.* 1, *ch.* 145.—See also CRUSADES: 1096-1099, to 1104-1111.—The fervors of the second crusade (1146) inclined, in Germany, to the same direction, of Jew-hunting; but Saint Bernard, the apostle of the Crusade, was enlightened and humane enough to suppress the outrage by his great influence. A monk named Radulf, self-appointed preacher of the Crusade in Germany, stirred up the people of the cities of the Rhine against the Jews, and numbers were massacred, notwithstanding attempts of the emperor, Conrad, to protect them. But Bernard went in person to the scene, and, by his personal authority, drove the brutal monk into his convent.—Based on T. Keightley, *Crusaders, ch.* 3.—See also CRUSADES: 1147-1149.

ALSO IN: H. Graetz, *History of the Jews, v.* 3, *ch.* 9, 11.—H. C. Adams, *History of the Jews, ch.* 15.

1099.—Conquest of Jerusalem by Crusaders. See JERUSALEM: 1099.

12th century.—Study of medicine.—Maimonides' work. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 12th century.

13th-14th centuries.—Hostility of papacy and Church.—Doctrine of divine condemnation of the Jews to slavery.—Claim of emperors to ownership of them.—"The declaration by Innocent III. [Pope, 1198-1216] that the entire nation was destined by God on account of its sins to perpetual slavery, was the Magna Charta continually appealed to by those who coveted the possessions of the Jews and the earnings of their industry; both princes and people acted upon it. . . . The succeeding popes took their stand upon the maxims and behests of Innocent III. If the Jews built themselves a synagogue, it was to be pulled down; they might only repair the old ones. No Jews might appear as a witness against a Christian. The bishops were charged to enforce the wearing of the distinctive badge, the hat or the yellow garment, by all the means in their power. The wearing of the badge was particularly cruel and oppressive, for in the frequent tumults and risings in the towns the Jews, being thus recognisable at a glance, fell all the more easily into the hands of the excited mob; and if a Jew undertook a journey he inevitably became a prey to the numerous bandits and adventurers, who naturally considered him as an outlaw. . . . Where popes failed to interfere, the councils of the various countries made amends for the omission; they forbade, for instance, a Christian letting or selling a house to a Jew, or buying wine from him. Besides all this, the order was often renewed that all copies of the

Talmud and commentaries upon it—consequently the greater part of the Jewish literature—should be burnt. . . . The new theory as to the Jews being in a state of slavery was now adopted and enlarged upon by theologians and canonists. Thomas Aquinas, whose teaching was received by the whole Roman Church as unassailable, pronounced that since the race was condemned to perpetual bondage princes could dispose of the possessions of the Jews just as they would of their own. A long list of canonical writers maintained, upon the same ground, the right of princes and governors to seize upon the sons and daughters of Jews and have them baptized by force. It was commonly taught, and the ecclesiastical claim still exists, that a Jewish child once baptized was not to be left to the father. Meanwhile princes had eagerly seized upon the papal doctrine that the perpetual slavery of the Jews was ordained by God, and on it the Emperor Frederick II. founded the claim that all Jews belonged to him as Emperor, following the contention prevalent at the time that the right of lordship over them devolved upon him as the successor of the old Roman Emperors. . . . King Albert went so far as to claim from King Philip of France that the French Jews should be handed over to him. . . . From the 14th century this 'servitude to the state' was understood to mean complete slavery. 'You yourselves, your bodies and your possessions, belong,' says the Emperor Charles IV. in a document addressed to the Jews, 'to us and to the empire; we may act, make and do with you what we will and please.' The Jews were, in fact, constantly handed about like merchandise from one to another; the emperor, now in this place, now in that, declared their claims for debts to be cancelled; and for this a heavy sum was paid into his treasury, usually 30 per cent."—J. J. I. von Döllinger, *Jews in Europe* (*Studies in European history, ch.* 9).

1321.—Persecution of lepers and Jews.—"In the year 1321, a general rumour prevailed through Europe that the unhappy beings afflicted with leprosy (a disease with which the Crusaders had become infected in the East) . . . had conspired to inoculate all their healthy fellow-creatures with their own loathsome malady. . . . The King of Grenada and the Jews were denounced as the prime movers of this nefarious plot directed to the extermination of Christianity; and it was said that the latter, unable to overcome the many impediments which opposed their own agency, had bribed the lepers to become their instruments. This 'enormous Creed,' in spite of its manifold absurdities, found easy admission; and, if other evidence were wanting for its support, torture was always at hand to provide confessions. Philip V. [of France] was among the firmest believers, and therefore among the most active avengers of the imaginary crime; and he encouraged persecution by numerous penal edicts. At Toulouse, 160 Jews were burned alive at once on a single pile, without distinction of sex, and, as it seems, without any forms of previous examination. In Paris, greater gentleness was manifested; those only were led to the stake from whom an avowal of guilt could be extorted."—E. Smedley, *History of France, pt.* 1, *ch.* 8.—"The lord of Parthenay writes word to the king that 'a great leper,' arrested on his territory, has confessed that a rich Jew had given him money, and supplied him with drugs. These drugs were compounded of human blood, of urine, and of the blood of Christ (the consecrated water), and the whole, after having been dried and pounded, was put into a bag with a weight and thrown into the springs or wells. Several lepers had already been provisionally burnt in Gascony, and the king, alarmed at the new movement which was originating, hastily returned from Poitou to France, and issued an ordinance for the general arrest of the lepers. Not a doubt was entertained by any one of this horrible compact between the lepers and the Jews. 'We ourselves,' says a chronicler of the day, 'have seen with our own eyes one of these bags, in Poitou, in a burgh of our own vassalage.' . . . The king ordered all found guilty to be burnt, with the exception of those female lepers who happened to be pregnant. The other lepers were to be confined to their lazarettos. As to the Jews, they were burnt indiscriminately, especially in the South."—J. Michelet, *History of France, v.* 1, *bk.* 5, *ch.* 5.

1348-1349.—Accused of causing the Black Plague.—On the appearance in Europe, in 1348, of the pestilence known as the Black Death, "there was a suspicion that the disease was due to human agencies, and, as usual, the Jews were asserted to have contrived the machinations by which the calamity was created. They were charged with poisoning the wells, and through France, Switzerland, and Germany, thousands of these unhappy people were destroyed on evidence derived from confessions obtained under torture. As far as he could, the Emperor Charles IV. protected them. They escaped persecution too in the dominions of Albrecht of Austria. It is said that the great number of the Jewish population in Poland is due to the fact that Casimir the Great was induced by the entreaties of one Esther, a favourite Jewish mistress of that monarch, to harbour and shelter them in his kingdom. It should be mentioned that Clement VI. forbade the persecution of the Jews at Avignon."—J. E. T. Rogers, *History of agriculture and prices, v.* 1, *ch.* 15.

Also in: H. Graetz, *History of the Jews, v.* 4, *ch.* 4.

1391-1492.—Massacre and expulsion from Spain. See below: Spain: 8th-15th centuries; Inquisition: 1203-1525.

16th century.—Influence of Renaissance and Reformation.—"The Renaissance, . . . had a favorable effect on the position of the Jews. When John Pfefferkorn, a convert from Judaism, in 1506 accused the Jews of blaspheming Jesus in their prayers and in their literature, and proposed the confiscation of all their books, John Reuchlin, a famous diplomat and expert Hebrew scholar, rendered an opinion in their favor. The Dominicans of Cologne, among them a former rabbi, Victor von Karben, whose tool Pfefferkorn had been, made the latter's cause their own, but did not succeed. In Frankfort-on-the-Main, where the books had been confiscated, they were ordered to be returned to their owners, and a long and bitter controversy, in which both parties engaged in vile attacks, ensued. In the meantime the Reformation intervened; and the Pope, who had been appealed to, ended the matter by an order in 1516 that both parties should keep their peace. He reversed this decision in favor of the Dominicans in 1520."—G. Deutsch, *History of the Jews, p.* 82.—"The Reformation of 1517 at first influenced the condition of the Jews for the better. The accusations that the Jews desecrated hosts ceased, as a natural consequence of the rejection by the Protestants of the Catholic dogma of transubstantiation. As late as 1492 a number of Jews were burned for this supposed crime at Sternberg in Mecklenburg. In 1510, thirty-nine Jews were burned at Berlin for the same cause. But aside

from this, Protestantism in itself stood for religious toleration. Luther, in the beginning of his career (1523), spoke of the Jews as 'cousins of our Lord,' who should be treated with kindness. He thought that his purified Christianity would win them over, but, toward the end of his life, when he had failed in his efforts and was embittered for other reasons, he wrote two pamphlets filled with invective against the Jews (1543). In these he advocated the confiscation of their property, the destruction of their synagogues, and the forcible baptism of their children. Still more bitter than Luther's attacks were those of John Eck, his Catholic opponent."—*Ibid.*, *p.* 80.

18th-19th centuries.—Age of growing self-consciousness.—Period of conversion.—Renaissance of Jewish culture.—Emancipation.— The third is the struggle for political emancipation. The fourth is marked by religious reform conflicts, the fifth by assimilative tendencies, the sixth by anti-Semitism, and the seventh by the rise and concentration of 'Young Israel.' For the sake of those who insist upon time limits it may be said that the first two currents characterize the first quarter of the century; the next two, the middle of the century, and the last three, the closing quarter. But it cannot be repeated too often that all such summaries and divisions are full of pitfalls, against which the student must be on his guard. For our purpose it is more profitable to pass the important events in review. . . . The mass of the Jews lived an unthinking routine life. Of the transformation about to take place, they had scarce a suspicion. The

SEDER, OR FEAST OF THE PASSOVER
(From a 17th Century Haggadah)

Position in western Europe.—Return of anti-Semitism.—Efforts to attain cultural unity.— "The nineteenth century was one of the most momentous in the history of Judaism. Perhaps no one century since that of the destruction of the Temple and the birth of Jesus has equalled it in importance. Or, not to go back to so remote a period, can it be gainsaid that since the expulsion of the Jews from Spain, an interval of four hundred years, the inner and outer development of Judaism has suffered no such radical changes as in the nineteenth century? Historians call it the age of growing self-consciousness. . . . A careful examination of the psychic and the external material offered by the century makes it appear that seven great currents flow through its history. . . . The first of these currents prevailed in the time of ferment and combat, when apostasy and baptism were the order of the day. The second is denominated the science of Judaism. religious attitude was on the whole what it had been three or four hundred years earlier. Religious customs were rigidly observed, in the synagogue and in the home alike. Of spiritualization, of an inner exalted feeling, there was not a trace. No one had heard of the ethical mission of Judaism. Political oppression was but little less galling than before; in the countries of the East, indeed, it weighed even more heavily upon the Jews than formerly. Yet a breath of the new time had stolen its way into the narrow Jew streets. The young people were familiarzing themselves with secular culture, and they were beginning to nurse religious doubts. The rapid progress of the Jew in modern living is astounding. Scarcely ten years after the death of Moses Mendelssohn there were Jewish circles in Berlin, Breslau, and Königsberg, even in Vienna and in Paris, in which the new attitude toward the problems of life had completely established itself.

From the Jewish *salons* in Berlin and Vienna a generation fared forth which had armed itself for war against the old order. The Jewish women pointed the way, the full-grown men were not yet able to follow them, the only ones that kept pace with them were the young enthusiasts who had greedily drunk in Lessing's *Nathan* and the ideas of Voltaire and Rousseau. . . . They were prepared to accept the Christian doctrines of the reason, but they could never go the length of the dogma of a Son of God. On the other hand, they held in common with Christians the belief in the unity of God, the incorporeality and immortality of the soul, and the destiny of man to aspire to perfection and happiness. . . . A veritable mania for baptism began to manifest itself. It possessed not only the ladies of the *salons,* but also the less aristocratic circles, the circles of the clerks and servant-maids. In the first quarter of the century a large part of the Jewish community of Berlin, in the opinion of some authorities fully half its members, were converted to Christianity. The same happened in Königsberg, Frankfort, Breslau, and other large cities. . . . So it was in Berlin, so in Vienna, so also in Paris where, by the doctrine of the 'rights of man,' Jews were transformed in the twinkling of an eye into full-fledged citizens. In France, accordingly, the gap between the civil and the social position of the Jews was not so great as in Germany.

"On November 17, 1819, three young enthusiasts in Berlin formed the 'Society for the Culture and the Science of the Jews.' The purpose of the society was nothing less than to 'connect the Jews with the age and the countries in which they live, by means of a course of education which shall proceed from within outward.' The founders were three young men, Edward Gans, a jurist, Moses Moser, a merchant with philosophic culture, and Leopold Zunz, a Jewish scholar. They were joined by many men of education throughout Germany. The first achievement of the young society was the 'Journal for the Science of Judaism' (1822), under the supervision of Zunz. In the very first issue there appeared an essay clearly defining the concept 'Science of Judaism.' The object of this science was stated to be 'the presentation of Judaism first from the historical point of view, its gradual development and growth, and then from the philosophic point of view, its essential meaning and thought; but before all a knowledge of Jewish literature must be arrived at through philological channels.' Here was a something new and great, a something hitherto unknown, this 'science of Judaism.' The extravagant notions of culture harbored by 'Young Palestine,' were, of course, only castles in the air. The society and the journal perished after a short existence, but germs had been scattered which were destined to develop. . . . Zunz was the first to survey the whole field of Jewish literature, and lay down the lines of demarcation indicating its development. He assembled its isolated, disjointed investigations and works, constituting them a science that compelled the respect of scholars in kindred departments. He is the creator of a scientific style in Jewish literature. Thus a movement radiated from him which brought about, in Jews and in non-Jews, a total change of front with regard to Judaism. He taught his co-religionists self-knowledge and led them to self-respect. . . . Zunz was joined in his endeavors by one born in a country in which the study of the Talmud had taken refuge from the storms of the modern era. This was Solomon Judah Rapoport (1790-1867), of Lemberg. He belonged to a circle of Galician humanists whose spiritual leader was Nachman Krochmal (1785-1840), one of the most profound thinkers among Jews. Rapoport was the first to show how a rich store of Talmudic scholarship can be applied to the tasks and purposes of Jewish science. . . . Samuel David Luzzatto (1800-1865), of Trieste, devoted himself primarily to Bible exegesis and the history of literature. His spirit was related to the free spirit of the Italian scholars of the Renascence. . . . In every department of Jewish science his activities had a stimulating effect: in Bible exegesis, in Jewish history, in the history of Jewish literature, and in Hebrew grammar. In the last he did pioneer work in putting it on a scientific basis. . . .

"It is difficult to realize how ideals as fundamental could take root and sprout so slowly in the countries of highest culture, though in some lands, notably America, they conquered public opinion at one blow. Various causes contributed to the fact—the narrow-mindedness of the learned, factiousness, the inflexibility of public opinion, blind adherence to principles, political orthodoxy, and much else. Science—including, it must be stated, theology as well as history—politics, and the press, were equally powerful factors in retarding the progress of liberalism. Such is the only explanation that throws light upon the determined stand taken against the emancipation of the Jews in the period between 1815 and 1840 by the most learned historians and the most open-minded politicians. They tried to demonstrate by historic precedent that emancipation was not necessary for the Jews, and that their enfranchisement would be most dangerous and fraught with ruin to the Christians. . . . The idea of emancipation, it is true, did not originate in Germany, but in England. A century and a half before, John Toland, the spokesman of English deism, had proclaimed the right of the Jews to equality before the law. Other freethinkers followed him in England and France—in France after the new spiritual movement had been transplanted thither. In Germany it was poets like Lessing and Herder, philosophers like Wolff, Thomasius, and Baumgarten, who took up the cudgels against the old superstitions in the name of pure reason. All of them, directly or indirectly, furthered the growth of the new ideas, and cleared the ground for the recognition of the rights of man. Certain external events contributed to give these ideas form and life. In 1781 [1782] Emperor Joseph II issued his famous edict for Austria; the independence won by the United States in 1783 guaranteed religious freedom to all comers; in 1791 the complete equality of the Jews with the other citizens was declared in France; and in 1796, together with the entry of the victorious French troops, emancipation was introduced into Holland. The Italian states and England soon followed. In Russia and Poland emancipation was not yet to be dreamed of. Thus, only Germany remained; and here, under unfavorable external conditions, self-emancipation among the Jews preceded their political emancipation by many years. Although they fought bravely in the War of Liberation, the famous Edict of Hardenberg (1812), which granted citizenship to all Jews of Prussia, was never put into effect. From 1815 to 1850 they had to undergo many severe conflicts, not only with the German chauvinists, but with the reactionaries as well. . . . The best characterization of the position of the Jews in West European countries is afforded by the Damascus affair (1840), which

unfortunately came to be of great significance in the century. In the winter of 1840 the superior of a Capuchin monastery and his servant disappeared from Damascus. The crime was laid at the door of the Jews, not through the agency of natives, but through the French Consul at Damascus. As the murder took place before the Passover, the rumor spread without opposition. Prominent Jews were imprisoned and tortured; the Jewish quarter was plundered. As a result of the confessions wrung from victims on the rack, the unfortunate Jews were condemned to death on the charge of ritual murder. . . . But the spirit of self-consciousness and self-respect had been awakened in the European Jews. They came to the defense with no faltering step. At their head were Adolphe Crémieux (1796-1880) and Moses Montefiore (1784-1885), for whom the Jews will cherish abiding gratitude. Crémieux and Montefiore undertook the journey to Egypt, and succeeded in convincing Mehmet Ali of the innocence of the Jews, and in prevailing upon him to set them free. . . . The Damascus event itself fell into oblivion, but, as the end of the century has shown, and to the horror of all friends of culture and progress, the superstition came to life again in various European countries, in the very centre of European culture, brought confusion and evil upon wide circles of society. . . . The Jews became fully convinced of the need for self-defense, and this conviction led, twenty years later to the foundation of the *Alliance Israélite Universelle,* which has for its object the assistance of Jews wherever they suffer because they are Jews. In connection with the *Alliance Israélite Universelle,* similar societies were later formed in London, New York and Vienna. These institutions had the effect of strengthening the feeling of solidarity among modern Jews. . . . In France, Germany, Austria, and Italy the people rose in a body to demand their rights, and in all these struggles Jews took sides with the fighters for liberty. Soon after, however, a political reaction set in which nullified to a great extent the successes of the liberals in the year of 1848. . . . Nevertheless, not until the adoption of the German constitution of 1871 was complete equality granted to the Jews throughout Germany. Austria had preceded Germany by twelve years in taking this step. Complete emancipation was much more easily obtained in America. The liberation of the Colonies from the yoke of England brought freedom to the Jews. . . . The year 1870 opened up a new era. The last third of the nineteenth century began under favorable auspices for the Jews. With slight exceptions all European legislatures were earnestly endeavoring to grant the Jews political emancipation; and even social emancipation had made great progress. . . . The origin of anti-Semitism dates as far back as 1875. Germany was then undergoing the throes of an economic crisis, which was hastened by swindling schemes, by hazardous financial enterprises, and the like. On February 7, 1873, Eduard Lasker delivered his famous speech against these mischievous evils. . . . Without a doubt the movement was called into being after 1875 by the *Junkers* and clericals. . . . There were Catholic clergymen, like August Rohling, who came out against the Talmud and against the Jewish religion, and even dared dish up again the old fable of ritual murder. This was the religious aspect of anti-Semitism; besides, there was economic anti-Semitism, which was directed against manipulations on the stock exchange, against dishonest 'promoting,' and against the political influence of the Jews. Finally there developed the so-called philosophic hatred of the Jew. This had its root in the works of Schopenhauer; and with Eugen Dühring and his colleagues it may fairly be said to have reached the level of savage fanaticism. Despite these various phases, the foundation of anti-Semitism in all its aspects was economic and social. . . . Liberalism was attacked, the religious and clerical element came to the front, and the economic troubles of the young empire as well as the alarming accessions to the Social Democratic party sounded the warning to wide circles of people, that it was imperative to put up a new social and political program. . . . Anti-Semitism did not continue to be confined to the press and to workingmen's meetings. In 1880 it began to extend to the lecture rooms of the universities, and the students became the standard-bearers of the bitter persecution. . . . In other countries than Germany, popular opinion in regard to the movement was at first rather skeptical; but soon the seed of the evil began to sprout on non-German soil as well. . . . The . . . doctrine of anti-Semitism now went the rounds of Europe. It reached Russia as an import from Germany; and there, in accordance with the degree of culture attained in this country, it led to those bloody excesses which began at Elizabethgrad in May, 1881, and for two years visited various parts of the empire like a plague. The history of the middle ages partially repeated itself. Hundreds of Jews fell a prey to the fury of the goaded mob, hundreds of thousands were thrown into misery and poverty, Jewish women and girls were violated, Jewish houses of worship were destroyed. In the following year [1882] began the first ritual murder trial, at Tisza-Eszlar in Hungary. Although it ended in the complete and honorable acquittal of the accused Jews, it was the commencement of a series of similar trials. . . . In so far as Hungary is concerned, the trial was a turning point for the better; not so in regard to other countries. On the contrary, anti-Semitism was only beginning to feel its power, and after 1886 the *Allgemeine Deutsch-antisemitische Vereinigung* constituted the focus for the persecution of the Jews in the German Empire. . . . Finally, anti-Semitism encroached upon France, too, where it made its first appearance, it is true, in the form of prejudice against the Germans. Now, in full flower and fanned into activity by the Dreyfus affair, it constitues one of the saddest incidents in the history of modern culture. . . . The Jews the world over have come to recognize that centralization of force, concentration of effort, is imperative as an antidote to threatening decline. The recognition of this necessity lies at the root of a variety of endeavors, which present a pleasing vista of creative activity. Jewish communities everywhere, whether autonomous or under state control, are working zealously for the welfare and advancement of congregational life. The three great Alliances with their affliated branches are safeguarding the interests of Jews in all parts of the world where they suffer as Jews. Unions of congregations reinforce the bond holding together the scattered members of the Jewish communion. Countless elementary and higher schools provide systematic instruction in the Jewish religion. Numerous associations are devoted to the cause of popular education, award stipends, and raise funds for libraries and schools. An equal number of associations aim to spread the knowledge of Jewish history and literature, and their efforts are reaching ever-widening circles of interested

members. Seminaries for rabbis and teachers replenish the ranks of our spiritual leaders. Besides all these there remain to be enumerated religious schools; conferences of rabbis and teachers; funds and associations for the benefit of communal officials; endowed institutes for the promotion of trades and agriculture among Jews; labor bureaus; secret orders for the intellectual and moral elevation of the Jewish community; institutions for the professional education and the betterment of the position of women; orphan asylums; homes for the aged and the infirm; hospitals and sanitariums, whose support entails a sacrifice of means and personal effort that is beyond praise; training schools for nurses, societies for temporary relief and against itinerant mendicancy, etc. All this the Jews have created out of nothing, as it were: governments did not aid them; with one exception they owe nothing to a great Maecenas."—G. Karpeles, *Jews and Judaism, pp.* 8-10, 13, 18-22, 29, 33, 44, 51-53, 55, 57-58, 73-74.

20th century.—Census statistics.—The Jewish population in the countries treated in this account was, according to the "American Jewish Year Book," for 1922-1923, as follows: Austria, 350,000; France, 150,000; Germany, 540,000; Great Britain, 286,500; Hungary, 498,913; Palestine, 81,263; Poland, 3,716,010; Rumania, 950,000; European Russia, 3,507,657 of whom 2,375,000 live in the Ukraine; Spain, 4,000; and the United States, 3,300,000.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

12th-19th centuries.—First appearance of Jews.—Imperial charters and decrees.—The date of the first settlement of Jews in Austria-Hungary is unknown. In the case of Austria our first documentary evidence dates from the 12th and in that of Hungary from the 13th century. Duke Leopold V (1177-1194) had a Jewish master of the mint, Shlom; and the presence of a synagogue in Vienna is first recorded in 1204. The Jews came under the protection of the Emperor Frederick II, who granted them a charter in 1238. When Duke Frederick II of Austria regained possession of his country he, too, granted them a charter in 1244. This became the model for charters during the next two centuries. Bela IV of Hungary copied it more or less literally in 1251. Under Louis (1342-1382) the Jews of Hungary were given the alternative of expulsion or conversion to Christianity. Przemysl Ottocar II of Bohemia (1254), Boleslav of Kalisz (1264), and Bolko of Siberia (1295) also copied the charter of 1244, which remained in force until the expulsion of the Jews from Austria in 1420. With the coming of Frederick V of Styria (also German Emperor after 1440) their condition improved. He favored the Jews because of his constant financial difficulties and for humanitarian reasons. At his request Pope Nicholas V issued a bull, September 20, 1451, permitting the Jews to live in all of the emperor's dominions. These included Austria, Tyrol, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola and Alsace. But the states clamored for their expulsion. They petitioned the emperor in 1458 and again in 1460, when Frederick V decreed their expulsion from Upper and Lower Austria. This was, however, not strictly enforced. They were also expelled from Carinthia and Styria in 1496. "At various times Ferdinand I, brother of Charles V, and German Emperor (1522-1564) ordered expulsions from Austria in 1557, and in 1541 and 1561 from Bohemia; they were hardly ever carried out. When the expulsion from Bohemia was decreed, Mordecai Meisels, a wealthy Jew of Prague, 1528-1601, and the descendant of the Italian family Soncino, which in 1513 established a printing press in Prague, went to Rome and obtained a bull from the Pope for the protection of the Jews. The law of expulsion from Bohemia was repealed."—G. Deutsch, *History of the Jews, p.* 83.—"In Vienna, the Austrian capital, the Jews, in spite of disabilities, enjoyed for some time comparative prosperity. This happier state of things came to an abrupt close in 1670, when, under the Emperor Leopold I., the community was heavily fined, the tombs of their dead were burst open, half in hopes of pillage, half in wanton desecration, and their schools and synagogues first despoiled, and then turned into churches. In 1745 there was a revival of the older and more wholesale way of doing things. In mid-winter of that year, by order of the Empress Maria Theresa, 20,000 Jews were suddenly expelled from Bohemia and Moravia."—Lady Magnus, *Outlines of Jewish history, p.* 281.—The decrees remained in force, with very few exceptions, until 1848.

1848-1913.—Improved condition.—Reaction under Francis Joseph.—Renewed oppression.—Final emancipation.—Revival of anti-Semitism.—"The severity with which the Austrian government was inclined to treat the Jews of Hungary it for a time refrained from manifesting toward the Jews of Austria proper. The revolution of 1848 had the effect of immediately improving the condition of the Jews. Free exercise of religion was granted in the constitution adopted that year and soon thereafter all special Jew taxes were abolished. No less than five Jews were elected to the first Austrian parliament. . . . A wave of reaction came with the succession to the throne of Francis Joseph who on March 4, 1849, proclaimed, without consulting parliament, a new constitution which he again repealed on December 31, 1851. Some of the restrictions that had been removed were again brought into force, and the malevolence with which the government regarded all efforts at religious reforms was shown in the order issued on August 5, 1855, forbidding Austrian Jews to join Ludwig Philippson's 'Institute for the Promotion of Israelitish Literature.' The decade of 1849-59 is one of incessant oppression, the government reviving old anti-Jewish decrees and adding new ones. Clericalism was once again in the ascendant, and its influence made itself felt in the municipalities throughout Austria and the provinces where the authorities invariably interpreted the laws to the disadvantage of the Jews, some of them even calling into force the obsolete legislation of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The victorious Italian arms in 1859 wrested liberty for the Jew from the unwilling hands of Francis Joseph and his reactionary ministers. Immediately after the peace of Villafranca (July 11) a more benevolent policy came in vogue. Despite the vigorous opposition of the Catholic leaders, Jewish rights were greatly extended by the parliamentary legislation of 1860. . . . The final emancipation of the Jews came with the constitution adopted on December 21, 1867. Clericalism's influence was now unmistakably on the wane, so much so that persons who were Catholics by birth and rearing could, under the new legislation, withdraw from the Church. Jews could now be raised to the hereditary nobility and take up their homes in all sections of the empire hitherto closed to them. . . . Probably the most deplorable result of German Antisemitism

consisted in the impetus it lent to the anti-Jewish sentiment in neighboring lands and the unfortunate reaction there upon the social and economic condition of the Jews. Having invaded Germany by way of Austria where the clericals had never slackened their incendiary propaganda, the anti-Jewish agitation soon made its way back toward the land of its origin, finding an especially fertile field for its operations in Hungary. Its progress and spread has since the early seventies kept pace in Austria-Hungary with that of the movement in Germany, only sometimes assuming coarser and more repulsive aspects—if this be at all possible in a movement itself so coarse and repulsive from every view-point. Despite the bitter enmity felt against Germany after the defeat of 1866, Austro-Hungarians were not averse to learning from the Germans and adopting their ideas and methods at least in the matter of Jew-baiting. The constitution of 1867 established the principle of religious liberty and political equality for all races of the empire. The Antisemites therefore gave themselves to the task of robbing the Jews of their rights through indirect discriminatory legislation. Thus they succeeded in having a law passed in the Reichsrath in 1883 whereby a public school principal had to belong to the religion professed by the majority of the pupils of his school, Jews forming a minority, especially in the country districts, being therefore barred from such appointments. The restrictions imposed on peddling and the clothing trades were also directed in the main against the Jews. The most formidable Antisemite in Austria at this time was revealed in the person of Georg von Schoenërer, a member of the Reichsrath, who organized an Antisemitic movement among the university students, incited the masses to violence, and sought to bring about legislative measures against the admission of immigrant Jews from Russia (1882). Antisemitism now became a spade to dig with for those ambitious for political preferment and in the elections both of 1884 and 1891 many candidates were elected to the Reichsrath upon their anti-Jewish platform. The blood of the Jews was clamored for in parliamentary debate, their very status as human beings was called into question, and the notorious Lueger succeeded in becoming the head of the clerical party on the strength of his Antisemitism—in 1897 becoming with the help of the reactionaries, though against the wishes of the government, the burgomaster of the city of Vienna. Following the example of their German masters, the Austrian Antisemites succeeded in inciting the populace to violence, riots against the Jews taking place in Prague in 1897, and in Nachod and Holleschau in 1899. . . . Even more revolting was the Antisemitic agitation carried on for many years in Hungary, resulting in the movement set on foot in 1882 by members of the House of Deputies to deprive the Jews of their constitutional rights, and culminating in the ritual-murder charge at Tisza-Eslar (1882) which led to bloody riots in a number of places, among them the large Jewish centers of Presburg and Budapest. Of all the blood-accusations made against the Jews in all ages, barring perhaps the Beilis affair in Kiev, Russia, in 1913 [see BEILISS CASE; also below: Russia: 1817-1913], that of Tisza Eslar stands out as the most pronounced example of the extremes to which blind and fanatical anti-Jewishness will lead."—M. Raisin, *History of the Jews in modern times, pp.* 24-25, 50-53.

1918-1921.—Effects of World War.—The wave of anti-Semitism which swept over Europe after the conclusion of the World War did not leave Austria-Hungary untouched. In Hungary anti-Semitism has its main source in government activity. The old Tsarist legislation reappeared in the so-called Hungarian Educational Act—with its provision that only a percentage of Jews shall be admitted annually to the higher educational institutions. Moreover, Jewish teachers have been dismissed, demoted, or transferred for no other reasons than that they were Jews. Some four hundred teachers were thus affected. Hungary also put into operation trade regulations restricting the number of Jews allowed to engage in trade and industry. "All through the summer of 1920, The Awakening Magyars and the soldiers led by Hejjas maintained a veritable reign of terror in Western Hungary. Many Jews fled across the frontier into Czecho-Slovakia. Budapest and Szigtvar and the district of Baranya suffered in particular. At least in one case Hejjas extorted 3,000,000 kronen from a Jewish community under threat of a pogrom."—*American Jewish Year Book,* 1922-1923, *p.* 62.

ENGLAND

11th century.—First appearance of Jews.—Their treatment as usurers.—"Their first appearance in England is said to have been due to the Conqueror, who brought over a Jewish colony from Rouen to London. They were special favourites of William Rufus; under Henry they play a less conspicuous part; but in the next reign we find them at Lincoln, Oxford, and elsewhere, and there can be no doubt that they were already established in most of the chief English towns. They formed, however, no part of the townsfolk. The Jew was not a member of the state; he was the king's chattel, not to be meddled with, for good or for evil, save at the king's own bidding. Exempt from toll and tax and from the fines of justice, he had the means of accumulating a hoard of wealth which might indeed be seized at any moment by an arbitrary act of the king, but which the king's protection guarded with jealous care against all other interference. The capacity in which the Jew usually appears is that of a money-lender—an occupation in which the scruples of the Church forbade Christians to engage, lest they should be contaminated with the sin of usury. Fettered by no such scruples, the Hebrew money-lenders drove a thriving trade."—K. Norgate, *England under the Angevin kings, v.* 1, *ch.* 1.—"The Church declared against capitalism of any kind, branding it as usury. It became impossible in Angevin England to obtain the capital for any large scheme of building or organisation unless the projectors had the capital themselves. Here was the function which the Jew could perform in England of the twelfth century, which was just passing economically out of the stage of barter. Capital was wanted in particular for the change of architecture from wood to stone with the better classes, and especially for the erection of castles and monasteries. The Jews were, indeed, the first in England to possess dwelling-houses built with stone, probably for purposes of protection as well as of comfort. And as a specimen of their influence on monastic architecture, we have it on record that no less than nine Cistercian monasteries of the North Country were built by moneys lent by the great Aaron of Lincoln, who also boasted that he had built the shrine of St. Alban. . . . The result of the Church's attitude towards Jews and towards usury

was to put the king into a peculiar relation towards his Jewish subjects. The Church kept them out of all other pursuits but that of usury, which it branded as infamous; the State followed suit, and confiscated the estates of all usurers dying as such. Hence, as a Jew could only be a usurer, his estate was always potentially the king's, and could be dealt with by the king as if it were his own. Yet, strange to say, it was not to the king's interest to keep the Jews' wealth in his own hands, for he, the king, as a good Christian, could not get usury for it, while the Jew could very soon double and treble it, since the absence of competition enabled him to fix the rate of interest very high, rarely less than forty per cent., often as much as eighty. . . . The only useful function the Jew could perform towards both king and people was to be as rich as possible, just as the larger the capital of a bank, the more valuable the part it plays in the world of commerce. . . . The king reaped the benefit of these riches in several ways. One of his main functions and main source of income was selling justice, and Jews were among his best customers. Then he claimed from them, as from his other subjects, fines and amerciaments for all the events of life. The Pipe Rolls contain entries of fines paid by Jews to marry, not to marry, to become divorced, to go a journey across the sea, to become partners with another Jew, in short, for all the decisive events of life. And above all, the king got frequent windfalls from the heirs of deceased Jews who paid heavy reliefs to have their fathers' charters and debts, of which, as we have seen, they could make more profitable use than the king, to whom the Jew's property escheated not qua Jew, but qua usurer. In the case of Aaron of Lincoln the king did not disgorge at all at his death, but kept in his own hands the large treasures, lands, houses and debts of the great financier. He appears to have first organised the Jewry, and made the whole of the English Jews his agents throughout the country. . . . In addition to these quasi-regular and normal sources of income from his Jews, the king claimed from them—again as from his other subjects—various contributions from time to time under the names of gifts and tallages. And here he certainly seems, on occasion at least, to have exercised an unfavourable discrimination in his demands from the Jews. In 1187, the year of Aaron of Lincoln's death, he took a tenth from the rest of England, which yielded £70,000, and a quarter from the Jews, which gave as much as £60,000. In other words, the Jews were reckoned to have, at that date, one quarter of the movable wealth of the kingdom (£240,000 against £700,000 held by the rest). . . . They acted the part of a sponge for the Royal Treasury, they gathered up all the floating money of the country, to be squeezed from time to time into the king's treasure-chest. . . . The king was thus . . . the sleeping-partner in all the Jewish usury, and may be regarded as the Arch-usurer of the kingdom. By this means he was enabled to bring pressure on any of his barons who were indebted to the Jews. He could offer to release them of their debt of the usury accruing to it, and in the case of debts falling into his hand by the death of a Jew, he could commute the debt for a much smaller sum. Thus the Cistercian abbeys referred to above paid Richard I. 1,000 marks instead of the 6,400 which they had owed to Aaron of Lincoln."—J. Jacobs, *Jews of Angevin England, introduction.*

1189.—Massacres.—At the time of the accession of Richard Cœur de Lion, king of England, the crusading spirit had inflamed a specially bitter hatred of the Jews. Some of the obnoxious people were imprudent enough to press in among the spectators of King Richard's coronation. They were driven back with blows; "a riot ensued, and the Jews' quarter was plundered. A day elapsed before the king's troops could restore order, and then only three rioters were punished, for damage done to Christians. Thus encouraged, or allowed, the frenzy of persecution spread over the land. Generally it was the country people who were setting out as pilgrims for Palestine, who began the crusade at home, while the cities interposed to preserve the king's peace. But the rumour that the unbelievers were accustomed to crucify a Christian boy at Easter had hardened men's hearts against them. The cause of murder and rapine prevailed in Dunstable, Stamford, and Lincoln. At York, the viscount allowed 500 Jews to take refuge in the castle. Fearing, in spite of this, to be given up, they closed the gates against the king's officers. They were now besieged by the townsmen, under orders of the viscount, and the defence of men untrained to arms and without artillery lay only in the strength of the walls. They offered to ransom their lives, but the crowd thirsted for blood. Then a rabbi rose up and addressed his countrymen. 'Men of Israel, hear my words: it is better for us to die for our law than to fall into the hands of those who hate it; and our law prescribes this.' Then every man slew his wife and children, and hurled the corpses over the battlements. The survivors shut themselves up with their treasures in the royal chamber, and set fire to it. The crowd indemnified themselves by sacking the Jews' quarter, and burning the schedules of their debts, which were kept for safety in the cathedral." —C. H. Pearson, *History of England during the Early and Middle Ages, v.* 1, *ch.* 32.

Also in: H. C. Adams, *History of the Jews, ch.* 16.

1290.—Banishment.—"At the same time [1290], the King [Edward I] banished all the Jews from the kingdom. Upward of 16,000 are said to have left England, nor did they reappear till Cromwell connived at their return in 1654. It is not quite clear why the King determined on this act of severity, especially as the Jews were royal property and a very convenient source of income. It is probable, however, that their way of doing business was very repugnant to his ideas of justice, while they were certainly great falsifiers of the coinage, which he was very anxious to keep pure and true. Earlier in the reign he had hanged between 200 and 300 of them for that crime, and they are said to have demanded 60 per cent. for their loans, taking advantage of the monopoly as money-lenders which the ecclesiastical prohibition of usury had given them."—J. F. Bright, *History of England, period* 1, *p.* 179.—The expulsion was in compliance with a demand made by Parliament. "We have no record of any special action or crime on the part of the Jews which suggested the particular parliamentary demand in 1290. . . . [It had been made four years before, when], in one night, all the Jews in England were flung into prison, and would most likely have been expelled there and then, had they not outbribed the King with £12,000."—G. H. Leonard, *Expulsion of the Jews by Edward I* (*Royal Historical Society Transactions, new series, v.* 5, 1891).

1655.—Toleration by Cromwell.—"Wednesday, Dec. 12, 1655. This day, 'in a withdrawing room at Whitehall,' presided over by his Highness [the

lord protector, Oliver Cromwell], who is much interested in the matter, was held 'a Conference concerning the Jews';—of which the modern reader too may have heard something. Conference, one of Four Conferences, publicly held, which filled all England with rumour in those old December days; but must now contract themselves into a point for us. Highest official Persons, with Lord Chief Barons, Lord Chief Justices, and chosen Clergy have met here to advise, by reason, Law-learning, Scripture-prophecy, and every source of light for the human mind, concerning the proposal of admitting Jews, with certain privileges as of alien-citizens, to reside in England. They were banished near Four-hundred years ago: shall they now be allowed to reside and trade again? The Proposer is 'Manasseh Ben Israel,' a learned Portuguese Jew of Amsterdam; who, being stirred-up of late years by the great things doing in England, has petitioned one and the other, Long Parliament and Little Parliament, for this object; but could never, till his Highness came into power, get the matter brought to a hearing. And so they debate and solemnly consider; and his Highness spake;—and says one witness, 'I never heard a man speak so well.' His Highness was eager for the scheme, if so might be. But the Scripture-prophecies, Law-learnings, and lights of the human mind seemed to point another way: zealous Manasseh went home again; the Jews could not settle here except by private sufferance of his Highness."—T. Carlyle, *Oliver Cromwell's letters and speeches, pt. 9, letter 207.*—"Cromwell . . . was able to overcome neither the arguments of the theologians, nor the jealousies of the merchants, nor the prejudices of the indifferent; and seeing that the conference was not likely to end as he desired, he put an end to its deliberations. Then, without granting the Jews the public establishment which they had solicited, he authorized a certain number of them to take up their residence in London, where they built a synagogue, purchased the land for a burial-ground, and quietly commenced the formation of a sort of corporation, devoted to the Protector, on whose tolerance their safety entirely depended."—F. P. Guizot, *History of Oliver Cromwell, v. 2, bk. 6.*

1662-1753.—General status.—Attempt to legalize their naturalization defeated.—"The Jews . . . were not formally authorised to establish themselves in England till after the Restoration. The first synagogue in London was erected in 1662. . . . There does not appear . . . to have been any legal obstacle to the sovereign and Parliament naturalising a Jew till a law, enacted under James I., and directed against the Catholics, made the sacramental test an essential preliminary to naturalisation. Two subsequent enactments exempted from this necessity all foreigners who were engaged in the hemp and flax manufacture, and all Jews and Protestant foreigners who had lived for seven continuous years in the American plantations. In the reign of James II. the Jews were relieved from the payment of the alien duty, but it is a significant fact that it was reimposed after the Revolution at the petition of the London merchants. In the reign of Anne some of them are said to have privately negotiated with Godolphin for permission to purchase the town of Brentford, and to settle there with full privileges of trade; but the minister, fearing to arouse the spirit of religious intolerance and of commercial jealousy, refused the application. The great development of industrial enterprise which followed the long and prosperous administration of Walpole naturally attracted Jews, who were then as now pre-eminent in commercial matters, and many of them appear at this time to have settled in England,"—among others, the family of Disraeli. In 1753, the Pelhams attempted to legalize the naturalization of Jews; "not to naturalise all resident Jews, but simply to enable Parliament to pass special Bills to naturalise those who applied to it, although they had not lived in the colonies or been engaged in the hemp or flax manufacture. . . . The opponents of the ministry raised the cry that the Bill was an unchristian one, and England was thrown into paroxysms of excitement scarcely less intense than those which followed the impeachment of Sacheverell. There is no page in the history of the 18th century that shows more decisively how low was the intellectual and political condition of English public opinion. According to its opponents, the Jewish Naturalisation Bill sold the birthright of Englishmen for nothing, it was a distinct abandonment of Christianity, it would draw upon England all the curses which Providence had attached to the Jews. The commercial classes complained that it would fill England with usurers. . . . The clergy all over England denounced it. . . . [After fierce opposition, the bill was finally passed;] but as the tide of popular indignation rose higher and higher, the ministers in the next year brought forward and carried its repeal."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England, eighteenth century, v. 1, ch. 2.*

1683-1747.—Jewish charities. See CHARITIES: England: 1683-1747.

1846-1858.—Removal of disabilities.—"In 1846 the Act of Parliament was formally repealed which compelled Jews living in England to wear a distinctive dress. The law had, however, been in abeyance for nearly two centuries. About this time also the Jews were admitted to the privileges of the naturalization laws; and in 1858 the House of Commons by resolution altered the form of oath tendered to all its members. As it had stood up to this time, Jews were prevented from voting in the divisions, although a Jew could take his seat in the House when sent there by a constituency."—E. Porritt, *Englishman at home, ch. 9.*

1885-1905. — Anti-Semitic reaction. — Aliens Bill.—"While the Dreyfus agitation in France was at its height there was manifested a spirit of Anti-semitic reaction also in a region where it was least expected—on the other side of the channel and in the very cradle and citadel of European democracy—England. . . . The dormant anti-Jewish sentiment now became fully aroused. It only needed an opportunity. For preachers of Anti-semitism have not been lacking in England even in its best days. The successful outcome of the struggle for Jewish emancipation and the subsequent rise of a number of Jews to high positions in government aroused a feeling of jealousy which not unseldom found expression in the periodical literature. There came a time in England when a Jew did not have to possess a conversion certificate to enable him to secure a high office. Already in 1885 Nathaniel Rothschild was elevated to the dignity of Lord—the first Jew to be so honored—and took his seat in the House, of Lords. Baron Worms, president of the Anglo-Jewish Association, later became Secretary of Commerce, while quite a number of Jews served as Lord Mayor of London, Liverpool, Portsmouth, Belfast and other cities. This rapid advance was not regarded with equanimity by many of the non-Jews, and every now and then the prophets of ill-will and racial antagonism would make themselves heard. Within the memory of the generation of the beginning of

the twentieth century there still lingered the impression of the bigoted onslaughts upon Lord Beaconsfield and the entire Jewish race by Goldwin Smith, the English-Canadian Antisemite, then still living in Toronto. English journalists like Edmund Stead, and great dailies like the London 'Times' which from a traditional friend of the Jews had, through the influence of the Russian government, turned into an uncompromising foe, now began in London an agitation not dissimilar to that of Drumont and his 'La France Juive' in Paris. The 'undesirable alien,' was but a deceptive term for 'undesirable Jew.' Arnold White, one of the bitterest of English Jew-baiters, in a series of articles denounced the presence of so many foreign Jews in England as a 'national evil.' . . . It was soon to find expression in special legislation which directed against aliens was really aimed at and affected the Jews. Early in January, 1902, a Royal Commission was appointed to investigate the 'alien peril' and, after holding no less than forty-nine sessions and examining nearly two hundred witnesses, reported that while 'it has not been proved that there is any serious direct displacement of skilled English labor,' yet 'the continuous stream of fresh arrivals produces a glut in the unskilled labor market,' and recommended the exclusion of certain classes of immigrants for economic and moral reasons. The report and its recommendation was merely an echo of the popular sentiment of the country and more especially of the metropolis. All England seemed determined to get rid of this alien problem, and members of parliament were entreated, urged and warned to enact drastic laws of exclusion. An 'Immigration Reform Association' was formed in 1903 for the avowed purpose of waging war on immigration through a wide distribution of literature on the subject. On March 29, 1904, a bill was introduced by the Home Secretary, Mr. Aker-Douglas, 'to make provision with respect to the immigration of aliens, and other matters incidental thereto.' A long debate ensued in parliament over the proposed restrictions which, as was justly pointed out by the opponents of the bill, would affect principally immigrants fleeing to England from the political tyranny of the home government. The foremost antagonists of the measure, Sir Charles Dilke, moved an amendment that parliament 'desires to assure itself, before assenting to the Aliens Bill, that sufficient regard is had in the proposed measure to the retention of the principle of asylum for the victims of persecution,' and in defense of his motion candidly stated that, in his firm belief, the bill was the result of anti-Jewish feeling and was aimed chiefly at Jewish immigration. Though denied by Mr. Balfour, the Prime Minister, who stated that the bill was aimed at undesirable aliens irrespective of nationality or creed, and declared that he would 'regard the rise and growth of any Antisemitic feeling in this country as a most serious national misfortune,' it was nevertheless true that the country demanded the exclusion of the Jew and that the professional politicians in parliament were merely carrying out the orders of their constituents. Popular passion against the Jews rose in all of the social strata and among the laboring classes even found vent in violent outbreaks such as England had not known for some centuries. In Limerick, Ireland, a Catholic priest by the name of Creagh delivered many venomous harangues against the Jews, as a result of which a mob attacked a small colony of foreign Jews of the place, wrecking their shops and ruining their merchandise. An economic boycott was subsequently instituted which resulted in great hardship to the Jews. Much unrest and ill-will was manifested also among the mountaineers of Wales and the coal miners of Scotland. The agitation of the press continued unremittingly and even in the polite literature of the day a strong anti-Jewish current was noticeable. . . . Defeated the first time, the Aliens Bill, slightly changed in wording but not in substance, was reintroduced in the House of Commons on April 18, 1905, this time to meet with much greater favor. Many of those who had voted against the first bill refrained from doing so now, having in the meantime become aware of the temper of their contituents. Thus the Aliens Act became a law on August 11, 1905, its severity, however, being mitigated by the adoption of an amendment favoring such immigrants as may come under the category of refugees from political or religious oppression."—M. Raisin, *History of the Jews in modern times, pp.* 79, 81-86.

1918-1921.—Effects of World War.—"After the World War the political excitement, both in the victorious and in the defeated countries, led to renewed hostilities against the Jews. Prominent English papers charged the Jews with responsibility for the success of the Bolshevist government in Russia and with sympathy for all destructive policies."—G. Deutsch, *History of the Jews, p.* 111. —Charges of the existence of a Jewish conspiracy against the Christian world were spread throughout England to rouse anti-Jewish feeling. *The Times* (London) made an investigation, and in August, 1921, published the results. It proved conclusively that the so-called "Protocols of the Elders of Zion" on which the agitation largely rested were plagiarisms from a French political pamphlet, "Dialogues in Hell between Machiavelli and Montesquieu," directed against Napoleon III, published in Brussels in 1865 by a French lawyer, Maurice Joly. With this proof the agitation collapsed.

FRANCE

Early Jewish settlements.—There is no documentary evidence of the presence of Jews in France earlier than the fourth century; their immigration was probably due to economic causes and to chance trading journeys. They were in the main merchants, slave-dealers, sailors and physicians. It is believed that the Jews enjoyed equal rights under Roman rule until the triumph of Christianity. In fact, there is nothing to show that their relations were at all unfriendly. Under the Merovingian period, however, the bishops of provincial councils adopted measures for the purpose of creating a division between Jews and Christians. Succeeding centuries under Childebert, Chilperic and Dagobert bear witness to numerous attacks in which the Jews were nominally converted to Christianity.

12th-15th centuries.—Treatment of Jews.—During the Middle Ages, the extorting of money from the Jews was one of the devices depended upon for replenishing the royal treasury. "It is almost incredible to what a length this was carried. Usury, forbidden by law and superstition to Christians, was confined to this industrious and covetous people. . . . The children of Israel grew rich in despite of insult and oppression, and retaliated upon their Christian debtors. If an historian of Philip Augustus may be believed, they possessed almost one-half of Paris. Unquestionably they must have had support both at court and in the halls of

justice. The policy of the kings of France was to employ them as a sponge to suck their subjects' money, which they might afterwards express with less odium than direct taxation would incur. Philip Augustus released all Christians in his dominions from their debts to the Jews, reserving a fifth part to himself. He afterwards expelled the whole nation from France. But they appear to have returned again—whether by stealth, or, as is more probable, by purchasing permission. St. Louis twice banished and twice recalled the Jews. A series of alternate persecution and tolerance was borne by this extraordinary people with an invincible perseverance, and a talent of accumulating riches which kept pace with their plunderers; till new schemes of finance supplying the turn, they were finally expelled under Charles VI. and never afterwards obtained any legal establishment in France."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages, v.* 1, *ch.* 2, *pt.* 2.

Also in: J. J. I. von Döllinger, *Jews in Europe* (*Studies in European history, ch.* 9).

1791.—Emancipation.—"It is to the French Revolution that the Jews owe their improved position in the modern world. That prolific parent of good and evil has at least deserved well of them. It was the first to do justice, full and unequivocal, to those whom every other great political movement passed over as too insignificant or too contemptible to be taken into account. Mirabeau and the Abbé Grégoire, the one in his desire to secularise the State, the other in his policy of Christianising the Revolution, as our historian Graetz puts it, both urged on a movement which, in an incredibly short space of time, succeeded in effecting the complete emancipation of all the Jews under the rule of the Republic. On the 17th September, 1791, the National Assembly decreed the abolition of every exceptional enactment previously in force against them, and thus made them by law what they had previously been in heart, citizens of their country."—S. Singer, *Jews in their relation to other races* (*National life and thought, ch.* 20).

1806.—Assembly of notables.—"By convening a Jewish Assembly of Notables and, following close upon it, a Synhedrion to exercise jurisdiction as the supreme ecclesiastic authority over the Jews of France and her dependencies, Napoleon created new institutions in Judaism, and at first sight it seemed great and important institutions for the Jews. In a decree dated May 30, 1806, the Emperor ordered that, in the month of July of the same year, a conference of 'the most prominent among the Jews be convened.' To this body the Emperor communicated his wishes. Its other function was to formulate, for the Imperial representatives, a plan considered effective 'in stimulating the Jews of the Empire to take up the practice of arts and crafts, in order that they might learn to substitute dignified callings for the disgraceful occupations to which for generations and centuries they had largely devoted themselves.' The enthusiasm with which the Jews greeted this decree can hardly be imagined."—G. Karpeles, *Jews and Judaism, pp.* 13-14.

1886-1906.—Revival of anti-Semitic feeling.—In "France . . . the publication of Drumont's 'La France Juive' in 1886 marks the beginning of the movement culminating in the Dreyfus case. Captain Alfred Dreyfus in 1894 was charged with high treason [see France: 1894-1906] in order to stir up anti-Jewish feeling, and this was not abated until his innocence had finally been established in 1906."—G. Deutsch, *History of the Jews, p.* 111.

1921-1922. — Anti-Jewish agitation. — Anti-Semitic agitation has been rife in the colleges and schools of France, particularly in the Russian College in Paris where the agitation was led by Russian émigrés.

GERMANY

4th-11th centuries.—Liberal treatment of Jews.—The date of the first settlement of Jews in Germany is not known. "The first authentic document relating to a large and well-organized Jewish community in these regions, dates from 321, and refers to Cologne on the Rhine; it indicates that the legal status of the Jews there was the same as elsewhere in the Roman empire. They enjoyed full civic liberty, being restricted only in regard to the dissemination of their faith, and keeping of Christian slaves, and the holding of office under the government. But they were otherwise free to follow any occupation open to their fellow citizens."—M. Brann, *Germany* (*Jewish encyclopedia, v.* 5, *p.* 629).

11th-16th centuries.—Effect of Crusades.—Persecutions.—"The wild excitement to which the Germans had been driven by exhortations to take the cross first broke upon the Jews, the nearest representatives of an execrated opposition faith. Entire communities, like those of Trèves, Speyer, Worms, etc., were slain, except where the slayers were anticipated by the deliberate self-destruction of their intended victims. About 12,000 Jews are said to have perished in the Rhenish cities alone between May and July, 1096. These outbreaks of popular passion during the Crusades influenced the future status of the Jews. . . . The legal and civic status of the Jews was undergoing a transformation. They found a certain degree of protection with the emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, who claimed the right of possession and protection of all the Jews of the empire in virtue of being the successor of the emperor Titus, who was said to have acquired the Jews as his private property. The German emperors claimed this right of possession more for the sake of taxing the Jews than of protecting them. The emperor of the house of Luxemburg devised still other means of taxation. They turned their prerogatives in regard to the Jews to further account by selling at a high price to the princes and free towns of the empire the valuable privilege of taxing and mulcting the Jews. On the reorganization of the empire in 1356, Charles IV, by the 'Golden Bull,' granted this privilege to the seven electors of the empire. For the sake of sorely needed revenue the Jews were now invited, with the promise of full protection, to return to those districts and cities from which they had shortly before been cruelly expelled; but as soon as they had acquired some property they were again plundered and driven away. These episodes thenceforth constituted the history of the German Jews. Emperor Wenceslaus was most expert in transferring to his own coffers gold from the pockets of rich Jews. He made compacts with many cities, estates, and princes whereby he annulled all outstanding debts to the Jews in return for a certain sum paid to him, adding that anyone who should nevertheless help the Jews to collect their debts should be dealt with as a robber and peace-breaker and be forced to make restitution. This decree, which for years injured the public credit, impoverished thousands of Jewish families during the close of the fourteenth century. Nor did the fifteenth century bring any amelioration. What happened in the time of the Crusades happened again. . . . Jews of Austria, Bohemia, Moravia,

and Silesia passed through all the terrors of death, forced baptism, or voluntary immolation for the sake of their faith. . . . The end of the fifteenth century, which brought a new epoch for the Christian world, brought no relief to the Jews. . . . During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries they were still subject to the will of the princes and the free cities, both in Catholic and in Protestant countries. . . . They lived in fear in their Jews' streets, subsisting on what they could earn as pedlers and as dealers in old clothes. Cut off from all participation in public and municipal life, they had to seek in their homes compensation for the things denied them outside. Their family life was pure and intimate, beautified by faith, industry, and temperance. They were loyal to their community. In consequence of their complete segregation from their Christian fellow citizens, the German speech of the ghetto was increasingly interlarded with Hebraisms, and also with Slavonic elements since the seventeenth century. . . . The study of Bible, Talmud, and halakic legal works, with their voluminous commentaries, preserved the plasticity of the Jewish mind, until a new Moses [Moses Mendelssohn] came to lead his coreligionists out of intellectual bondage toward modern culture."—M. Brann, *Germany* (*Jewish encyclopedia, v.* 5, *pp.* 630-633).

18th-19th centuries. — Education. — Improved conditions.—Emancipation.—"The Middle Ages, which could take from the Jews neither their faith nor their various intellectual gifts, had yet deprived them of the chief means of comprehending the intellectual labors of others. The chasm that in consequence separated them from their educated fellow citizens was bridged by Moses Mendelssohn's translation of the Torah into German. This book became the Manual of the German Jews, teaching them to write and speak the German language, and preparing them for participation in German culture and secular science. In 1778 . . . David Friedländer founded the Jewish free school in Berlin, this being the first Jewish educational institution in Germany in which the entire instruction, in scripture as well as in general science, was carried on in German only. Similar schools were founded later in Breslau [Frankfort and other parts of Germany]. . . . A youthful enthusiasm for new ideals at that time pervaded the entire civilized world; all religions were recognized as equally entitled to respect, and champions of political freedom undertook to restore the Jews to their full rights as men and citizens. . . . Joseph II was foremost in espousing these new ideals. As early as 1782 he issued the 'patent of Toleration for the Jews of Lower Austria,' establishing thereby the civic equality of his Jewish subjects. [However, it was not until 1867 that the Jews were granted unrestricted equality throughout Austria.] Prussia conferred citizenship upon the Prussian Jews in 1812, though this by no means included full equality with other citizens. The German federal edicts in 1815 merely held out the prospect of full equality. . . . After the establishment of the North-German Confederation by the law of July 3, 1869, all existing restrictions imposed upon the followers of different religions were abolished; this decree was extended to all the provinces of the German empire after the events of 1870."—M. Brann, *Germany* (*Jewish encyclopedia, v.* 5, *p.* 633).—The law was incorporated in the constitution of the German empire in 1871.

1914-1920.—Effect of World War.—Anti-Semitic revival.—"We are aware of an impulse for the nation [Germany] to retire within itself, to purify and revigorate itself at the fountain head of Germanism. This sentiment makes the people here detest foreigners and particularly the Jews, who represent the nearest and most intrusive foreign element. . . . Now things have reached a point where the Jew is looked upon as a 'world tyrant,' as the antithesis of the Germanic type. People fancy they have discovered that the war was a Jewish war, and the revolution a Jewish revolution, and the peace a Jewish peace, and the republic a Jewish republic. The Jews are charged with being the master plotters of the world's catastrophe. They are supposed to have amassed great profits from the war. . . . The real point and purpose of this anti-Semite offensive, however, is revealed in its charge that the Socialist party, which undermined the morale of the nation and brought about its military defeat, is a Jewish invention. . . . A majority of the famous workers and soldiers' councils consisted of Jews, and the actual instigators of the revolution were a Jew named Hirsch in Prussia, another Jew named Kurt Eisner in Bavaria, a third named Gradnauer in Saxony, and two named Heinemann and Thalheimer in Würtemburg. In the first republican ministry eighty per cent of the higher offices were held by Hebrews, although they form but one per cent of the population of Germany. . . . So, the anti-Semite League is agitating vigorously by public meetings, pamphlets, and hand hills, in favor of excluding Jews from educational institutions; of repudiating the public debt, which is largely held by Jews; and of boycotting Jewish merchants, theatres where plays written by Jews are presented, and newspapers controlled by Jews. But the anti-Semite League has created sponta-

GERMAN JEW OF THE EARLY 16TH CENTURY
(After Hans Burgkman)

neously a League against anti-Semitism."—G. Cabasmo-Renda, *Anti-Semitism in Germany* (*Living Age, May* 1, 1920).

LITHUANIA

Jewish popular banks. See Coöperation: Lithuania.

PALESTINE

Failure of early colonies.—Zionist settlements.—Jew, Arab and Turk.—Agriculture and industry.—British mandate approved by Council of the League of Nations. See below: Zionism; also Palestine: 1919; 1920; Jerusalem: 1920.

The first extensive Jewish emigration from western Europe to Poland occurred at the time of the First Crusade (1098). Under Boleslaw III. Krzywousty (1102-39), the Jews, encouraged by the tolerant régime of this wise ruler, settled throughout Polish and Lithuanian territory as far as Kiev. Boleslaw on his part recognized the utility of the Jews in the development of the commercial interests of his country. . . . With the descent of the Tartars on Polish territory (1241) the Jews in common with the other inhabitants suffered severely. . . . As the tide of invasion receded the Jews returned to their old homes and occupations. They formed the middle class in a country where the general population consisted of landlords and peasants, and they were instrumental

THE GREAT SYNAGOGUE AT WARSAW, POLAND

POLAND

11th-13th centuries.—Early Jewish settlements.—"From the historical documents thus far available it is difficult to determine with certainty when the first Jewish settlers arrived in Poland. . . . [Nor is it] definitely known whether the first Jewish arrivals in Poland were from the Chazarian countries in South Russia or from western Europe. . . . The first actual mention, however, of Jews in the Polish chronicles occurs under the date of the eleventh century. It appears that the Jews were then living in Gnesen, at that time the religious capital of the Polish kingdom. Some of them were wealthy, owning Christian slaves; they even engaged in the slave-trade. . . . in promoting the commercial interests of the land. . . . This patriarchal order of things was gradually altered by the Roman Church on the one hand, and by the neighboring German states on the other."—H. Rosenthal, *Russia* (*Jewish encyclopedia, v.* 10, *pp.* 561-564).

14th-17th centuries.—Restrictions.—Favorable laws.—Eminence and loss of that position.—"Since the fourteenth century [Poland] has been the refuge of persecuted Jews from the west of Europe, especially from Germany. . . . Settlements of Jews from the East were made in quite early times. Gregory IX urged King Andrew to exclude Jews and Mohammedans from office, and the synod of Ofen (1279) ordered Jews to wear a red wheel on the left breast. Casimer the

Great renewed and extended in 1334 the favorable laws of a century earlier, requiring the accordant testimony of three Jews and three Christians to convict a Jew of the crime of murder of a Christian child; thirteen years later he limited the privileges accorded Jews. During a pestilence the Jews of the principal cities were attacked by the populace. . . . Meanwhile the study of the Talmud had flourished under the care of German Jews in Poland. . . . During the seventeenth century the Jews of Poland were ruled by their own rabbis, constituting a state within a state with an annual synod. . . . Polish Jews became compromised in an attempt to reduce to serfage the Cossacks of Ukraine, and many thousands perished, and a large number were killed in the Russian-Swedish war under Charles X. It is said that 180,000 families perished, 1648-1658, and Polish Judaism lost its eminent position."—*New Schaff-Herzog encyclopedia of religious knowledge, v. 6, pp. 61-62.*

18th century.—Intellectual decadence.—Partition of Poland.—"The decade from the Cossacks' uprising until after the Swedish war (1648-58) left a deep and lasting impression not only on the social life of the Polish-Lithuanian Jews, but on their spiritual life as well. The mental level of the Jews gradually sank. . . . Disorder and anarchy reigned supreme in Poland during the second half of the eighteenth century. . . . This state of affairs was due to the haughty demeanor of the nobility toward the lower classes. The necessity for reform was, it is true, recognized by the king and by many of the Polish people; but Poland was already in the grasp of Russia, and little could be done in this direction. . . . In 1772 the outlying provinces were divided among the three neighboring nations, Russia, Austria, and Prussia. . . . A second partition of Poland was made July 17, 1793 . . . and the third and final partition of Poland took place in 1795. Russia acquired the whole of Lithuania and Courland. . . . The great bulk of the Jewish population was transferred to Russia, and thus became subjects of that empire."—H. Rosenthal, *Russia (Jewish encyclopedia, v. 10, pp. 573-575).*

Also in: Count von Moltke, *Poland, ch. 6.*

1914-1920.—Effects of World War.—Pogroms.—Under new government.—"The complete defeat of the Central Powers, which led to the reestablishment of an independent Poland and the establishment of other new states in Central and Eastern Europe, created chaotic conditions in the territory of the former Russian empire and in that part of Poland which was formerly under Austrian rule. With the collapse of the latter, the fury of an unbridled mob turned against the Jews, and in Lemberg, in the course of a pogrom which lasted three days (November 21-23, 1918), sixty-four people were murdered. Similar excesses were committed in many other places, the most atrocious being the shooting of thirty-five Jews who were peacefully assembled in a meeting, deliberating on a charitable action, in Pinsk, April 5, 1919, by the order of an officer in the regular Polish army. The governments of the United States and of Great Britain sent commissions, the former headed by Henry Morgenthau and the latter by Sir Stuart Samuel, to investigate the situation, and the sad facts were confirmed beyond any doubt, thus disposing of the claim of the Polish government that the victims were killed for an attempt to establish a Bolshevik rule. . . . The Treaty of Versailles, which established an independent Poland (June 28, 1919) contains a clause protecting the rights of the Jews and other minorities but it has so far remained a dead letter."—G. Deutsch, *History of the Jews, pp. 109-110.*—See also Poland: 1919 (June 28); 1919-1920: Status of Jews.

1920-1922.—Continued anti-Jewish agitation.—Pogroms.—Economic boycott.—"On Rosh ha-Shanah [Jewish New Year's Day], the 'Rosvoi' (Progress), an anti-Semitic organization, placarded Warsaw with posters, calling upon the population to commit excesses against the Jews. It also organized the anti-Semitic congress. It has sections all over Poland, and it is especially anxious to organize the Polish students. . . . Poland is perhaps the only country where there exists a boycott against trade with Jews. During the year the press reported that the boycott had spread to Eastern Galicia, and the 'Rosvoi' and its cohorts were agitating for the introduction of a boycott against Jews also in Posen. Furthermore, the Society of Polish Merchants, in a memorandum to the Government, requested that in trade with Russia Poles be given preference as against their Jewish compatriots, and the Warsaw stock exchange refused to admit a Jew to its directorate. The Central Jewish Merchants' Association and practically every political party appealed to the Government to take measures against the boycott, without avail. Economic anti-Semitism was especially intense in the medical profession. In Poland it was a phase of the general boycott. In Warsaw the physicians organized a society to advise Christians not to call Jewish physicians and non-Jewish physicians not to call Jewish physicians into consultation, and to warn the people not to buy in drug-stores owned by Jews. This organization also announced its intention to ask medical journals to decline articles by Jewish physicians, and medical schools to exclude Jewish students, or, if this is not possible, to restrict their number. The teaching profession also was not free from anti-Semitism. A conference of Polish teachers at Vilna decided that teachers of Polish nationality only may become members of their mutual aid organization."—*American Jewish Year Book, 1922-1923, p. 51, 55.*—During the summers of 1920 and 1921 Jewish travelers were attacked on the trains. And again, later in the summer, the soldiers returning from Silesia committed excesses against the Jews in the towns through which they passed.—See also Poland: 1919-1920: Status of Jews.

RUMANIA

1856-1902.—Status of Jews.—Evasion of article of Congress of Berlin to remove discriminating statutes.—Restrictions.—Emigration.—"When Rumania gained its autonomy in 1856, it not only denied to the Jews political rights but declared them to be foreigners. Frequent mob attacks and arbitrary treatment on the part of the courts and the officials made them practically outlaws. A hope for improvement seemed to loom up when in 1878 the Congress of Berlin embodied an article in the treaty which compelled the newly founded sovereign and autonomous states of Serbia, Bulgaria and Rumania to remove from their statute-books all laws discriminating against citizens on the ground of religious belief. They complied with this requirement, but Rumania availed itself of a ruse by which the law was practically rendered nugatory. By declaring the Jews to be foreigners, and naturalizing some Jews, it apparently complied with the law, while almost all the 250,000 Jews of the country remained in their former state of misery, en-

hanced by new regulations restricting their economic freedom."—G. Deutsch, *History of the Jews, p.* 110.—"During the last fifty years some 220 special laws have been enacted for the purpose of restricting and cramping their movements in every sphere of human activity. They are not allowed to own lands or even to till it as hired labourers. They have been expelled from the rural districts and driven into the towns, where most of the avenues to an honest living are closed to them. They are barred from the Civil Service and from medical, legal, and teaching schools and universities. . . . Jewish employees may not form more than a fourth of the workmen or staff in any factory applying for the Government benefits, without which industry in Rumania cannot flourish; and Jewish merchants who have to visit a rural district on business are placed under police supervision. But, though denied all rights of citizenship, the Jews must, nevertheless, discharge its duties. They must pay taxes—foreigners as they are declared to be—they must serve in the army, in which they cannot rise above the rank of a corporal. This policy of oppression, before the war, produced a constant stream of emigration: From 1899 to 1907 some 55,000 refugees left for the United States alone."—*Rumania and the Jews* (*New Statesman, Sept.* 20, 1919, *pp.* 610-611).—See also RUMANIA: 1881-1907.—The high tide of emigration was reached in 1902, when the American secretary of state, John Hay, fearing that economic troubles might arise from the sudden influx, addressed a note to the Powers signatory to the Treaty of Berlin.

1902.—Appeal of United States to signatories of Treaty of Berlin.—An abridgment of Secretary Hay's despatch, published at the time, renders its substance as follows:

"As long ago as in 1872 this country protested against the oppression of these Jews under Turkish rule. The Treaty of Berlin it was supposed would cure this wrong by the provisions of its forty-fourth article, which prescribed that 'in Roumania the difference of religious creeds and confessions shall not be alleged against any person as a ground for exclusion or incapacity in matters relating to the enjoyment of civil and political rights, admission to public employments, functions and honors, or the exercise of the various professions and industries in any locality whatsoever.' These prescriptions, however, have, in the lapse of time, been rendered nugatory as regards the native Jews of Roumania. Apart from the political disabilities of the Jews in that country, and their exclusion from the liberal professions, they are denied the inherent rights of man as a breadwinner in the ways of agriculture and trade. They are prohibited from owning land or from cultivating it as common laborers; they are debarred from residing in the rural districts, and many branches of petty trade and manual production are closed to them in the cities. They have become reduced to a state of wretched misery. The experience of the United States shows that the Jews possess in a high degree the qualities of good citizenhood. No class of immigrants is more welcome to our shores when coming equipped in mind and body, but when they come as outcasts, made doubly paupers by physical and mental oppression in their native land, their migration lacks the essential conditions which make alien immigration either acceptable or beneficial. Many of these Roumanian Jews are forced to quit their native country, and the United States is almost the only refuge left to them. They come hither unfitted by the conditions of their exile to take part in the new life of this land, and they are objects of charity for a long time. Therefore the right of remonstrance against the acts of the Roumanian Government is fairly established in favor of this Government. This Government cannot be a tacit party to what it regards as an international wrong. It is constrained to protest against the treatment to which the Jews of Roumania are subjected. The United States is not a signatory to the Treaty of Berlin, and cannot, therefore, appeal authoritatively to the stipulations of that treaty, but it does earnestly appeal to the principles consigned therein, because they are the principles of international law and eternal justice."

"England seconded the note, but the other powers did not respond. All subsequent efforts to bring moral suasion to bear upon the rulers of Rumania have proved equally futile."—*New Statesman, Sept.* 20, 1919, *p.* 611.

1916-1919.—Treatment of Jews during World War.—Bratianu decree.—Stipulation of Treaty of St. Germain.—"Since the beginning of the war the position of the Jews in Rumania has become even worse. Those who were living in the small towns and villages near the Austrian frontier were ruthlessly evacuated as potential spies and traitors. From the moment that Rumania entered the war the Jews fought with singular bravery . . . but the legend of Jewish cowardice was systematically and officially circulated. The Rumanian General Headquarters issued an Order (No. 4,164) on August 14th, 1917, that at the beginning of an attack all Jews must at once be sent to the front line. . . . Early in October, 1916, General Persan, Chief of the General Staff, issued an Order declaring all Jews to be spies. . . . As for the civilian population, the Jews, both in Rumania itself and afterwards in Bessarabia were subjected to a régime of unbridled cruelty as though they were the real enemy. Deportations, false imprisonments, plundering, requisitions, extortionate fines, forced labor, flogging—these were the commonest forms of oppression inflicted upon men and women, old and young, alike. . . . It is now maintained that all this is past, and that the Jews, by the Bratianu Decree of December, 1918, are able to enjoy all the rights of Rumanian citizenship. This contention is utterly fallacious. The Bratianu Decree has not emancipated the Jews; it simply declared that individual Jews of certain categories could apply for naturalisation; but the application is hedged about by such obnoxious formalities and impracticable conditions as to render it quite nugatory."—*Ibid., Sept.* 20, 1919, *p.* 611.—"After the World War Rumania received large territorial accessions. The [St. Germain] treaty signed December 10, 1919, imposed upon her the duty to recognize all Jews in the annexed territories, who did not claim foreign citizenship, as Rumanian citizens and to grant to them, as well as to those living in her former territory, full equality."—G. Deutsch, *History of the Jews, p.* 111.—See also RUMANIA: 1921.

RUSSIA

Origin of Jews.—"In by far the greater portion of the Russian Empire Jews are not native, and have never settled. One may say that, without exception, the Jews of the Empire are composed of the descendants of conquered populations. Eleven-twelfths of them became Russian subjects when the lands on which they lived passed from the sceptre of the King of Poland to that of

the Emperor of Russia. To the tolerant rule of the Polish Kings their ancestors fled in the Middle Ages, when the Ghettoes of Western Europe were laid waste, and their inhabitants tortured and murdered as a preliminary to the wars for the recovery of Jerusalem for Christendom. The quarter of a million Jews of Bessarabia came under the control of Russia as a consequence of successive annexations. The sixty or seventy thousand Jews of the Caucasus came under Russian rule when the territories in which they and their ancestors had lived for centuries were annexed from Turkey. The Jews of South Russia are believed to be descended, to a large extent, from the Chazars, a race of Tartar origin which embraced Judaism about the end of the seventh century, and from the pure Jews who settled in their neighborhood before the beginning of the Christian era. When the Kingdom of the Chazars was destroyed, many of the inhabitants migrated to the West and to the North. By some of these Jewish refugees the Russian Holy City of Kiev, 'the Mother of Russian Cities,' and during the past half century a centre of Jewish persecution, is said to have been founded. From this it will be seen that Jews were settled in their present centres centuries before the advent of the Russians, and, consequently, the history of the Jews in Russia dates practically from the conquest of Polish or Turkish lands."—A. M. Hyamson, *Anti-Semitism* (H. Sacher, ed., *Zionism and the Jewish future, pp.* 78-79).

1727-1890.—**Persecutions and restrictions.—The Pale.**—"The refugees from the Ukraine who had settled in Little Russia were expelled in 1727. No Jews from without were allowed to enter Russia upon any pretext. The few physicians and other professional men of the excluded race who did manage to remain in Russia were in continual jeopardy of insult and expulsion. Over and over again Russian statesmen who were anxious to develop the resources and trade possibilities of their backward and barbarous land, hinted at the advisability of bringing in some Jews. The Imperial will was resolutely opposed. . . . When the broad-minded Catherine II ascended the throne these efforts were renewed, but she too resisted them, and says in her Memoirs, 'their admission into Russia might have occasioned much injury to our small tradesmen.' She was too deeply bitten with the Voltairean philosophy of her time to have, or even asume, any religious fervour in the matter, but though in 1786 she issued a high-sounding edict 'respecting the protection of the rights of Jews in Russia,' the persecution on economic and social grounds continued unabated. By this time it will be seen the laws did, however, recognise the existence of Jews in Russia. The explanation is that the first partition of Poland and the annexation of the great Turkish territory lying between the Dnieper and the Dniester had brought into the empire such a vast Hebraic population that any thought of expulsion was hopeless. . . . The rape of Poland and the looting of Turkey had brought two millions of Jews under the sceptre of the Czar. The fact could not be blinked. They were there—inside the Holy Empire, whose boast for centuries had been that no circumcised dog could find rest for his foot on its sanctified territory. To an autocracy based so wholly on an orthodox religion as . . . that of the Czars, this seemed a most trying and perplexing problem. The solution they hit upon was to set aside one part of the empire as a sort of lazar house, which should serve to keep the rest of it from pollution. Hence we get the Pale. Almost every decade since 1786, the date of Catherine's ukase, has witnessed some alteration made in the dimensions and boundaries of this Pale. Now it has been expanded, now sharply contracted. . . . To trace these changes would be to unnecessarily burden ourselves with details. It is enough to keep in mind that the creation of the Pale was Russia's solution of the Jewish problem in 1786, and is still [written in 1892] the only one it can think of. Side by side with this naïve notion that Holy Russia could be kept an inviolate Christian land in the eyes of Heaven by juggling the map, there grew up the more worldly conception of turning the Jew to account as a kind of milch cow. . . . In 1819 Jewish brandy distillers were allowed to go into the interior and settle 'until,' as the ukase said, 'Russian master distillers shall have perfected themselves in the art of distilling.' They availed themselves of this permission in great numbers, and at the end of seven years were all summarily driven out again, a new ukase explaining that 'the number of Christian distillers was now sufficient.' . . . The past century's history of the Jews in Russia is made up of conflicts between these two impulses in the childlike Slavonic brain—the one to drive the heretic Jew into the Pale as into a kennel with kicks and stripes, the other guardedly to entice him out and manage to extract some service or profit from him. . . . In 1825 Nicholas ascended the throne. Within a year he had earned from the Jews that sinister title of 'The Second Haman,' by which Israel still recalls him. . . . With the death of Nicholas [1855] and the advent of Alexander II a new era dawned. Dr. Mackenzie Wallace has drawn a spirited and comprehensive picture of the literal stampede all Russia made to reform everything. . . . Almost the first thing the young Czar did was to revive a commission to inquire into the condition of the Jews, which Nicholas had decreed in 1840 and then allowed to lapse. This commission sent out a list of inquiries to all the Provincial Governors. These gentlemen returned voluminous reports, all, without exception, favourable to the Jews. . . . Upon the strength of these reports were issued the ukases of 1859, 1861, and 1865, . . . by which Jews of the first mercantile guild and Jewish artisans were allowed to reside all over the Empire. It is just as well to remember that even these beneficent concessions, which seem by contrast with what had gone before to mark such a vast forward step in Russo-Jewish history, were confessedly dictated by utilitarian considerations. The shackles were stricken only from the two categories of Jews whose freedom would bring profit to Russia. . . . Still, the quarter century following Alexander II's accession in 1855 fairly deserves its appellation of the 'golden age' when what preceded it is recalled."—H. Frederic, *New Exodus, ch.* 4-5.—"Until 1881 the lives and property of Jews had been respected. Their liberties were restricted, not obsolete. In that year all was changed. The Pale of Settlement, especially in the South, became a centre of riot. Crimes were charged against, and violence was offered to, those who had no means of retaliation; and whose only defence was passive endurance. The restlessness of the country, the low moral tone of the most ignorant and unreasonable peasantry in the world, commercial jealousy, and official intrigues were responsible for the outbreak. The Jews had thriven; that was a crime. As the Government had refused them the privileges of citizenship, they had no right to rise above their

neighbours. A rescript, for which General Ignatieff was responsible, took cognisance, not of the sufferings of the Jews, but of the condition of the Christians. Commissioners . . . were appointed, in all towns inhabited by Jews, to inquire (1) into the manner of mal-practices by which the presence of Jews became injurious to the Christian population; (2) into the best methods of preventing Jews from evading old restrictions; (3) what new laws were required to stop the pernicious conduct of Jews in business. The inquiry resulted in the May Laws of 1882. These laws, which were so severe that hesitation was felt in applying them throughout the Pale, were supposed to be of only temporary application. They were known as laws for the time, and only came into full operation in 1890. . . . The May Laws define the Jews' duties to the State. These consist[ed] of military service, and pecuniary contributions. In common with all Russians, Jews . . . [were] subject to the Law of Conscription. Unlike Christians, they may not provide a substitute. They may not follow any trade, or profession, until they have produced evidence of registration in the recruiting district. While subject to military service, Jews cannot rise higher than the rank of non-commissioned officer. . . . The Hebrew is ground between the upper and nether millstone. . . . In December 1890 Russians were forbidden to sell, lease, or mortgage real estate to Jews throughout the Empire, a measure hitherto applied only to Poland. Where Jews have acquired such property they will be compelled to dispose thereof. The Jewish artisans, apothecaries' assistants, dentists, and midwives, with all apprentices, are to be expelled from all places outside the Pale. Exceptions to this are obtainable only by special permission from the Minister of the Interior. Even then the children of such must be removed to the Pale as soon as they come of age, or marry an unprivileged Jew. This Pale of Settlement, which stretches along the frontier, from the Baltic to the Black Sea, is a hell of seething wretchedness. Here five millions of Jews are compelled to live, and die, in a Ghetto of filth and misery, mocked with a feast of Tantalus. Beyond are lands where corn rots for lack of ingatherers; yet they are cabined and confined. Inability to bribe a corrupt mass of administrators had led to the expulsion of poor Jews from villages within the Pale, into crowded towns, such as Tchernizo, where the population has consequently risen from 5,000 to 20,000. . . . In September [1890] the Jews were expelled from Trans-caspian territory; in October, Jews, not having the right to live in St. Petersburg, were ordered to be transferred, with their families, to their proper places of abode; in January the Jews were ordered to be expelled from the Terke region of the Caucasus; in February the Jews in Novgorod were expelled."—C. N. Barham, *Persecution of the Jews in Russia* (*Westminster Review, v.* 136, *pp.* 139-144).

"In the course of the nineteenth century every change of throne in Russia was accompanied by a change of policy. . . . The reigns of Alexander I. and Alexander II. marked a departure in the direction of liberalism; those of Nicholas I. and Alexander III. were a return to the ideas of reaction. . . . The reign of Nicholas II. proved the most gloomy and most reactionary of all. . . . The result of all these persecutions was the complete economic collapse of Russian Jewry. . . . For two decades the sledge hammer of Russian reaction had been descending with crushing force upon the vast community of the six million Russian Jews. Yet in the end it was found that the heavy hammer, to use the well-known simile of Pushkin, instead of shattering the national organism of Jewry, had only helped to steel it and to harden its indestructible spiritual self."—S. M. Dubnow, *History of the Jews in Russia and Poland, v.* 3, *pp.* 7, 22, 40.—See also Russia: 1909-1914.

Also in: *Persecution of the Jews in Russia: Issued by the Russo-Jewish Committee.*

1817-1913.—Ritual murder trials.—"It is a noteworthy and significant fact that in all of the 'ritual murder' cases that have been tried in Russia, the accused Jews have invariably been acquitted. . . . In three cases, since the reform of the law courts in 1864, they have been acquitted by juries, and there is not a single legal conviction on record, in ancient or modern times. The charge of ritual murder—that is, the killing of Russian or Polish children for the purpose of obtaining Christian blood to be used in ritual ceremonies—is not a new thing in Slavonic countries. It has been hotly debated there for centuries. . . . The accusation was first made in Poland. As early as 1540, the Jews were charged with killing fifty Christian children in the Polish Province of Lithuania; but a thorough investigation made by the Grand Duke himself showed that there was no evidence whatever of the killing of the fifty children much less of the killing of fifty Christian children by Jews. Seventy-four years later, in the same province, the charge was again made, the accused in this case, being a Jewish workman named Bernard Abramovitch, who was said to have murdered a Christian girl, in obedience to an order of his Jewish employer. . . . The Grand Duke thereupon investigated the case personally, and found that there was no evidence whatever of the Jew's guilt. . . . The first notorious case [in Russia] was that of certain Jews in the province of Grodno . . . who were accused, in 1817, of murdering, for ritual purposes, a Russian girl. . . . The accused were found to be innocent. . . . Five years later, the old superstition was again revived, in a case which closely resembled the one on trial in Kiev. . . . And now [1913] the 'blood libel,' which is nearly four centuries old in Russia, and nearly seventeen hundred years old in Europe, is being tried out again in the Chamber of Justice in Kiev. The [Beiliss case] however, differs in some respects from all that have preceded it. In previous trials, the Czar and his ministers have been non-partisan watchers of the proceedings, or, at the least, disinterested and unprejudiced arbiters. In the trial of Mendel Beiliss they have taken sides from the beginning, and not only have used all their power in support of the prosecution, but have resorted to criminal means of hampering and thwarting the defense."—G. Kennan, *Ritual murder myth in Russia* (*Independent, Nov.* 13, 1913, *pp.* 300-301).—"After two years of indescribable sufferings in fearful Russian prisons, where Beiliss was subjected to all kinds of degradations and insults . . . [he was] acquitted. . . . The Kieff trial was not a criminal trial in any sense of the word. It was a political prosecution staged by the All-Russian League of Nobles."—S. B. Rohold, *Christian and Jew* (*Missionary Review of the World, Apr.*, 1914, *pp.* 286-287.—See also Beiliss case; Russia: 1913.

1903.—Kishinev massacre. See Russia: 1903 (April).

1917.—Under revolutionary government.—Anti-Jewish laws repealed.—"The Russian Provisional Government issued a decree repealing absolutely all laws restricting the civil, political, and religious rights of the Jews. The text of

the decree, as published in *The New York Jewish Chronicle,* July 13, 1917, is as follows:

"All existing legal restrictions upon the rights of Russian citizens, in connection with this or that faith, religious teaching or nationality, are revoked In accordance with this:

" 'I. Repealed are all laws existing for Russia as a whole, as well as those of separate localities, embodying limitations concerning: 1. Selection of place of residence and change of residence or movement. 2. Acquiring rights of ownership and other material rights in all kinds of movable and immovable property, and likewise in the possession of, the use and the managing of all property, or receiving such for security. 3. Engaging in all kinds of trades, commerce and industry, not excepting mining; also equal participation in the bidding for Government contracts, deliveries and in public auctions. 4. Participation in joint stock and other commercial or industrial companies and partnerships, and also employment in these companies and partnerships in all kinds of positions, either by elections or by hiring. 5. Employment of servants, salesmen, foremen, laborers, and trade apprentices. 6. Entering the Government service, civil as well as military, and the grade or condition of such service; participation in the elections for the institutions of local self-Government, and all kinds of public institutions; serving in all kinds of positions of Government and public establishments, as well as the prosecution of the duties connected with such positions. 7. Admission to all kinds of institutions of learning, whether private, Government or public, and the pursuing of the courses of instructions of these institutions, and receiving scholarships. Also the pursuance of teaching and the other educational professions. 8. Performing the duties of guardians, trustees, or jurors. 9. The use of languages and dialects, other than Russian, in the proceedings of private societies, or in teaching in all kinds of private educational institutions, and in commercial bookkeeping.

"Paragraphs II, III, IV, V, VI, VII, and VIII proceed to enumerate and cite section by section, paragraph by paragraph each and every law that was in existence coming within the broad terms of the repeal enumerated. The enormous number of the citations and the minuteness of their character testify in themselves to the thoroughness in which the Jewish restrictions were carefully searched out, so as to leave not the slightest question as to the exact laws which were abolished. They also serve to bear out quite convincingly the statement which Baron Gunzburg made, that prominent Jewish lawyers were called into consultation by the Ministry of Justice in the searching for these laws and the drafting of the repealing laws."—*New York Times Current History, Aug.* 1917, *p.* 214.—"The Russian revolution is to the Russian Jew the herald of the dawn. One sign of this is seen in the fact that the Russian authorities have reopened the famous 'Ritual Murder Case' at Kishinef to do justice at last to the much persecuted Mendel Beiliss, who was accused of the murder of a Christian child. Mr. Weizmann [in the *London Zionist Review*] points out that the great majority of the Jewish people live within the confines of Russia, and that, under these new conditions, it is well for us to know something about them. He writes: 'To-day, Russian Jews may be divided roughly into three groups: (1) Assimilationists; (2) Nationalists; (3) Zionists. The Assimilationists are a small minority who have completely identified themselves with Russian life and have cut themselves adrift from all things Jewish. To this group belong—the two extremes of society—the *haute finance* and assimilated intellectuals, and, on the other side, the Social Democrats, who have bled and suffered imprisonment for the cause of Russian freedom.' . . . The Nationalists, who would preserve the Yiddish speech and ways, form the backbone of orthodox Jewry. . . . For Zionism a free Russia means full liberty for the public propagation of its ideals."—*Literary Digest, June* 23, 1917, *p.* 1919. —See also RUSSIA: 1917 (March-April): New Russian government.

1921.—Pogroms.—The wave of pogroms which swept through the governments of Homel, Witebsk and Minsk terminated with particular cruelty at Koitschitz, June 16, 1921. Eighty-seven Jews were killed and fifty wounded. Again on June 25, an attack was made on the Jews at Staravee in the district of Bobruisk which resulted in the death of twelve Jews, and eleven wounded. In the following month pogroms occurred in twelve towns in the same district, where the quota of killed amounted to fifty-eight and the wounded to thirteen. "As a result of the pogroms in sixty-two towns in the district of Bobrouisk, two hundred and fifty Jews were killed (ninety at the colony of Kovshitz, eighteen at Glubakowiz, twelve at Slowkowiz, twenty-five at Kiuban, eighteen at Ostonowiz); six hundred and fifty-six were wounded; nine hundred and six Jewish families were ruined (one hundred and twenty-eight families at Kovshitz, three hundred and fifty at Kiuban). The result of the atrocities in White Russia, as a whole, has been the complete destruction of the Jewish settlements in the small towns and villages; the Jewish population terrorized by robberies, butcheries, and rape, left their houses and fled to the cities, which became overcrowded with refugees."—*American Jewish Year Book,* 1922-1923, *pp.* 61-62.

ALSO IN: S. M. Dubnow, *History of the Jews in Russia and Poland, from earliest times until the present day* (tr. by I. Friedlander).

Ukraine. — Early settlement. — Massacres. — "The Jews settled in Ukraine at the end of the sixteenth century. The emigrants from Lithuania and Poland found here uncultivated land and sparsely populated villages. Gradually there grew up cities, castles and settlements. . . . Thanks to the Jewish spirit of enterprise there soon developed an extremely energetic commercial activity. The greatest variety of industries, the production of nitric acid and potash, fishing and hunting as well as the liquor business were in the hands of the Jews. Only a very small part of the Jews were rich. According to the investigations of Berschadski, the commercial and credit operations of the great majority of the Jews must be measured in dozens of rubles, and consisted merely in granting of small loans to the peasants, the poorer middle class and the Tartars. . . . The operations were carried on with the moneys which they themselves borrowed from the Christian clergy, nobility and poorer middle class. Often they borrowed this capital by pledging household articles. Is it true that the Jewish masses were guilty of abusing the Christian population? The Ukrainian historian, Ivan Franko, points out. . . . 'The unfair practices of the Jews, so far as there were such, are insignificant as compared with the abuses committed by the Polish government and the Polish military.' To be sure, the Cossack population did not investigate with any degree of care as to who was really responsible for their enslavement. When the Ukrainian population rose in rebellion, with Khmelnitzky at their head, and

freed themselves from the chains of political and economic enslavement, they swept away not only the lords, but also their agents, the Jews, who were their leaseholders and tenant farmers. The events of the years 1648-1658 . . . cost the Ukrainian Jews, according to . . . careful computations . . . 100,000 lives. Several hundred Jewish settlements were completely destroyed. One hundred years later, the Ukraine was again the scene of insurrections. . . . A terrible massacre of the Jews took place at Uman. There were also excesses against the Jews in Fastov, Granov, Zhivatov, Tulchin and Dashev. A hundred and fifty years had passed since then. The Ukrainian village became quiet again and found its equilibrium. It cost the Jews in Ukrainia much toil and labor to re-establish their economic existence. . . . Peaceful and neighborly relations developed between the Jew and the Ukrainian peasants, which suffered no change during the last four decades of Russian rule."—E. Heifetz, *Slaughter of Jews in the Ukraine in 1919, pp.* 3, 6-8.

"The terrible Jewish massacres in the Ukraine in the year 1919, which set the whole land aflame, can not be compared with the pogroms in the eighties and during the first decade of our century. . . . The tsarist regime endeavored to divert the attention of the socially and politically discontented masses in another direction, the direction of least resistance. This they did by inciting the ignorant and intimidated lower classes against the defenseless Jews, who, they alleged, were responsible for the misery of the people. The Jews were represented as exploiters of the people, as leeches, who sucked the blood of the peasant and robbed him of the fruits of his economic activity. Later when the elemental forces of the revolution burst forth and whipped the waves of passion into high fury, the Jews were depicted by the agents of tsarism before the lowest classes of the people as the 'leaders of unrest and rebellion, who were rising against the Fatherland and the "Little Father" (the tsar).' The Jewish pogroms coincide with the critical moments of the then regime and follow in scope and intensity a course parallel to that of the revolution. The pogroms of the eighties correspond to the revolutionary movement of the intelligentzia organized as 'Narodniki.' . . . Those in the beginning of our century, to the time of the first revolution (1903-1905), correspond to the great revolutionary strikes in the south of Russia. Finally, the third pogrom wave, which came right after the revolution (end of 1905 and 1906), corresponds to the outbreak of the first revolution itself. The aim of the pogroms in the eighties was mainly the destruction of Jewish possessions. There was robbery and plunder, down and feathers were scattered to the wind, furniture was broken to pieces, valuables and money were taken away. In many cases women were violated, men beaten, but 'with moderation,' not to death. The pogroms, however, in Kishinev (1903), Gomel (1903) and Zhitomir (April 1905), already began to assume a bloody course. Jews were murdered. After the revolution (1905 and 1906) the pogroms expanded both in space and in time, with about a thousand victims. The organizing activity of the lower and middle administrative officers was clearly visible, as was shown in the judicial investigations. The parliamentary commission of the first imperial Duma, the revelations of the former active minister of internal affairs, Prince Urussov, and of the former director of the police depatment, Lopuchin, confirmed what was generally known, that the threads of the entire pogrom propaganda were held together in the hands of the highest representatives of the State force, and all powerful minister of internal affairs and the director of the police. . . . The pogroms of the tsarist period took place almost exclusively in the South, in the Ukraine, and particularly in the Ukrainian cities. . . . Not so the massacres in the year 1919. Here the Ukrainian village played the main role. . . . The anti-Jewish sentiment came to the fore in the Ukrainian village at the time when the Soviet government took the helm. . . . The mere fact that besides the middleman there was also a Jewish representative of the state force called forth a feeling of hostility on the part of the Ukrainian peasant. The Jew whom he was accustomed to look down upon and treat with contempt, suddenly stood before him as the possessor of power, demanding respect. In addition, this same Jew appeared as the representative of a government foreign to the village and the object of its hatred. As a result the peasant became suspicious of the entire Jewish population, regarding all the Jews, . . . as members of the Soviet regime. . . . Under the influence of this force came the peasant avalanche, continually increasing in scope, moving faster and faster and burying under it tens of thousands of Ukrainian Jews. . . . From the beginning the Soviet government in the Ukraine carried on a decisive battle against the lust for pogroms, by preventive measures. The Grigoriev uprising opened the gates wide to the Ukrainian volunteer Army. The Ukrainian Red Army could not recover from the blow it received and was compelled to retire. . . . Denikin occupied gradually Kharkov, . . . and finally on the twentieth of September, Kiev. . . . Anti-Semitism was one of the fundamental elements of the Restoration rule, exactly as under the tsar. The pogroms perpetrated by the volunteer army took the following course. As soon as the voluntary army entered a city, one could find everywhere on the walls next to the official communications, proclamations against the Jews. . . . In Fastov the volunteers searched all the Jewish houses. The furniture was dragged out of the houses or destroyed; women were violated. All imaginable kinds of tortures and cruelties were perpetrated on the Jews. The number of dead amounts to from 1,500 to 1,800. More than 100 houses were burned down. The pogrom in Kiev was also terrible. On the 14th of October [1919] the city was again occupied by the Bolsheviki. Two days later they were driven out by the volunteers. Hardly had the city been cleared of the Bolshevist troops when an organized pogrom set in which lasted five days, from the 16th to the 20th of October. The plundering bands consisted for the most part of soldiers, who went from house to house and robbed, tortured, violated and murdered. . . . The number of killed is given at 500 to 600, the material loss is estimated in hundreds of millions of dollars. . . . The insane tragedy which we are considering from the historical and political standpoint in order to lay bare its roots and place the guilt, is so horrible that human speech is poor in words to describe the infinite despair and hopelessness and the various phases of human misery which the Jews in the Ukraine have suffered."—*Ibid., pp.* 1-3, 8-10, 94, 99, 104, 141.—The "American Jewish Year Book" for 1922-1923 reports that banditry in the Ukraine was virtually stamped out by 1922. The Ukrainian Central Committee succeeded in reducing the number of armed bandits from 40,000 to 7,000 at the beginning of 1920, and by the end of 1921 their numbers dwindled to 1,000 throughout the Ukraine.

SPAIN

Early history and settlements of Jews.—"Of all the countries of Europe none was so favorable to the Jews as Spain. There the highest products of Jewish industry, intellect and skill were in evidence; in wealth, honor, philosophy and poetry the days of the Jews in Spain still mark for them an epoch. On the other hand, in the reaction nowhere was the suffering so great as there. Jewish settlement in the Spanish peninsula was very ancient, made perhaps under the Phœnicians; certainly after the destruction of Jerusalem great numbers of Jews were sold into Spain, and Granada was so largely settled by them as to be called a Jewish state. Christianity also made early and great conquests there, and laws similar to those mentioned above were enacted to prevent holding of Christian slaves by Jews and proselyting by force."—*New Schaff-Herzog encyclopedia of religious knowledge, v.* 6, *p.* 57.

7th century.—General persecution.—In the seventh century, during the reign of the Eastern Roman emperor Heraclius (610-641) the Jews were subjected to a more general and bitter persecution than they had experienced before at the hands of the Christians. "It is said that about this time a prophecy was current, which declared that the Roman empire would be overthrown by a circumcised people. This report may have been spread by the Jews, in order to excite their own ardour, and assist their projects of rebellion; but the prophecy was saved from oblivion by the subsequent conquests of the Saracens. . . . The conduct of the Jews excited the bigotry, as it may have awakened the fears, of the imperial government, and both Phocas and Heraclius attempted to exterminate the Jewish religion, and if possible to put an end to the national existence. Heraclius not only practised every species of cruelty himself to effect this object within the bounds of his own dominions, but he even made the forced conversion or banishment of the Jews a prominent feature in his diplomacy." Thus Heraclius induced Sisebut, the Gothic king in Spain, and Dagobert, the Frank king, to join him in forcing baptism on the Jews, with the alternative of flight.—G. Finlay, *Greece under the Romans, ch.* 4, *sect.* 5.—"Urged by the request and incited by the example of Heraclius, Sisebuto [or Sisebut] issued an edict in the year 616, that, within a year, the Jews in Spain should either embrace Christianity, or should be shorn, scourged, and expelled from the kingdom, and their property confiscated. . . . Ninety thousand Jews made a nominal submission."—H. Coppée, *Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 3.

8th century.—Relations with Mohammedans.—"Under King Egica a conspiracy of Spanish and African Jews with the Arabs to overthrow the Gothic kingdom was discovered, but too late; Jews and Arabs made common cause, and the Mohammedan conqueror Tarik, brought the Gothic kingdom of Spain to an end in 711 A.D. The relation between Jews and Mohammedans was peculiar. Jews regarded Islam as a younger daughter of Judaism, as was Christianity, but they felt more closely related to Islam and never made common cause with Christians against Mohammedans. In Arabia they had made ineffective Constantine's efforts for the spread of Christianity. They had many important settlements there which were governed by Jewish princes, and they had a school of the law and possessed Talmudic learning. When Mohammed proclaimed his faith as that of Abraham, the Jews had faith in him and he called them 'helpers.' But differences arose, and Mohammed published parts of Suras against them in which he called them murderers of prophets and falsifiers of revelation. Then there came war with the Jewish tribe of the Banu-Kainaka, and one of the two Jewish women whom the prophet brought back tried to poison him. After his death the strife between Mohammedans and Jews continued. In Spain the Jews opened the gates of Toledo to Tarik and took bloody vengeance upon the Christians, while they received many favors from the conquerors. In this period occurred the founding of the sect of the Karaites by Anan ben David, who, in Babylon and Palestine, opposed the Talmudic learning and would have the Old Testament alone authoriative. He was the first Jew to compose a commentary on the Pentateuch."—*New Schaff-Herzog encyclopedia of religious knowledge, v.* 6, *p.* 57.

8th-15th centuries.—Under the Moors.—"Under the Moorish government in Spain the lot of this persecuted, tormented people was more tolerable than in any Christian country. . . . Under the Christian kings of the 12th and 13th centuries, they rose to still greater influence as financial advisers and treasurers, astronomers and physicians; in Toledo alone they numbered 12,000. . . . Their condition in Spain from the time of the Moorish supremacy to the end of the 13th century was upon the whole more favourable than in any other country of Europe. . . . The 14th century brought disaster to the Jews of the Peninsula and elsewhere. . . . They were detested by the people; first in one town and then in another they were attacked and murdered, and their synagogues were burned down; and at length, in 1391, the storm broke upon them in all its fury, and raged through the length and breadth of Spain. . . . Many thousands were slain; whilst 200,000 saved themselves by receiving baptism, but it was discovered in a few years that 17,000 had lapsed into Judaism. A century later, in 1492, a royal edict commanded all Jews to quit the country, leaving their goods behind them. As the Inquisition at the same time forbade the sale of victuals to the Jews, the majority . . . were compelled to submit to baptism. Of those who withdrew into exile—the numbers are variously reckoned from 170,000 to 400,000—the greater part perished from pestilence, starvation, or shipwreck. The descendants of those who survived, the Sephardim, found refuge in Italy, and under Turkish rule in the East, and, for a short space, even in Portugal. . . . In Portugal the Jews fared even worse than their brethren in Spain. . . . The Inquisition was . . . introduced as the approved means for handing over to the exchequer the wealth of the new Christians."—J. J. I. von Döllinger, *Jews in Europe* (*Studies in European history, ch.* 9).—See also INQUISITION: 1203-1525.

ALSO IN: H. C. Lea, *Chapters from the religious history of Spain, pp.* 437-468.—W. H. Prescott, *History of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, v.* 2, *pt.* 1, *ch.* 17.

1498-1917.—Expulsion.—Restrictions.—Repeal of expulsion.—Freedom of public worship.—"When Manuel, King of Portugal, married the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, it was stipulated in the marriage contract that the Jews should be expelled from that country also. This expulsion took place in 1498. Most of the exiles went to Turkey, where they were kindly received. Others went to the Barbary States in Northern Africa, and especially to Morocco. A number went to Italy and settled in the various cities, even in the Papal possessions. Still there were a great

many Marranos left in Spain, and while they were compelled to profess and practice the Catholic religion, they remained Jews for many generations. Hence up to the end of the eighteenth century, there were always autos-da-fé held at which Jews were publicly burned. From time to time the wealthy Marranos would escape and seek refuge in countries where they were permitted to publicly practice their religion. The expulsion was not repealed until the constitution of July 2, 1876, proclaimed freedom of conscience. This, however, did not include freedom of public worship, which was granted by a law issued June 11, 1910. Since that time two Jewish congregations have been organized in Seville (1914) and Madrid (1917). The University of Madrid established, in 1915, a chair for Hebrew literature, filled by A. S. Yahuda, a native of Palestine."—G. Deutsch, *History of the Jews, pp.* 67-68.

UNITED STATES

17th-18th centuries.—In the colonies.—"The history of the Jews is linked with the history of America from its very discovery, for Jews were instrumental in obtaining funds for the first and second voyages of Columbus, and several persons of Jewish blood accompanied him on the first voyage. Jewish immigration to America began immediately with its settlement, but for nearly a century and a half was confined to Central and South America and the West Indies. In Maryland, shortly after the establishment of the provincial government there, scattered Jews seemed to have made their appearance, but a community was not formed until much later. The two oldest Jewish communities in what became the United States were those at New York and Newport. . . . Under British rule, the Jews in New Netherlands came to enjoy almost equal rights with the other inhabitants, despite the antipathy that existed toward Jew and Catholic. . . . The community at Newport, the most worthy and dignified in colonial times, . . . owes its origin to the unfriendly attitude of Stuyvesant towards the Jewish arrivals in New Amsterdam. Some of them sought the kindlier atmosphere of Rhode Island (1655), where Roger Williams exerted his influence for absolute freedom of conscience. [See also RHODE ISLAND: 1647-1776.] Fifteen more Jewish families arrived three years later. The community prospered, and soon established commercial relations with New York. It attracted immigrants from Curaçao (1690), from Spain, Portugal, and the West Indies (1750-1755). A congregation, Yeshuath Israel, was organized as early as 1658, and a burial place, forming a part of the present famous cemetery, was purchased in 1677, but the synagogue was not built until nearly a century later (1763). . . . The Jewish population of the United States owes its origin to several waves of immigration more or less distinct. The first Jewish settlers were Sephardim, some of whom came directly from Portugal, some indirectly after residence in either Holland, England, Brazil, the Dutch colonies in South America, or the French colonies in the West Indies. . . . The petty persecutions to which Jews were subjected in Germany after 1730 resulted in the emigration of a large number to America, chiefly to Georgia, New York, and, above all, Pennsylvania. The first Polish Jews came to America in consequence of the unhappy state of affairs prevailing after the first partition of Poland (1772)."—*American Jewish Year Book*, 1902-1903, *pp.* 63-64, 73.—Before the Revolutionary War there were two hundred Jewish families in Newport. But with that event the community lost in numbers and importance. Elsewhere in New England there was no Jewish communal life until the nineteenth century, only a small number of Jews settling here and there before 1800. . . . Grouping the colonies according to the time of their settlement by Jews, New Netherlands, Rhode Island, and Maryland belong to the first class; Pennsylvania, Georgia, and South Carolina to the next. Soon after their arrival in New Amsterdam, Jews from that town began to trade along the Delaware, and ten years after the foundation of Pennsylvania as a colony (1682), New Amsterdam Jews established themselves there. However, the greater number of settlers in Pennsylvania were not Portuguese Jews, as in New York and Newport, but German Jews. These penetrated into the interior of the State, the earliest settlements probably being at Schaefersville and Lancaster, whence it is likely that they spread to the northern counties of Maryland. . . . One of the causes of the commercial prosperity of the Jews was the intercourse that existed between the Jews of the different colonies and other trading cities in the New and Old Worlds. Most of the prominent Jews actively ranged themselves on the side of the colonies in their struggle for independence."—*Ibid., pp.* 66, 69.

17th-18th centuries.—Suffrage disqualification laws. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776.

19th century.—Increase of Jews in America.—Freedom and development.—"America, after the Revolutionary War, held out alluring prospects of liberty to the harassed Polish Jew, and after 1783 a fresh stream of immigration was started. From that time on there was a steady flow of Jews to America from Germany, principally between Bavaria and the Rhine provinces. It was greatest between 1848 and 1850. By 1870 it ceased to be an important factor. The most marked immigration was the Russian-Jewish. In 1882 Russia passed proscriptive laws against the Jews more stringent than any to which the Jew had ever been subjected. A small number sought refuge elsewhere, but the great bulk came to the United States. The addition of this vast number has made the Jewish population of the United States third in the world, being exceeded only by that of Russia and of Austria. The proscriptive law . . . issued by Roumania . . . started a migration from that country. . . . The Jews have kept pace with the rapid progress of civilization in America. They have not only established their own religious, educational, and philanthropic institutions, but many of them have identified their interests with those of the people among whom they live, and have distinguished themselves in all the walks of life. Religious instruction was given in connection with the synagogue from the earliest period. The first step toward the formation of a Jewish college was the foundation of the Hebrew Education Society in Philadelphia in 1848, from which grew the Maimonides College (1867). . . . Until the endowment of the Jewish Theological Seminary in 1901, the largest fund in the United States provided for higher Jewish education was that given by Hyman Gratz in trust to the Mickvé Israel Congregation of Philadelphia. It is used to support the Gratz College, an institution for Jewish teachers. Through the influence of Isaac M. Wise, the Union of American Hebrew Congregations founded in Cincinnati (1875) the Hebrew Union College for the training of rabbis. . . . There is a Jewish Publication Society (founded

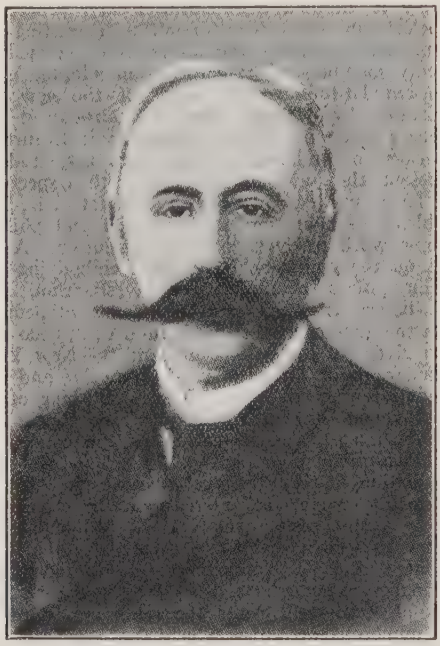
1888), the third of its kind, an American Jewish Historical Society (1892), the Jewish Chautauqua for the popularizing of Jewish education, and the Council of Jewish Women, whose Sections ramify the United States. A number of independent orders have been established among the Jews, with benefit and endowment features. Nearly every city, large or small, has its philanthropic association and social club. Zionism in America is represented chiefly by the Federation of American Zionists with headquarters in New York. There are now seventy-two Jewish periodicals in the United States. A serious attempt has been made to aid in the solution of the Russian-Jewish problem by the establishment of agricultural colonies. After a number of failures in Louisiana, South Dakota, Michigan, and elsewhere, success was attained in Connecticut and New Jersey. In Connecticut the colonists have been aided to a great extent by the Baron de Hirsch Fund; means for the establishment and maintenance of the New Jersey colonies have been derived from a number of sources—the Baron de Hirsch Fund, the Mansion House Fund of London, the New York Hebrew Emigrant Fund, the Alliance Land Trust, and the *Alliance Israélite Universelle*. The colonists live in prosperous villages with synagogues and school houses, and are engaged in industries as well as in agricultural pursuits. The Jewish Agriculturists' Aid Society was organized for the purpose of lending money to Jewish individuals desiring to buy and cultivate farms. It has done excellent work in the West."—*American Jewish Year Book*, 1902-1903, *pp.* 74-76.—See also IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1870-1910.

1902-1917.—**Work of Young Women's Hebrew Association.** See Y. W. H. A.

1908-1918.—**Development of the Kehillah.**—"The Kehillah idea—that is, organized Jewish life with a Jewish community as its basis—is deeply rooted in Jewish tradition and in Jewish experience. During the many centuries of national disintegration, the result of persecution and dispersion, the Jews still managed to maintain their community life—the last vestige of autonomous existence. . . . But while the primary functions of the traditional Kehillah were of a religious nature, it also took upon itself to care for many of the social and economic, as well as the political, needs of the Jewish group. Charity—or more properly 'Justice' (Zdokoh)—was one of its main tasks; and whenever the peace of the community or of any of its members was threatened by the powers that be, it devolved upon the leaders of the Kehillah to avert the blow or, at least, to mitigate its severity. And so, in the course of centuries, the Kehillah became the stronghold of the individual Jew, and 'Kahal' came to be looked upon by the non-Jewish world as the authoritative representative of Jewish interests. . . . For a long time it looked as if American Jewry—and particularly in its greatest point of concentration, in the City of New York—would break with the old tradition and be content to remain a conglomeration of isolated, small congregations. . . . Beginning with the mass immigration of Eastern European Jews, one generation ago, the problem of organizing the Jewish community in New York City became more acute from year to year. But the formative forces making for such an organization were continually gaining strength, and it required only some external impetus to bring these forces into play and to precipitate the formation of a Kehillah or Jewish Community in this city. This external impetus was supplied by the Bingham incident, in the fall of the year 1908. General Bingham, who was then the Police Commissioner of New York, made a statement that the Jews contributed 50% of the criminals of New York City. This statement was afterwards retracted as the result of many meetings held by Jewish organizations, which protested vehemently against this unfounded accusation. While probably undue importance was attached to this incident at the time, it is certain that it sufficed to arouse community consciousness to a degree where the organization of the Kehillah became feasible. The preliminary steps leading to the organization of the Kehillah were taken during the fall and winter of 1908-1909. The conference held at Clinton on October 11 and 12, 1908, decided that an attempt be made to form a central organization of the Jews of New York City. . . . The Constituent Convention held sessions on February 27, 28; March 6, 27 and April 10. Ultimately it adopted a constitution and proceeded to elect an executive committee consisting of twenty-five members and an advisory council of seventy members. The constitution adopted gave sufficient latitude to the work of the new organization by declaring that the purpose of the Jewish Community of New York City is 'to further the cause of Judaism in New York City and to represent the Jews of this city with respect to all local matters of Jewish interest.' . . . The problems of education and of social and philanthropic work received particular attention. A report on the educational situation, embodying the findings of a comprehensive investigation, was laid before the first convention, simultaneously with the announcement that a fund of $75,000 had been given by Jacob H. Schiff and the New York Foundation for the purpose of promoting and improving Jewish education. The establishing of an Employment Bureau for handicapped Jews was recommended. The regulation of the collections for Palestinian poor, known as 'Chalukah,' the repudiation of 'White Slave' charges made by an unfriendly magazine, intercession in behalf of Jewish employees in the various Municipal departments who wished to be excused for the High Holidays, and the conducting of four model provisional synagogues for the New Year and the Day of Atonement, were the more important of the numerous activities which engrossed the attention of the Kehillah during its first year of existence. . . . A careful survey of the field disclosed the imminent necessity of creating several new communal agencies, simultaneously with the coördination of those already existing. The Kehillah then set to work with unparalleled determination and perseverance, and the next seven years saw the birth of several of the most important communal instruments. In 1910, the Bureau of Education was organized, for the purpose of standardizing the methods of Jewish education. This Bureau was also to find ways and means of providing Jewish training for all the Jewish children of school age in this city. . . . The Employment Bureau for the Handicapped began its activities in November, 1911, and has since helped to find employment for thousands of Jews suffering from disabilities of many sorts. . . . The leaders of the Kehillah were frequently called upon to settle labor disputes, where both sides were Jews. The record of the organization abounds with many successful arbitrations of big strikes. This gave rise to the idea that the Kehillah ought to establish permanent machinery looking to the adjustment of all industrial disputes in the Jewish community. This

idea was realized in 1914, when the Bureau of Industry was established. . . . The suppression of improper moral conditions, so far as they affect the Jews in this city, was undertaken by the Welfare Committee of the Kehillah as early as 1912. . . . An attempt to supply the dire want of scientifically trained communal workers was made through the establishment of the School for Communal Work, while the Bureau of Philanthropic Research—having as its aim, the scientific study of the charity problem of New York Jewry, from a communal point of view—was organized by the Council of Jewish Communal Institutions in conjunction with the Kehillah."—H. Sackler, *Brief history of the Kehillah of New York City* (*Jewish Communal Register,* 1917-1918).

1921-1922. — Anti-Semitic agitation. — Senate resolution in favor of Jewish home in Palestine. —The United States, too, shared in the anti-Semitic



BARON MAURICE DE HIRSCH

agitation that swept through Europe after the World War. Anti-Jewish articles appeared in the *Dearborn Independent,* published by Henry Ford, but were discontinued after *The Times* (London) had broken down the agitation in England in August, 1921. He did not, however, refrain from distributing reprints of the articles which had appeared. On May 4, 1922, the Senate of the United States passed a resolution in favor of the restoration of Palestine as a Jewish homeland, the text of which is as follows: "That the United States of America favors the establishment in Palestine of the National Home for the Jewish people, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of non-Jewish communities in Palestine, and that the holy places and religious buildings and sites in Palestine shall be adequately protected."

Also in: H. A. Gibbons, *Jewish problem: Its relation to American ideals and interests* (*Century, Sept.,* 1921).—B. J. Hendrick, *Jews in America* (*World's Work, Dec.,* 1922).

ZIONISM

Definition.—Early history.—Failure of early colonies in Palestine.—Founding of Zionist organization.—Activities.—"Zionism is a word for a very old object, in so far as it merely expresses the yearning of the Jewish people for Zion. Since the destruction of the second temple by Titus, since the dispersion of the Jewish nation in all countries, this people has not ceased to long intensely, and hope fervently, for the return to the lost land of their fathers. This yearning for, and hope in, Zion on the part of the Jews was the concrete, I might say, the geographical, aspect of their Messianic faith, which in its turn forms an essential part of their religion. Messianism and Zionism were really, for nearly two thousand years, identical conceptions. . . . The Jews had no other idea than that they were a people which as a punishment for its sins had lost the land of its forefathers, which was condemned to live as strangers in strange lands, and whose great sufferings would first cease when it was again assembled on the consecrated soil of the Holy Land. This gradually changed about the middle of the eighteenth century, when enlightenment first began to find its way into Jewdom, in the person of its herald, Moses Mendelssohn, the popular philosopher. . . . The new Zionism has grown in part only out of the internal impulsions of Judaism itself, out of the enthusiasm of modern educated Jews for their history and martyrology, out of the awakened consciousness of their racial qualities, out of their ambition to save the ancient blood, in view of the farthest possible future, and to add to the achievements of their forefathers the achievements of their posterity. On the other hand, Zionism is the effect of two impulses which came from without,—first the principle of nationality, which for half a century ruled thought and feeling in Europe, and governed the politics of the world; secondly, Anti-Semitism, from which the Jews of all countries have more or less to suffer."—M. Nordau, *Zionism, pp.* 10-12, 17.—"In the seventies of last century a movement began to encourage Galician and Russian Jews to settle as farmers in Palestine. As early as 1870 the colonies of Rishon le Sion and Mikwe Israel had been founded, followed soon after by four others. The money for the purchase of land and the erection of houses was supplied by Baron Hirsch, Baron Edmund Rothschild, and the Paris Society, the Alliance Israélite Universelle. The cottages were built in picturesque rows, with space in front for gardens, while along the roads trees were planted. Vineyards were also provided for the settlers, agricultural implements were supplied them as well as furniture and even clothing. In order to make the agricultural work easier for the colonists the Alliance Israélite established an agricultural school at Mikwe Israel, while Baron Rothschild had built at Rishon le Sion enormous wine cellars fitted out in the manner of the best cellars of France. But not much success attended the efforts of these colonies. The colonists complained that they were oppressed by the officials of Hirsch and Rothschild, left their clean and healthy cottages, and removed to dirty and evil-smelling holes in Jerusalem, Tiberias and Hebron. The great settlement of Rishon le Sion was still, in the nineties of last century, unable to pay its way. The English Colonial Association 'Ica' effectively supported the Jews, but even it had no success. The Turkish Government permitted the Jews to immigrate into Palestine only on the condition that they settled in the country districts as farmers. Not desiring to return, the Jews on arriving at

Jaffa signed papers describing themselves as farmers and colonists, and betook themselves from Jaffa direct to some colony. But they did not remain there long. At the end of six months one after the other vanished, and by the end of the year their places were taken by others. Those who remained troubled little about their fields. In the nineties the idealist Jews in Europe began to strive after an intellectual regeneration of their fellow believers, and they founded at a congress held at Basle in 1897, the Zionist Organisation. Its object was the establishment of an autonomous home for the Jewish nation in Palestine. But it was clear that no Jewish home was possible until the Jews returned to Judaism, and so the Zionists desire to look after their fellow believers throughout the world, to wake in them self-consciousness, and to bring about a re-birth of Jewish nationality. The first President of the Zionists, the enthusiastic Herzl, attempted to establish and secure the future of the Palestine communities in a material sense. He it was who caused the Jewish Colonial Trust, Ltd., the Anglo-Palestine Company, the Anglo-Levantine Bank, and the Aid Society of German Jews in Berlin, to be established. In Palestine a special office for Palestine was set up, which is represented by the executive committee of the Zionist Organisation. The chief task of all Zionists from the year 1897 to 1908 was the raising of a National Jewish Fund. Not until after 1908 when the Young Turks, among whom the Jews had many friends, came to power at Constantinople, did the Zionists begin to put their great idea into practice. They purchased land on a large scale in Palestine; they are even said to have negotiated with the Young Turks for the purchase of all properties belonging to the Sultan, 'aradi senijje.' The Government was willing to sell these extensive properties, but the natives in Palestine and Syria unanimously opposed it, and so the proposed sale did not come off. Upon this the Zionists offered the Young Turks many millions for the lease of these lands for 90 years, but the European War frustrated this plan too. The Zionists own to-day [1920] some 9 per cent. of all the agricultural land of Palestine. Most of it lies in the coastal plains of Shefele and Sharon and in the Vale of Jezreel. In Palestine itself, that is in the regions occupied formerly by real Jews, the Jews have as yet bought but little."—A. Musil, *Jew and Arab in Palestine* (*New Europe, May* 27, 1920).

1897-1918.—General organization of movement. — Congresses. — Conferences. — Affiliated institutions.—"The Zionist Congress is the supreme authority in the Movement. Until the fifth Congress, Congresses were held annually, but since the sixth Congress they have been held biennially. . . . The Congress consists of delegates representing the shekel payers throughout the world, who assemble for the purpose of international discussion of the Jewish question and decisions concerning the world-wide Zionist Organization. The Congress, as the controlling body of the movement, interprets the programme of Zionism, settles the details of organization, elects the executive and examines the financial affairs of the movement. The officials and committee of the movement are responsible to the Congress. The Zionist banking institution, the Jewish Colonial Trust in London, is also controlled by the Congress, as only members of the Actions Committee can become members of the Council of the Trust. A deciding voice in the control of the Jewish National Fund is secured to the Congress, as only members of the Council of the Jewish Colonial Trust can become members of the Jewish National Fund. . . . Only shekel payers (paying a sum of one shilling or a corresponding sum in foreign coinage) have the right to elect delegates to a Congress. The payment of that sum by a person who accepts the principles of Zionism as adopted by the first Congress entitles him or her to membership of the International Zionist Organization. The Executive power of the movement is vested in the Greater Actions Committee, consisting of twenty-five members, and in a Smaller Actions Commitee, consisting of six members. . . . The Greater Actions Committee is the executive body of the Congress according to its constitution, but it is only convened to decide on important questions. It meets several times in the year, and must meet not less than once a year. Only the Greater Actions Committee is competent to consider and decide questions relating to the Zionist organizations in the various countries. The Committee has also the right to inquire into and examine the work of the Smaller Actions Committee. The Smaller Actions Committee is the superior Executive of the whole Zionist Organization, and is entrusted with the management of all branches of the Zionist movement and activities all over the world."—N. Sokolow, *History of Zionism, v.* 2, *pp.* 358-360.

The first Zionist congress was held August 29, 1897, at Basle, Switzerland, "and disclosed for the first time what its aims and its needs were. . . . 'Zionism has for its object the creation of a home, secured by public rights, for those Jews who either cannot or will not be assimilated in the country of their adoption.' . . . What the Jews desire is not to acquire more tracts of land, but a country for the Jewish people, and to emphasise that desire in terms as plain as possible without wounding certain legitimate and sovereign susceptibilities. We can acquire land any day in our private right everywhere. But that is not the point with Zionists. In our case we have nothing to do with private rights. That will come later—as well as the land speculators—once our movement has achieved success. What the Zionists are alone directing their attention to is the 'public rights' idea. In that they hope to find a remedy for the old evil. Were I to express myself paradoxically, I should say that a country belonging to the Jews on the basis of public rights, even though down to the very last parcel it was the legally secured property of non-Jews, would mean the final solution of the Jewish question. . . . We have held a gathering at Basle before the whole world, and there we saw the national consciousness and the popular will break forth, at times like a convulsive upheaval. To Basle came Jews of all countries, of all tongues, of all parties, and of all forms of religious confession. There were more than 200 representatives of the Jewish people—most of them delegates for hundreds and thousands."—T. Herzl, *Zionist congress* (*Contemporary Review, Oct.*, 1897).—"The programme of the Philo-Zionists as defined in their printed constitution is as follows:—(a) To foster the national idea in Israel. (b) To promote the colonization of Palestine and neighbouring territories by Jews, by establishing new colonies and assisting those already established. (c) To diffuse the knowledge of Hebrew as a living language. (d) To further the moral, intellectual, and material status of Israel."—H. Bentwich, *Philo-Zionists and Anti-Semites* (*Nineteenth Century, Oct.*, 1897).—"At the beginning of March, 1898, an important Conference was held in London, attended by delegates from nearly 50 societies, representing 10,000 English Zionists, and resolutions were passed adopting

the International programme, and making provisions for a federation of all the English Zionist bodies. Similar conferences were held in New York, in Berlin, in Galatz (Roumania), and other great centres; and local federations were everywhere formed to give greater strength and solidity to the general organization. At the second International Congress, which was held at Basle in August, 1898, and was attended by an imposing body of more than 500 delegates, the Executive Committee were able to report that the 'Basle programme' had received the support of 913 Zionist organizations (out of which over 700 had sprung up since the first Congress), it being calculated that these represented at least a quarter of a million of active members. The Congress had become the authorised representative and exponent of the people's wishes, and the Zionists had become a power to be reckoned with in any settlement of the Jewish question. Prominent among the attendants at this world gathering were the Rabbis—crown officials from orthodox Russia and Poland, as well as the elect of reform congregations from America—who took an active interest in the settlement of the programme of work for the ensuing year, which was the main business of the meeting."—H. Bentwich, *Progress of Zionism* (*Fortnightly Review, Dec.*, 1898).—Most of the subsequent Congresses were held at the same place [Basle] . . . the third in August, 1899; the fifth in December, 1901; the sixth in August, 1903; the seventh in August, 1905, and the tenth in September, 1911. The fourth Congress was held in London in August, 1900; the eighth took place at the Hague in August, 1907; the ninth at Hamburg in December, 1909, and the eleventh at Vienna in August, 1913. . . . [Besides the congresses the Zionists hold annual conferences.] The name of this institution [the Annual conference] is somewhat misleading, as the conference called Annual Conference is really a biennial conference held in those years in which a Zionist Congress does not take place. The holding of such conferences was decided upon by the fifth Congress. This conference is in reality an extended meeting of the Greater Actions Committee, and is attended not only by all members of that Committee, but also by the president and vice-presidents of the last Congress, the presidents of the permanent commissions, the presidents of the federations and amalgamated organizations of the various countries, the directors of the banking institutions, the members of the Congress tribunal, the legal adviser of the Congress and the auditors. The conference is somewhat limited in the scope of its activities, as it may only examine the accounts of the organization, accept resolutions, and draw up a programme of activity for the next period of administration. The conference has no right to carry out elections of committees or officials or to alter or modify the Zionist programme.

"The name 'Federation,' as far as the Zionist movement is concerned, is frequently synonymous with the amalgamated organizations in any particular country. But, on the other hand, it sometimes designates an organization consisting of a number of societies and groups which have federated, for the purpose of propagating Zionism on certain defined lines. The Smaller Actions Committee is authorized to grant recognition to a federation in any country, providing such a body comprises not less than 3000 shekel payers and satisfies them as to such other requirements as the Smaller Actions Committee may impose upon it. . . . The Palestine Society is an association of Jews who desire the establishment in Palestine of a centre of Jewish life, which shall offer a full opportunity for the free development of the Jewish religion, Jewish ideals and Jewish culture. It is not formally associated with the Zionist Organization. . . . The *Poale Zion* was established in 1901. It originated in Russia, and has now adherents in America, Palestine, Austria, Russia and the United Kingdom. At the time of the Zionist Congress at the Hague in 1907 an International Conference of the *Poale Zion* was held, which led to the establishment of the General Union of the *Poale Zion* Societies in America, Russia, Austria, Palestine, England, etc., on federal lines. The programme of the organization represents a synthesis of Zionism and Socialism on the basis of the Basle programme. . . . The *Mizrachi* (a composite word derived from *'Merchaz Ruch'ni,'* which means Intellectual Centre) is an organization of religiously orthodox Zionists."—N. Sokolow, *History of Zionism, v. 2, pp.* 358, 360, 362, 367.

20th century.—Movement in British empire, United States, Germany, Holland, France and Russia.—Financial organization.—"In England Zionist propaganda was very much hampered for want of an influential and well-supported Hebrew press and literature—which, after all, form the most powerful factor in the national propaganda, and an intellectual weapon in the struggle, the more so because through them can be maintained a direct closer touch and personal relations with Palestine. These two factors have made Zionism in Eastern Europe something more than a formal organization governed by certain statutes; it has now become a living force. Zionist propaganda there has also suffered from want of extensive university groups that have brought a great educational force into the Movement in continental countries. In England, where class divisions are so pronounced, in ideas, language and customs, and where the pressure of the Jewish problem from outside is not felt, the difficulties in the way of Zionist propaganda were naturally much greater. Besides these difficulties, there was another fact that did not fail to influence the position. The centralization of the financial institutions and the greater facility for political organization were no doubt of considerable advantage, as they afforded English Zionism in this respect means of propaganda not accessible to the Movement in other countries. But there was also an important drawback, namely, the Movement has been concentrated on these two appeals. The consequences of such a development manifested themselves in two directions: in the influence upon the Organization, and in the effect on non-members of the Organization. As for the internal influences, although the general Zionist work might have appeared here as elsewhere to be of the greatest importance, nevertheless it must be admitted that the financial institutions necessarily absorbed more energy, and carried more weight, while observers from outside were faced more directly than in any other country with this particular aspect of the Zionist Organization. In Eastern Europe, the public outside of Zionism was also made aware of the existence of a political scheme and financial matters; but what they realized most immediately and forcibly was above all an intellectual activity, a new system of education, a new attitude towards all questions of the day and a new and close relationship with Palestine. . . . Zionism in England was in its essentials not in the least different from what it is in Russia or anywhere else. . . . Zionism in England was propagated and furthered by a great number of able workers. Among those who took a leading part in the work in England

since the earliest period may be found: the Haham Dr. Moses Gaster, Joseph Cowen, Herbert Bentwich, the late S. B. Rubenstein, . . . and others. Somewhat later—not exactly in the literal sense—the older leaders were joined by new workers of influence and eminent ability. The most notable are: Dr. Ch. Weizmann, . . . Norman Bentwich, Albert M. Hyamson and others. . . . Israel Zangwill may be described as one of the most distinguished propagandists of the Zionist idea during the period 1899 until 1906, when he founded the Territorialist Organization. To this brilliant writer and orator belongs the credit of having contributed greatly towards making Zionism popular in England. . . . The beginning of a University movement and the literary activity in connection with Zionism are, undoubtedly, remarkable features of Zionist development in England in recent years. . . . In South Africa Zionism is powerful and important. . . . They have a well-organized Zionist Federation. . . . They also have their own Zionist Press, always send delegates to the Zionist Congresses and maintain a strong and successful propaganda in their country. The enthusiasm manifested by the masses is as great as the . . . generosity with which they support all Zionist institutions in and outside of Palestine. . . . In Canada the Zionist movement began in 1898 and immediately met with great success. Zionists propagated their principles at mass meetings and soon attracted enthusiastic workers for their cause, and by their help they were enabled to form organizations in Montreal, Toronto, Winnipeg, Hamilton, London, Kingston (Ontario), Ottawa, and on the Pacific Coast. . . . There are also some Zionist groups as well as individual supporters in New Zealand, in Australia and in all other parts of the British Empire. In Egypt Zionism has recently made considerable progress. . . . The United States of America, with its three million Jews, of whom by far the greater number have migrated there from Russia during the past two generations, has naturally become an important centre of Zionism. It is impossible to give, in a brief outline, a proper conception of the greatness and importance of Zionist activities in America. . . . The present Zionist movement in America, as compared with the earlier one, is of course much stronger and healthier, but it is interesting to observe that the movement in America is not one that sprang up only recently. During the present war American Zionism has come providentially to the succour of Palestine with an enthusiasm and a generosity unequalled in history, and it is undoubtedly qualified and destined to play a prominent part in the Zionist solution of the Palestinian problem. The geographical position of Germany—its proximity to Russia and Austria—the numerical strength of its Jewish population, and their long tradition of Jewish learning and Jewish activity, have combined to make that country favourable soil for the growth of Zionism. Nor must the prevalent anti-Semitism be left out of account as a factor making in the same direction. Whereas, for instance, the Jewish University student in England is welcomed in the various students' associations and clubs, the Jewish students at a German University are practically compelled to form an organization of their own. This is one of the causes of the remarkable growth of the Zionist Students' movement in Germany—a movement which, while it is not free from the besetting sin of over-organization, has undoubtedly done a great deal to transform the spirit of German Jewry. . . . Holland gave to the movement one of its earliest leaders, Heer Jacobus Kann, who was associated with Wolffsohn in the administration after Herzl's death. It has now a well-organized and active Zionist Organization, to which a great impetus was given by the Eighth Congress at the Hague, 1909. Dutch Zionists take a very active part in the general organization work and in that of the Jewish National Fund, the headquarters of which are at present at the Hague." —N. Sokolow, *History of Zionism, v.* 2, *pp.* 347-358.—"There was always at Paris a group of influential supporters of the Palestinian idea. Besides Baron Edmond *de* Rothschild, the great benefactor of Palestine, there were the famous scholar, Professor Joseph Halévy (1827-1918), who was already half a century ago one of the pioneers of a *Hebrew* Revival in the East; Dr. Waldemar Mordecai Wolff Haffkine, C. I. E., member of the Institut Pasteur, who afterwards made a great name for himself by his important medical work in India; and Dr. Emil Meyersohn (at present one of the directors of the Jewish Colonization Association), an eminent scholar who, thanks to his exceptional experience, was able to reorganize the old system of colonization in Palestine. Thus French Jewry has never been the impregnable citadel of assimilation which it is sometimes represented as being. Herzl's movement evoked a response in quarters which hitherto had been strangers to the Palestinian idea; and though a fusion between the old and the new Zionists was not effected for some time, yet essentially the two sections stood for one and the same thing. The new Zionist organization gained its footing in France through the formation, soon after the first Congress, of the *'Fédération Sioniste,'* the chief pillar of which was, of course, Max Nordau. . . . Special notice is due to one of the first followers of Herzl—Bernard Lazare [his name was Lazare Bernard] (1856-1904). . . . Lazare was the pioneer of the agitation which led to the release of Captain Alfred Dreyfus; his pamphlets on the *affaire* were undoubtedly the primary causes of the revision. . . . He came back to national Judaism after all his achievements for humanity in the Socialist movement and in the literature and politics of his great country, and became an eloquent champion of the new Jew. A clear thinker and a gifted writer, he contributed brilliant Zionist articles to the *Flambeau* and the *Echo Sioniste.*"—*Ibid., v.* 1, *pp.* 292-293.—"Ussischkin had been the moving spirit at the all-Russian Zionist Congress at Minsk, September, 1902, at which the proposition was made to invest in Palestine land the whole of the sums collected for the National Fund. In the year 1903 he had convened a Zionist Congress in Palestine itself, as related above, and during the last years of Herzl's life he had been his opponent, antagonizing him secretly and openly. After Herzl's death [1904], the Russian opposition grew in power; their representatives at the Congress were assisted by the German contingent, much of whose interest lay more exclusively in Jewish developments in Palestine than in the larger questions at issue. During the period 1904-1911, when the Zionist organization was under the leadership of David Wolffsohn, who had taken the ungracious task upon his shoulders of heading the movement in the most critical period in its development, they had made rapid strides. Wolffsohn's efforts were largely expended—and necessarily so—in healing the many breaches made in its walls. At the Congress of 1911 the combination of Russians and Germans won its final victory, and passed from the Opposition to the Government benches. Its policy is expressed in the words used by Professor Warburg at the Seventh Congress: 'Their right to

the land by reason of their having possessed it two thousand years ago is not a sufficient claim; they must create a modern title, which would consist in the fact that Palestine depended economically upon the Jews, owing its progress to Jewish initiative and resources.' It is Professor Warburg who has given practical expression to this policy in his character as founder and chairman of the Palestine Commission. Under his auspices, the Commission has assisted various Palestinian enterprises, and has encouraged the formation of a number of societies that collect information regarding the agricultural and commercial possibilities of the country. It is practically the Palestine Commission which now guides the Zionist movement." —R. J. H. Gottheil, *Zionism, pp.* 153-154.

"The Jewish Colonial Trust is the financial instrument of the Zionist movement, and its main object is the industrial and commercial development of Palestine and the neighbouring countries. The Anglo-Palestine Company, Ltd. . . . was registered on the 27th January, 1902, and began its business operations in the spring of 1903. . . . The Company is the mainstay of Jewish colonization in Palestine. It advances money to Land Societies for buying land, which is then sold to new immigrants, also to building societies for establishing modern hygienic quarters in the vicinity of towns (Jaffa, Jerusalem, Haifa, etc.). It also makes advances for the installation of water supplies in the Jewish Colonies, and grants loans on long terms for the development of plantations. It has further organized with its own means Co-operative and Loan Societies for the purpose of buying agricultural implements and selling the products of the soil, especially oranges, lemons and wine. The Company has also elaborated various projects for public enterprises, such as tramways, irrigation works, electric lighting, etc. The Company also carries on every kind of banking business, dealing with all elements of the population regardless of race or creed. Thus the Company has become an important factor in the economic life of the country. . . . The Jewish National Fund was established in accordance with a decision of the second Congress, its object being to acquire land for the Jewish people in Palestine, such land to remain for ever the property of the whole Jewish nation. The management of the Fund . . . deemed it its duty to promote all undertakings of public utility in Palestine, assisting thereby to the utmost the general progress of the work of colonization. The Jewish National Fund is the most popular of Zionist institutions. . . . The administration of the Fund is in the hands of a Board of Directors, consisting of five Directors elected by the members, and two Governors appointed by the Controlling Committee. This Committee consists of the persons who for the time being form the Smaller Actions Committee of the Zionist Congress, and its functions are merely those of vetoing or prohibiting any act of the Directors that the Committee may deem to be detrimental to the interests of the Association."—N. Sokolow, *History of Zionism, v.* 2, *pp.* 371, 373-375.

1908-1921.—Zionist settlements in Palestine.—Turk, Arab and Jew.—Unfavorable conditions.—Agriculture and industry.—A great deal has been accomplished by the Zionists since 1908. "Forty settlements, some farms, co-operative societies, *Tel Aviv,* the new *Achuzoth,* the *Carmel,* the *Pardes,* the *Aggudath N'taim,* modern machines; new methods of work introduced not only among Jews, but also among Arabs; malaria centres disinfected; the best conditions for planting studied in experimental institutions; our banks, the *Bezalel,* public health centres, the music school, two well-filled secondary schools, the girls' school in *Jaffa,* the *Tach'kmoni* school in the same place, the *Petach-Tikwah* school of agriculture, the settlement schools, the committee organization of the settlements, the workers' associations, the teachers' union, the *Hebrew* newspapers and literature, the 'Houses of the People'—these represent what *Chovevé Zion,* Baron Edmond *de* Rothschild and the Zionists have created, and what we call the new colonisation of Palestine. The earlier rivalries have vanished. The *Chovevé Zion* and the Zionists are at one as to the policy of Zionism. The Zionist Palestine office in *Jaffa* is the headquarters of the work of colonisation. The struggle for *Hebrew* has shown how Palestine is becoming more and more an intellectual centre. The visit of Baron Edmond *de* Rothschild to Palestine in 1913 had set the seal upon this unanimity. Even the blind could perceive that a true Jewish Home was in process of establishment. No further argument were needed. The Jewish population in the land, although a minority, is the only one that is growing and has grown during the past generation. It is the only progressive population in the land, the others are stationary in regard to numbers."—N. Sokolow, *History of Zionism, v.* 2, *pp.* 10-11.—These successes, however, are after all significant and show the enormous difficulties attached to the settling up of an autonomous home for the Jewish nation in Palestine. The Zionists are faced with difficulties both within and without. The former originate in the nature of the natives and in the climate of Palestine, the latter in the Jewish colonists themselves. In Palestine there is no fertile soil which is not cultivated; there is no soil without owner. Almost 90 per cent of the soil belonged to the State, to the Sultan, to the ecclesiastical institutions, or to the great landlords, and only an insignificant fraction of it was in private ownership or belonged to the communities. The purchase of land for the purpose of colonisation was difficult, and it was almost impossible to carry it out in a legal way. As soon as the Zionists bought a settlement, voices of dissatisfaction made themselves heard among the natives, and the Arab press accused some official or other of having taken a bribe and complaints were sent to Constantinople. So long as the Jews did not disturb the state of affairs as it existed before the purchase and the natives worked for them, the Turkish authorities maintained peace. As soon, however, as the Jews attempted to cultivate land by their own people a new outcry arose. The Turkish Government favoured the Jews and defended their interests against the native Arab population, whom they either hated or at least treated with contempt. They saw in the Jewish colonists their natural allies. Under the Arab Government matters will be quite different. Even to-day, [written in 1920] when the English are still in Palestine and the civil home government is not established, voices make themselves heard among the Arabs that this or that purchase was illegal and that the land ought to be distributed among the native farmers who tilled it all their lives. The Arab population was roused by the demand of some groups of Jews that Palestine should be proclaimed a Jewish State, while, further, the Arab spirit is roused by the ceaseless cry of a Jewish weekly published in Jerusalem for the land of Israel to be restored to the Israelites. Not only the educated classes but also the common Arab people look upon the Jews as dangerous interlopers and unite against them. The excited minds of the people cannot be calmed by official

statements from leading Zionists or from the British Government to the effect that nobody designs the establishment in Palestine of an independent State, but only that the Jews desire to settle down there beside their neighbours as in their old homeland. The Arabs ask the English Government, and especially their own king Feysal, not to permit the Holy Land to be taken from the Moslems and Christians and be given to the Jews. Feysal by his very origin and education hates the Jews and will never support them in anything; on the contrary, he would do all in his power to make their stay in Palestine if not impossible at least unpleasant. The English Government will with difficulty be able to carry out its promises. The speech of Mr. Balfour, in which the Jews were promised some sort of autonomy in Palestine, was translated into all Islamic languages and interpreted in a manner very unfavourable to the British Government. Political organisations agitating against England utilised this speech in their favour, pointing out that England wants to deprive the Moslems even of their third Holy City, Jerusalem, and that she wants to hand over to the Jews the tombs of the great prophets Ibrahim and Jacob, the city of Hebron. In numerous cities public prayers were offered to the prophets worshipped by Moslems, asking them to intercede to prevent the dishonouring of their Moslem land. It is important for the Zionist leaders to conduct themselves with good sense so that they may come to terms with the Arab national Government, and avoid rousing up the Mohammedans with ill-considered articles in the press.

"The climate of Palestine is likewise unfavourable to the colonists. The most fertile districts are those which lie along the rivers and streams flowing through the coastal plains. Their mouths are choked with sand, the level of their beds is rising and their waters produce extensive swamps, the breeding places of innumerable mosquitoes which carry abroad malaria. Even the colony by the sea of Tiberias suffers in this way. It will require the systematic labours of many years before the swamps are dry and the insects exterminated. But not even in the healthy and more elevated districts can the Jewish colonists stand the strenuous agricultural work for long. They were not accustomed to it in Europe and it is impossible for them to get accustomed to it during their voyage on the sea or during their stay of some months in Palestine. The warm vapours of the coastal plains weaken them physically, their strength decays, and in a short time they are overcome by a physical and mental languor which is often the sign of an impending chronic disease. Children born in Palestine accustom themselves from birth not only to the climate but also to physical exertion; they stand the work on the fields much better, but they can never compete with the native population. In forty Jewish colonies there are to-day about 8,000 inhabitants, and only 40 per cent. of them are occupied in agriculture. The rest either grow vegetables or figs or almonds or are planters and look after great orange gardens. The oldest Jewish settlers make great endeavours to become proprietors of land or gardens or to adopt some business or other. They follow in this respect merely the example of German colonists. Between 1869 and 1871 about 100 farmer families of the sect of Templars emigrated there from Würtemberg. They founded a colony near Jaffa, in Sharona and Haifa, desiring in the Promised Land to enjoy full freedom for their religious confession which had been persecuted as heresy by the Evangelical Church of Würtemberg. They were farmers hardened to country life, accustomed to tilling the land, and considered farm work in Palestine necessary for the erecting of a new spiritual temple as their religious convictions dictated. At first they all occupied themselves exclusively with agriculture, but when they saw that the most industrious died and that their children perished, they began to hire natives for farm work and they themselves worked only in the vineyards and orange plantations. From farmers they became planters. At the end of the last and the beginning of this century they began to sell out their orange plantations to Jewish colonists and began to turn to industry and commerce. They erected in towns and villages mills with steam power, small machine works; built and opened hotels in Jaffa, Haifa, Jerusalem, Beyrout, Baalbec and other places. The vineyards they retained, indeed they planted vineyards and orchards in five other places which had arisen after 1873. They reside there during the summer months, they have invested their capital in property there, they rear cattle there, but themselves do no hard work, hiring natives for this sort of labour. Possibly two-thirds of the former Würtemberg farmers are to-day manufacturers and traders. Those who remained faithful to their old calling emigrated for the most part to the German colonies in Africa, asserting that the soil there was more fertile than in Palestine and that therefore farmwork there is not so strenuous as in the Promised Land. It is interesting to notice that the oldest Jewish colonists trod the same route as the Würtemberg Templars took. The orange gardens which the latter planted and which now are the property of the former, frequently change their Jewish owner. The Jewish planter migrates to Jaffa, to Jerusalem, or to Haifa as a merchant. The Jews take comparatively little part in industry. Those of the old Jews who learnt farming not only in practice but also in theory at the agricultural school of Mikva Israel, do not hold out in Palestine but seek their bread elsewhere. I know there a settler from Rishon le Sion who has been living in Palestine since the seventies and who sent all his sons to the agricultural school. The most talented of them went, with the support of the Alliance Israélite, after he had finished his course at that school to continue his studies in Paris and Montpelier and is now an agricultural expert in Morocco; the second, after three years at the agricultural school, likewise went to France, pursued his studies at a secondary school and finally settled down as a physician in Australia; the third son learnt gardening in Germany and found a post also in Australia. And thus it is with many colonists. Their children either leave Palestine or become traders and settle down in a town. In the colonies there are very few descendants of the old settlers. The Jews themselves say: 'Why should we work our fingers off when our schools give us the chance of getting an easier living'? So long as the Jewish colonists regard the colony as merely a provisional stopping place on the way to a more agreeable mode of life, all the efforts of the Zionists to set up in Palestine an autonomous Jewish home will be in vain."—A. Musil, *Jew and Arab in Palestine* (*New Europe, May* 27, 1920).

1914-1918.—**Progress during World War.**—"The present war has not affected the unity of the Zionist idea nor has it affected the unity of the Zionist Organization. As the Organization was established on the federative principle, it was found possible to continue the essential work of the movement by utilising the separate organizations

of the different countries. The work of propaganda and the collection of funds, so far from diminishing, actually made great progress. The societies already in existence continued their work very effectively, and a considerable number of new societies came into being. *Die Welt,* the central organ of the movement, had, however, to be suspended; but a series of new Zionist publications made their appearance. The Zionist press—in Russia particularly—made great headway. The Zionist weekly, *Razswiet,* which is published in the Russian language, increased its circulation three-fold. Three new dailies, *Ha'am* in *Hebrew, Das Togblatt* and *Der Telegraf* in *Yiddish,* were established, and rapidly attained a circulation comparable to the great European daily papers. A crowd of new journalists and publicists accepting the Zionist platform, joined the old guard of writers and workers in the cause. The *Yiddish* Press in Poland, which numbers its readers by the hundred thousand, put themselves at the disposal of the Zionist movement. One in particular, which had hitherto been territorialist, and only lukewarm towards Zionism, declared openly its acceptance of the Zionist programme. In England Zionist activity in press and literature made remarkable progress, such as had scarcely been imagined possible in this country. It is worthy of note that, quite apart from the Zionist Press proper, the Jewish non-Zionist Press evinced a much keener interest in the movement. The world's general Press, in all languages, devoted to Zionism an amount of space second only to the events of the war. . . . With regard to the Zionist Organization, it must be stated that some of its functions, particularly those which were centralized in the headquarters, such as the periodical meetings of the Greater Actions Committee and the permanent contact and co-operation between the members of the Inner Actions Committee, had to be suspended. The Zionist Congress, the chief organ of the movement, which elects the executive of all the officers of the movement, to decide all questions of policy, could not be held owing to the war, and as a result the position had to remain as settled by the Congress of 1913. As, however, the events of the war threw upon the Organization not less but very much more responsibility than previously, and confronted the existing executive with problems of the greatest urgency and importance, new instruments had necessarily to be created to meet the new situation and to carry on the work of the movement. In America, where the movement began to spread with great rapidity, the American Provisional Committee for General Zionist Affairs was formed in 1914, very soon after the outbreak of the war, and conducted the affairs of the movement with great skill. Their efforts in connection with Palestine relief were beyond all praise, and constitute one of the brighest pages in the history of the movement. In Copenhagen, also, a Bureau was opened, which rendered invaluable services to the cause. . . . The greater part of the practical work of the Zionist Organization consisted of Relief Work for Jewish sufferers from the war. . . . The downfall of the Czardom in Russia was undoubtedly one of the greatest events in the world's history. Russia entered into a period of revolution which seemed to bring with it all the blessings of right and liberty. The restrictions affecting nationalities and creeds were removed. But far from destroying Zionism, the new liberty gave it an immense stimulus. In Moscow a Zionist District Committee was formed, comprising many Provinces: Astrakhan, Vladimir, Vologda, Voronesh, Kazan, Kaluga, Kostrooma, Kursk, Moscow, Nijni-Novgorod, Simbirsk, Smolensk, Tambov, Tula, Ufa, Jaroslav, and the Don District. At Odessa, a Zionist demonstration took place. . . . In Moscow, in the Great Hall, a Jewish Mass Meeting took place. Dr. E. W. Tschlenow was elected president. . . . The Conference at Petrograd on May 24th, 1917, received official recognition. . . .

"Soon after the outbreak of the war, the Zionist leaders in England had attempted to come to an understanding with those indifferent to their cause and with the so-called anti-Zionists, in order to render possible, without renouncing the principles of Zionism, collaboration in working out a practical scheme in Palestine. All these motives led the leaders of English Zionism to request the general organization to delegate here two of their representatives—namely, Dr. Tschlenow of Moscow and the author, for the purpose of assisting in the important work to be done in this country. They arrived in London shortly before the end of the year 1914. . . . The period 1915-1916 was more one of preparation than one of execution. . . . Towards the end of the year 1916 several months were spent in drafting outlines and projects for the purpose of drawing up a Zionist programme which should be as clear as possible and correspond with the present conditions, in which efforts Dr. Weizmann and the author [Nahum Sokolow] were supported by a number of notable colleagues. . . . The 7th of February, 1917, constitutes a turning-point in the history. . . . At the commencement of the year 1917 Sir Mark Sykes entered into closer relations with Dr. Weizmann and the author, and the discussions held with the latter led to the meeting of February 7th, 1917, which marks the commencement of official negotiations. . . . The deliberations yielded a favourable result, and it was resolved to continue the work. . . . In consequence of these negotiations and of the great importance of the Zionist question to all the Governments of the Entente Powers, the author was called to Paris in March, 1917, by the French Government. On the 22nd of March he was received at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Paris, where he outlined the principles of the Zionist programme. He received the assurance that the French Government regarded the programme very favourably, and was authorized to inform the Zionist Organizations of Russia and America of this result by telegraph. After a stay of one month in Paris, during which the author got into touch with the leading Jewish circles, he went to Rome, where he devoted himself to the same task. The conferences which he had with the leading Italian Jews led to the happy result that the programme laid before them by the author was accepted. With regard to the question of the Holy Places, it was considered advisable to enter into negotiations with the Vatican. The author had conferences with the Cardinals (especially with Cardinal Gasparri), and on the 10th of May he was received in an audience by the Pope. These conferences led to a most satisfactory attitude on the part of the Vatican toward Zionism. Between the 12th and the 18th of May, the author, together with the President of the Jewish Community in Rome, Commendatore Sereni, was received several times at the Italian Consulta, and by the then Prime Minister Boselli, and he was assured that the Italian Government, in conjunction with the Allied Powers, would support the Zionist programme. He was authorized, just as in Paris, to telegraph this result to the Russian and American Zionist organizations. . . . November 2nd, 1917, marks the end of a chapter in Zionist history: it is Declaration Day. . . . [In a] letter to Lord Rothschild . . . Mr. A. J. Balfour, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, declared the sympathy of the British Government with Zionist

aspirations and its favourable attitude towards the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people. . . . After this most important achievement which is considered as the foundation-stone of future policy in and regarding Palestine, it was found necessary to come into closer political relations with the other Entente countries, in the light of the new situation created by the British Declaration. Negotiations were carried on with the proper authorities in the French and Italian Governments: the negotiations were crowned with success, and the official endorsements by France and Italy of the British Declaration were communicated to the world."—N. Sokolow, *History of Zionism, v. 2, pp.* 21, 32-33, 38-39, 50-53, 83, 127.

1919-1922.—Plan for a Zionist state.—British mandate for Palestine.—Approved by Council of the League of Nations, July 24, 1922. See PALESTINE: 1919; 1920; JERUSALEM: 1920.

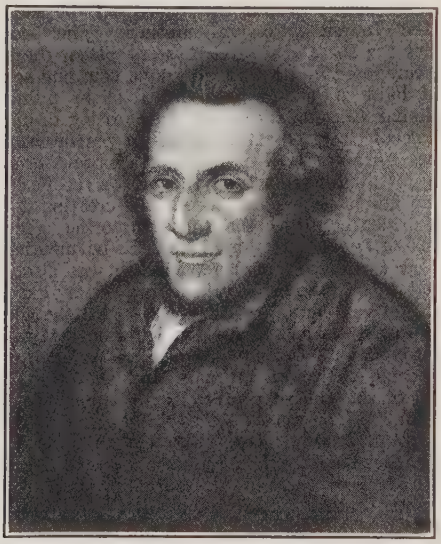
ALSO IN: P. Goodman and A. D. Lewis, ed., *Zionism: Problems and views.*—M. Jastrow, *Zionism and the future of Palestine.*—M. S. Nordau, *Zionism and anti-Semitism.*—H. Sacher, ed., *Zionism and the Jewish future.*—R. N. Salaman, *Palestine reclaimed.*—H. Sidebotham, *England and Palestine.*—H. M. Kallen, *Zionism and world politics.*

LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

"The Jews in the course of their history have had many changes in language. Hebrew ceased to be the general national language after the fifth century B.C. when it gave place to Aramaic, . . . and later to Greek. Hebrew only ceased to be a colloquial language at the end of the second century A.D., having been renewed in Palestine at the time of the Maccabees. The cultured Jew in Alexandria in the first and second centuries A.D. was an exception if he spoke Hebrew fluently, besides Greek. As a written language it never died out, though the prevailing language of the Babylonian Talmud and of Jewish literature in Babylon until the tenth century was not Hebrew but Aramaic. A great change came in the seventh and eighth centuries, when Islam triumphantly spread the culture of the Arabs from Arabia across North Africa to Spain. The Jews, taking up this movement with enthusiasm, gave up Aramaic in favor of Arabic. . . . For about five centuries Arabic remained the principal colloquial language of the Jews till it gave way to the Latin languages—to Spanish in Spain under the dominion of Christian Castile, to French in France. . . . The Spanish language took such firm root among the Jews that after their exile in 1492 they took it with them to their new homes, and speak it in European Turkey, Asia Minor, Syria, and Palestine to this day. It is no longer pure Spanish, but is mixed with many Turkish and Hebrew words, and is called 'Spaniolisch.' As Spaniolisch is to Spanish, so is the 'Yiddish' or 'Jargon' of Eastern Europe to German. The Jews in Germany, as we learn from old authorities and contemporary writings, spoke the same German as the Christians up to the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Not till they were shut up in Ghettos—thus falling out of touch with Christian culture . . . did their language begin to differ from that of the Christians. . . . Hebrew had never ceased being the literary language of the Jews. During the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries the German Jews emigrated in vast numbers to the Kingdom of Poland, taking their colloquial 'Yiddish' with them, and to this they have adhered to the present day: while in Germany itself—since the beginning of the emancipation, i.e. since the middle of the eighteenth century, it was given up in favour of pure German."—A. Ruppin, *Jews of to-day, pp.* 109-111.—"Yiddish was at first relegated to the common folk and the women as their literary patois. This, however, only enriched and enhanced the tongue. It grew up as the language of the most hardy and most loyal children of Israel. . . . As early as the fourteenth century we find Yiddish translations of the Hebrew prayer-books and hymn books. Then there appeared translations and paraphrases of the Old Testament, collections of Talmudical legends, parables and maxims. . . . In the course of time there also appeared the popular tale. . . . Hundreds of years before our age, Yiddish gave rise to two distinct species of literature, of which one has no counterpart either in Hebrew or in any other literature, and the other has some parallel in the early beginnings of the European drama. The first are the *Techinoth,* fervent and ebullient prayers of an extemporaneous nature, composed for all sorts of synogogical and family occasions, and exclusively meant to suit the needs and the sad lot of the Jewish wife and mother. The second species are the Purim and mystery plays, the former composed in a rather burlesque vein and somewhat loose style and betraying a slight influence of similar German farces, the latter being dramatic recitals of the deeds and legends of patriarchs and heroes of old. Unlike most old Hebrew dramas many of these were actually played on the Feast of Purim and on other occasions, thus creating a distant background to the quite imposing Yiddish drama of today. It should likewise be mentioned, that as a profane language, Yiddish was also tolerated to be used as a vehicle for the myths and stories of contemporary Europe. . . . In the course of centuries, then, by these multifarious ways, the new tongue was welded, enriched, and refined, until it became the most intimate and thorough language of the Jewish people, its ideal means of expression."—J. Enteen, *Yiddish literature (Jewish Communal Register,* 1917-1918, *pp.* 582-585).

"In Germany we have the testimony of the first Judeo-German or Yiddish works printed in the sixteenth century that even at that late time the Jews were deriving pleasure from the stories belonging to the cycle of King Arthur and similar romances. In 1602 a pious Jew, in order to offset these older stories, as he himself mentions in his introduction, issued the 'Maasebuch,' which is a collection of Jewish folklore. . . . In the beginning of the sixteenth century, a large number of Jews, mainly from the region of the Middle Rhine, had become permanently settled in Bohemia, Poland, and Russia. . . . They had brought with them their patrimony of the German language, their German intellectual atmosphere and mode of life; and their very compactness precluded their amalgamation with their Slavic neighbors. Their numerical strength and spiritual superiority obliterated even the last trace of those Jews who had been resident in those regions before them and had spoken the Slavic dialects as their mother-tongues. Separated from their mother-country, they craved the intellectual food to which they had been accustomed there; but their relations with it were entirely broken, and they no longer took part in the mental life of their German contemporaries. The Reformation with its literary awakening could not exert any influence on them; they only turned back for reminiscences of ages gone by, and hungered after stories with which their ancestors had whiled away their hours of leisure in the cities along the Rhine. And so it happened that when the legendary lore of the

Nibelungen, of Siegfried, of Dietrich of Bern, of Wigalois, of King Arthur, had begun to fade away even from the folk books of Germany, it lived on in the Slavic countries and continued to evoke pleasure and admiration. . . . The medieval period of Judeo-German literature was by no means confined to the Slavic countries. It reacted on the Jews who had remained in Germany, who, in their narrow Ghetto life, were excluded from an active participation in the German literature of their country. This reaction was not due alone to the fact that the specifically Jewish literature appealed in an equal degree to those who had been left behind in their old homes, but in a larger measure to the superior intellectual activity of the emigrants and their descendants who kept alive the spark of Jewish learning when it had become weakened at home and found no food for its replenishment within its own communities. They had to turn to the Slavic lands for their teachers and Rabbis, who brought with them not only



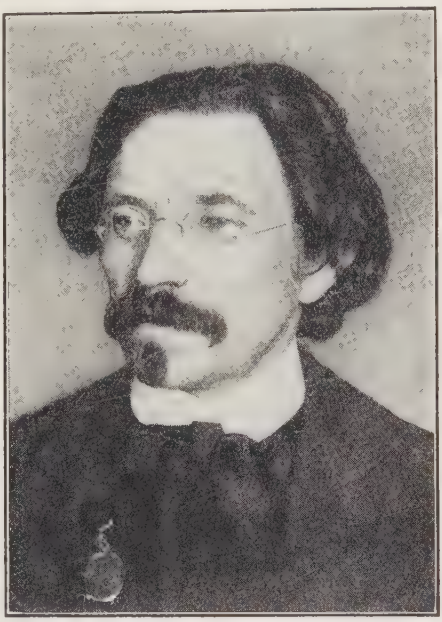
MOSES MENDELSSOHN

their Hebrew learning, but also their Judeo-German language and literature. Up to the middle of the eighteenth century there was no division of the Jews of the west and the east of Europe; they took equal part in the common Judeo-German literature, however scanty its scope. What was produced in Russia was read with the same pleasure in Germany, and *vice versa*, even though the spoken form of the vernacular in Slavic countries was more and more departing from that of Germany. Even Mendelssohn's teacher was a Galician Jew. But with Mendelssohn a new era had dawned in the history of the German Jews. By his example the dialect was at once abandoned for the literary language, and the Jews were once more brought back into the fold of the German nation. The separation of the two branches of the German Jews was complete, and the inhabitants of the Slavic countries were left to shift for themselves. For nearly one hundred years they had to miss the beneficent effects of an intellectual intercourse with the West, and in the beginning of our century the contrast between the two could not have been greater: the German Jews were rapidly becoming identified with the spiritual pursuits of their Gentile fellow-citizens, the Slavic Jews persevered in the medievalism into which they had been thrown centuries before. Only by slow degrees did the Mendelssohnian Reform find its way into Poland and Russia; and even when its influence was at its highest, it was not possible for it to affect those lands in the same way that it affected the districts that were more or less under German influence. The German language could not become the medium of instruction for the masses, whose homely dialects had so far departed from their mother-tongue as to make the latter unintelligible to them. In Russia it was a long time before the native literature could make itself felt, or before Russian education came to take the place of the German culture; so in the meanwhile the Judeo-German language was left to its own evolution, and a new literature had its rise. In arriving at its present stage, Judeo-German literature of the nineteenth century has passed through several phases. At first, up to the sixties, it was used as a weapon by the few enlightened men who were anxious to extend the benefits of the Mendelssohnian Reform to the masses at large. It is an outgrowth of the Hebrew literature of the same period, which had its rise from the same causes, but which could appeal only to a small number of men who were well versed in Hebrew lore. Since these apostles of the new learning had themselves received their impetus through the Hebrew, it was natural for them to be active both in the Hebrew and the Judeo-German field. We consequently find here the names of Gottlober and J. L. Gordon, who belong equally to both literatures. Those who devoted themselves exclusively to creating a Judeo-German literature, like the other Mendelssohnian disciples, took the German literature as the guide for their efforts, and even dreamed of approaching the literary language of Germany in the final amalgamation with the Mendelssohnian Reform. In the meanwhile, in the sixties and still more in the seventies, the Jews were becoming Russianized in the schools which had been thrown open to their youths. In the sixties, the Judeo-German literature, having received its impetus in the preceding generation, reached its highest development as a literature of Reform, but it appealed only to those who had not had the benefits of the Russian schools. In the seventies it became reminiscent, and was in danger of rapid extinction. In the eighties, the persecutions and riots against the Jews led many of those who had availed themselves of the Russian culture to devote themselves to the service of their less fortunate brethren; and many new forces, that otherwise would have found their way into Russian letters, were exerted entirely in the evolution of Judeo-German. In this new stage, the Mendelssohnian Reform, with its concomitant German language, was lost sight of. The element of instruction was still an important one in this late period, but this instruction was along universal lines, and no longer purely Jewish; above all else, this literature became an art. Poetry was the first to be developed, as it lent itself more readily to didactic purposes; it has also, until lately, remained in closer contact with the popular poetry, which, in its turn, is an evolution of the poetry of the preceding centuries. The theatre was the latest to detach itself from prose, to which it is organically related."—L. Wiener, *History of Yiddish literature, in the nineteenth century, pp.* 2-8.

"Early in the nineteenth century we . . . meet with Yiddish didactic bards and popular singers, dramatists, story-tellers, essayists, and the like. Somewhat later talented novelists and poets appear, and as early as the sixties Yiddish literature

assumed quite a magnificent appearance. It is, then, that Abramowitz, the but now deceased Mendele Mocher Sephorim [or Sphorim], a truly Jewish genius of the highest magnitude, writes his plays, his novels and most pathetic and poignant satires. About a decade later Spector begins to write his graceful and most sympathetic stories and novels. Then, also came the poet Froog, with his sweetly pensive, graceful, yet highly emotional lyrics, finely romantic epics and sadly bitter satires. Then appeared the great and most ingenious humorist Rabinowitz, the late Sholem Aleichem, who at various times has been compared to the Russian Gogol, the English Dickens, and the American Mark Twain, but who, most correctly and most definitely, is the great humorous explorer and portrayer of Jewish life, of Jewish men, women and children of all classes, ages and regions, and who draws his inexhaustible fountains of Jewish pathos and humor from the very depths of Jewish thought and feeling, from his intimate acquaintance with the multifarious ramifications and vagaries of the Jewish mind and soul and with the rich stores and finest shades and tints and quaintest turns of the Yiddish language. Lastly, at the end of the eighties, there came I. L. Peretz (who died in the Spring of 1915) the greatest and most versatile Yiddish man-of-letters, some of whose lyrics, dramatic lyrics and ballads are among the choicest specimens of the Jewish muse and should be considered among the most powerful of modern social poetry. . . . As in the case of Hebrew literature, the great Jewish national revival of the last three decades gave Yiddish literature an unprecedented impetus. Here, however, the rejuvenation was much enhanced by the great democratic and revolutionary awakening in Russia and by the mighty tide of emigration to England, to the United States, South Africa, etc. . . . Rosenfeld and Bloomgarden (Yehoash), . . . Gordin and Kobrin, . . . Raisin, . . . Pinski, . . . Asch, . . . Libin, . . . Einhorn, . . . Nomberg, and a very large host of other poets, novelists, essayists, critics and historians in Russia, America, Galicia and elsewhere, have incessantly enriched the everflowing stream of Yiddish literature, so that it has now assumed the most astonishing proportions and has become one of the most original and most deeply interesting of modern literatures. . . . America has sounded many new notes in Yiddish literature, has given it many new motives. For instance, Yiddish prose and poetry is either naturalistic or impressionistic. Both these schools were largely introduced by American writers, the first by the older generation of Ab. Cahan, J. Gordin, B. Gorin, Leon Kobrin, etc.; the second by the young generation of Mani Leib, David Ignatov and A. Raboi. Again, Yiddish literature is chiefly democratic and revolutionary in its tendency. This should be attributed to the American Socialist press, which was the nursery of nearly all of the American Yiddish writers. . . . True, American-Yiddish literature has some serious faults. For instance, its prose for the most part (not to speak of the trashy romance that is concocted in the newspapers for daily consumption by the reader) consists of short stories. The style may now and then lack polish. The technique may now and then be somewhat imperfect. All such faults, however, are derived from the same sources from which the highest good flows. It should always be borne in mind that Yiddish literature in America is purely proletarian. It was never stimulated by wealthy patronage: it never had an academy to guide it, and never had a literary salon to advise it. Moreover, it was born and bred in the daily and weekly press, with the cheap dime-novel for its crib-fellow and the loudly palpitating daily article for its godfather. . . . Yiddish and Yiddish literature have been the great boon of Jewish history to the scattered tribes of Israel."—J. Enteen, *Yiddish literature* (*Jewish Communal Register*, 1917-1918, *pp.* 585-587, 593-595).

"In its substance Yiddish literature is purely Jewish. It takes its themes from Jewish life, from the present as well as from Jewish history, Jewish joys and Jewish sorrows, the joys and sorrows of the individual Jew as well as those of the people collectively. Rarely does a Jewish poet drift into a foreign life, and very few are those who have done so. In its form Yiddish literature has during its short history passed thru the most varied schools, from the simplest naturalism to the most misty and hazy symbolism. The 'Grandfather' [Sholom Jacob Abramovitz, the pseudonym of



SOLOMON J. RABINOWITZ

Mendele Mocher Sphorim] began in 1863 as a chastising and moralizing preacher. Spektor and Sholom Aleichem succeeded him as realists, the former scant in colors, the latter very rich, but J. L. Perez alone represents several schools, several tendencies. He is realist, romanticist, symbolist, mysticist. His successors divided his heritage and took different courses. The only new trails opened since his advent are the historical drama and the historical sketch. Ancient Jewish history is the only field not touched by Perez as an artist. The short story predominates in Yiddish literature. The 'Grandfather' and his two disciples, Spektor and Sholom Aleichem, began their literary activities with longer stories and novels. But J. L. Perez had patience for the short story only, and those who have followed him have likewise failed to develop energy for larger works. But of late years the Yiddish novel has begun to come into its own. In Russia David Bergelson and Sholom Asch are its prominent progenitors; the the novel of the latter, 'Motke the Vagabond,' has just appeared in English translation. In Amer-

ica we have David Ignatof and J. Oppatshu [or Opatoshu]. Yiddish literature is very rich in lyrics, rich in quantity as well as in quality. The number of poems received by an editor of a Yiddish publication is quite formidable. One might almost assume that all Jews are writing poems. But it is not an exaggeration to say that there are more than a score of high-grade talents, God-inspired poets. The non-Yiddish world heard first of Morris Rosenfeld, but he has long been outdistanced by many highly gifted poets."—D. Pinski, *Modern Yiddish literature* (*Library Journal, Dec.* 1, 1921).—"Within the last decade, a new school of writers has arisen, the so-called 'Young' group, so named after a periodical, *Jugend* (Youth), of which only the first three issues appeared. Those gathered around it were young writers who strove to break away from the old traditions of Yiddish literature. According to them, that literature had been too objective; it had given too little expression to the personality of the author and had suffered from a lack of intimacy between the author and his reader. It had also been too narrowly nationalistic. We are not only Jews, they argued, since we have absorbed much of the culture of the European nations among whom we dwelt for centuries; and it is not only the Jewish but also the non-Jewish world whose aspirations we voice. They strove to emancipate themselves from the proletarian tendencies of earlier Yiddish literature in America and made theirs a movement of art for art's sake. After the appearance of *Jugend,* this group crystallized and published larger almanacs, until with the publication of *Shriften* they began to exert a marked influence on Yiddish literature in Europe and America. Of the writers of fiction, the following are most prominent. David Ignatoff, as editor of *Shriften,* is the representative of the group. In his first novel, the Whirlpool, the hero moves between dream life and reality to such an extent that the border line between the two is almost effaced. Tho his plans are thwarted by the force of circumstances, he nevertheless reaches his goal in the land of dreams, the land of all lands. This philosophy of the 'Land of Dreams' is the credo of David Ignatoff. I. Raboi is noted for his love of the land that breathes thru his novels. In a rugged, primitive, almost biblical way, he writes about the farmers of the West and of New England. He also writes much and lovingly about animal life in which field he has no rival in Yiddish literature. 'J. Opatoshu,' to quote the Cambridge History of American Literature, 'is not a traditional Ghetto writer. He has been called the originator of the Yiddish historical novel.' The 'Young' school is strongly represented in poetry and has produced several highly talented writers, among whom Mani Leib ranks first. He is the most lyrical of the Yiddish poets of today and has brought the Yiddish language to its highest perfection. Zisho Landau writes about subjects of everyday life but often chooses daring themes, as does also M. L. Halpern, whose power of language is remarkable. Others to be noted are Joseph Rolnik, the idyllic poet, and H. Leivik, poet-mystic, who is by some considered the foremost poet of the 'Young' school."—J. Meyrowitz, *Present day Yiddish literature and periodicals* (*Library Journal, Dec.* 1, 1921).

See also PHILOLOGY: 15; SEMITIC LITERATURE; CABALA; TALMUD.

ALSO IN: M. Raisin, *History of the Jews in modern times, pp.* 182-190, 318-327.—G. Deutsch, *Scrolls, essays on Jewish history and literature, and kindred subjects.*—I. Abrahams, *Bypaths in Hebraic bookland.*

DRAMA AND THEATER

"In the time of Herod, when the Jews were comparatively free from a foreign yoke, theatres were erected in Jerusalem in imitation of the Greeks. But the priests and prophets bore a bitter hatred towards everything pagan, and they violently opposed this new amusement. Later, when Agrippa became king and the Grecian influence was lessened, there is historical evidence that he attended the theatre in Jerusalem and that the content of the play was Jewish and inoffensive to Simeon the Good. But the drama could not develop at that time for several reasons. . . . About the ninth century the Purimspiel became a mere imitation of the then licentious Shrove-Tuesday. As no women were allowed within the synagogue yard that day, the pious scholar and rabbinical student competed in coarseness: the more foul the dialogue the better was it liked. It is needless to state that no drama could have developed from such a ribaldrous situation. In the early days of the Renaissance plays in Hebrew were written and performed in the private homes of the wealthy Italian and Spanish Jews. But this was soon stopped by the Rabbis. They still considered the theatre as a sacrilegious institution, and excommunicated Moses H. Luzzato, the chief writer of these plays, because of his interest in the Kabbalah. . . . In the meanwhile the Purimspiel was performed annually wherever Jews were found. Its plot became more intricate. Instead of a single dialogue, several people, impersonating historical characters acted out regular scenes, intermingling them with popular folk-songs. As Yiddish became more common, that language was used. . . . Nineteen hundred years after Herod, the pious Jew still considered the theatre as the 'home of vulgarity.' He might tolerate one day of merrymaking, and even gladly participate in it, but he thought it necessary to seek his pleasures in the service of Jehovah during the remainder of the year. And thus it continued for another century and a half. . . . The Yiddish 'jargon' was by this time firmly established among the Jews, and was rapidly becoming a literary medium. The Jewish authors who still wrote in Hebrew realized that if they desired to be read they better write in the language known to most Jews. In 1826 one of these writers, Ettinger, wrote a comedy in Yiddish, called *Serkele.* Aksenfeld and Gottlober did likewise. They expected only to be read, since there was no thought of a theatre; but in giving life and individuality to their characters, they helped to create a sentiment for one. . . . [This was realized by Abraham Goldfaden half a century later.] His first attempt was a medley of songs and witty dialogue, with Grodner and his assistant, Goldstein performing. This occurred in July, 1876. After visiting some of the smaller towns, the trio arrived in Bucharest. There Goldfaden organized a company of café and choir singers, among whom were Mogulesko and Zukerman, for which he wrote crude farces with a goodly portion of song and jest. . . . [From Rumania Goldfaden went to Russia.] When he arrived in Odessa, he found some of his former actors already established in one of the halls. With them was Jacob Adler, who had been engaged in that city. . . . [There] Goldfaden rented the Marinsky Theatre. With time the theatrical family grew in numbers, and another troupe was outfitted for the provincial cities. . . . [From] Odessa, Goldfaden took his organization on the road. In Nicholaev he first produced his historical operetta, *Shulamis,* which proved very successful. With this play the Yid-

dish theatre entered upon a new era; it was a work full of merit, and served for many years as model to all his imitators. . . . Soon after [Goldfaden returned to the Marinsky Theatre, where], he produced his second historic operetta, *Bar Kochbah,* with Mogulesko as his musical collaborator. Its success was unquestioned. Those interested in the advancement of the Yiddish theatre became quite optimistic. They felt certain that it was only a question of time before it would be ranked with the leading theatres of Europe. It was therefore with the suddenness of lightning and with the force of a thunderclap that the governmental ukase prohibiting Yiddish performances within the realms of the Russian Empire came within their midst. This was 1883. All the Yiddish actors were panic-stricken. Many returned to Roumania, some went to Galicia, others to Germany. In none of them could they gain a firm footing. . . . The further history of the Yiddish theatre in Europe is not a very happy one. In 1888 J. B. Gimbel received a governmental permit to open a Yiddish theatre in Lemberg. His company played with middling prosperity. In 1890 the troupe was enlarged by the entrance of Regina Prager and Bertha Kalish, both of Lemberg. . . . With the beginning of the present century it was made possible to operate an Yiddish theatre in Warsaw. It did not prosper, however. . . . After 1904, when the restrictions were lessened, the intellectuals began to agitate for a better drama. . . . When the plays of Peretz, Sholom Aleichem, Sholom Asch, and others were produced, they found no financial approval. In 1908 Peretz Hirshbein organized a company of professional and amateur actors, among whom was Jacob Benami, for the purpose of producing artistic plays. They began in Odessa and toured Southern Russia, but disbanded after a two year struggle. In Warsaw two regular theatres were in operation until the recent war. The one led by Rachel Kaminsky was similar to the American theatres, playing the best current dramas. On the whole, Europe offered little, and those interested in the Yiddish theatre placed their hopes in America. . . .

"In one of the cigar factories of New York, Boris Tomashevsky was employed. Lately from the famous choir of Nissen Belzer, and still quite young, his consuming ambition was to become an actor. . . . One of the workers had two brothers in London acting in *Coldunie,* a popular operetta. When Tomashevsky heard of this, he desired to bring them to New York. Not having the needed capital, he induced Frank Wolf, a friendly saloonkeeper, to finance the enterprise. When the London troupe arrived, the ambitious youth managed to have his name among the list of actors. The botchy performances of these actors did not attract the people as expected, and the entrepreneur returned to his saloonkeeping. This was in September, 1882. Despite this greeting, Golubock, who was the chief actor of the defunct troupe, rented the Old Bowery Garden, gathered the few actors, and began to give two performances weekly. Not to be outdone, Tomashevsky, aided by his numerous family relations, became Golubock's competitor. The following summer a new group of actors arrived from London. Unable to compete with the new company it having real actors, Golubock went to seek his fortunes in Chicago, while the Tomashevsky family sought a haven in Philadelphia. The remaining actors performed most of Goldfaden's plays, now and then producing the concoctions of Joseph Lateiner, who acted as their playwright. Their success was nominal. . . . In 1886 Mogulesko came with a new company of actors, among whom were David Kessler, Leon Blank, and others. The playwright M. Hurwitz was with them. Two theatres were soon in operation, and the meager box-office receipts were hardly enough to keep the actors from going hungry. . . . In 1890 Jacob Adler was engaged to play in New York. . . . In the 90's when the conflict and strife among the theatrical entrepreneurs was reduced to normal competition, two large theatres were performing regularly, with Lateiner and Hurwitz as their chief playwrights. . . . One having an intelligent knowledge of the drama, cannot examine their plays without finding them violating all dramatic laws but one, that of action. But this was their redeeming feature. . . . Lateiner and Hurwitz were honest hackwriters. . . . These playwrights had no originality, no artistic sense. Most of their later plays were mere Yiddishized concoctions of foreign plays. . . . Jacob Gordin came to New York in 1890. . . . Gordin wrote a number of plays. His first, *Siberia,* was accepted by Kenie Lipzin and produced in the Union Theatre. . . . His second drama, *The Pogrom,* was produced in The Roumania Opera House. . . . The Yiddish theatre greatly advanced with the coming of Gordin. Tho his first plays were not successful financially, they at once revolutionized the stage. One must not conclude that these plays were masterpieces. . . . Yet they were far in advance of the plays of his contemporaries. And in his latter dramas he was much more mature as dramatist, and his delineation of character became much finer. His *Mirele Efras, Kreutzer Sonata, King Lear,* etc. . . . contain real people truly depicted. His great weakness as a dramatist was his inability to control his characters. . . . Gordon's chief virtue lay in the influence he exerted upon the Yiddish theatre. . . . A great innovation in his plays was his simple, natural Yiddish; this in direct contrast to the grotesque German of his colleagues. . . . In consequence of . . . [this], Lateiner and Hurwitz were divested of their predominant influence. This gave the younger aspirants an opportunity. The first to enter the mystical stage-door, opened by Gordin, was Leon Kobrin, whose short stories had already become features. Isadore Zolotarevsky was the next to produce acceptable plays. The third to make his successful debut was Zelig Libin, whose masterly descriptions of Jewish life in America had given him some popularity. . . . . In their reaction from the Lateinerised trash, they ushered in a truly golden period. Schiller, Goethe, Zuderman, Tolstoy, and many more of the world's chief dramatists were exploited to the full. . . . In the first heat of enthusiasm those in charge of the Yiddish theatre had carried the pendulum much too far. The audience had been fed too long with the stereotyped melodrama and operetta, to relish an overdose of good drama. . . . The plays of Ibsen or even of Gordin were unable to compete with the cinematograph and Yiddish vaudeville. This became especially evident after the 1905 Massacre had brought a new swell of immigration. . . . The managers were eager to please; they succeeded, but at what a cost! There began a series of *Jewish Hearts* (Lateiner), and *Jewish Souls* (I. Baer), and Jewish what not. These productions were hyperbolical melodramas purported to draw many tears and much laughter. . . . When Sholom Aleichem came to New York, two of his comedies were produced, but in spite of his great popularity as an author, they were withdrawn within a week. *The God of Vengeance* of Sholom Asch proved a moderate exception, but on the whole, the only asylum for worthy plays was to be had in the amateur

dramatic clubs. . . . It must not be thought that New York is the only American city having Yiddish theatres. Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, and many of the larger cities are in possession of one or more Yiddish playhouses. Those cities where no independent theatre exists are visited by the New York companies. On the whole, however, the metropolitan theatres are the heart and soul of the Yiddish drama in America. During these years Goldfaden, Gordin, Mogulesko, Hurwitz, and some of the others who had helped to establish the Yiddish theatre in America, passed away. Within this state of mediocrity the Yiddish theatre remained until the season of 1918-1919. . . .

"In the summer of that year [1918] Morris Schwartz, Benami, and some of their admirers gathered enough capital to lease the Irving Place Theatre, a former German playhouse, and enough artistically inclined players to compose a well balanced company. . . . [The first production having failed] Schwartz . . . produced *The Secluded Corner* (*Dos Fervorfen Vinkel*), by Peretz Hirshbein. . . . The play contains no bombastic rhetoric, no rude jests, no forced problems, nothing but what the audience might see and hear in their own homes. For fourteen weeks it was the joy of the lover of the drama. Tho *The Secluded Corner* was still filling the theatre, it was withdrawn in order to produce a much heralded comedy from the pen of Moishe Nadir (I. Reis) [Success]. . . . It was severely criticised and had to be withdrawn at once. It was replaced by another of Hirshbein's folk-comedies, *The Blacksmith's Daughters* (*Dem Schmid's Techter*), and was played for the remainder of the season. . . . These two comedies would have established the worth of Schwartz as a producer, but he brought forth many more dramas of meritorious value during the season. . . . Many of the best European dramas were performed in Yiddish, among them being *Hedda Gabler, Die Schmeterling Schlacht, Professor Bernhardi, Samson and Delilah, Father, The Ideal Husband, The Power of Darkness,* etc. . . . The one to benefit most was David Pinsky, the following of his plays having been staged: *The Treasure, Isaak Sheftel, The Pitfalls of Love,* and *Gabri and the Women.* The astounding success of the company headed by Schwartz, encouraged Benami, Henrietta Schnitzer, and Emanuel Reicher to organize The Jewish Art Theatre. They set out with very high intentions. Reicher was made the *regisseur* of the company, and with the aid of Benami, the most intelligent Yiddish actor, success seemed assured. The Irving Place Theatre, minus some of the actors that followed Benami to the Art Theatre, but still in possession of a goodly, well balanced company, began the 1919-1920 season with Sholom Aleichem's *Tevieh.* This comedy proved much more pleasing to the public than was thought, and ran for a number of weeks. Later in the season Schwartz secured Jennie Valier, a German actress. She was starred in *The Dancer* by Langiel, the Hungarian dramatist, and proved to be the sensation of the year. . . . The Jewish Art Theatre first produced *The Idle Inn* (*Die Puste Kretchme*) of Hirshbein. This play deals with the superstitious atmosphere surrounding an idle inn. The characters are very similar to his other plays in that they are naïve country folk. . . . During the season there were staged Hauptmann's *Lonely Lives,* Pinsky's *The Dumb Messiah* (*Der Stummer Meshiach*), *Samson and Delilah,* and other dramas of merit. The Broadway critics are very enthusiastic over these theatres. In *The Nation* of December 13, 1919, Ludwig Lewisohn writes of The Jewish Art Theatre, and says in part: 'In its ideals and institutions this is quite easily the noblest theatrical enterprise now existing among us. It stands aloof from all the pressure of commerce and popularity; it has an audience that will respond to high passion and grasp the force of tragic events; it has in its director, Emanuel Reicher, one of the greatest actors of our time, the original creator of many of the chief roles in the works of Ibsen, Hauptmann, and Schnitzler.' I have written at length concerning these two theatres because I feel that they deserve much praise. The other theatres have not been immune from progress. Kobrin, Libin, Zolotarevsky, and the other playwrights are writing better plays, improved in technique if not in dramatic art. They become valuable in training their audiences and in acting as a contrast to the more literary dramatists."—C. Madison, *Yiddish theatre* (*Poet Lore, winter no.,* 1921, *pp.* 498-505, 508-518).

Also in: G. F. Abbott, *Israel in Europe.*—D. Askowith, *Toleration and persecution of the Jews in the Roman empire.*—A. Bildersee, *Jewish post-Biblical history through great personalities from Jochanan ben Zakkai through Moses Mendelssohn.*—C. F. Burney, *Israel's settlement in Canaan.*—I. Cohen, *Jewish life in modern times.*—M. Hess, *Rome and Jerusalem.*—M. H. Harris, *History of the mediæval Jews.*—M. J. Kohler, *Jewish rights at the congresses of Vienna and Aix-la-Chapelle.*—E. G. H. Kraeling, *Aram and Israel.*—H. J. B. A. Leroy-Beaulieu, *Israel among the nations.*—J. Mann, *Jews in Egypt and Palestine under the Fatimid caliphs.*—S. Mendelssohn, *Jews of Africa.*—Idem, *Jews of Asia.*—*Extra-Biblical sources for Hebrew and Jewish history* (tr. by S. A. B. Mercer).—M. Radin, *Jews among the Greeks and Romans.*—L. Simon, *Studies in Jewish nationalism.*—J. Spargo, *Jew and American ideals.*—E. G. White, *Captivity and restoration of Israel.*—L. H. Wild, *Evolution of the Hebrew people and their influence on civilization.*

JEYPORE, or Jeypoor, name of a native state of India and its capital. See Rajputs.

JEZIREH, Al, Arabic name for Mesopotamia. See Mesopotamia: Geography.

JIBUTI, capital and seaport of French Somaliland, northeastern Africa. It has superseded Obok, and is connected by rail with Abyssinia, most of whose foreign trade passes over this route. Situated on the gulf of Aden, Jibuti is an important French port of call.

JIDDAH, town in the southwestern part of the Hejaz, on the Red sea, and about sixty miles west of Mecca. During the World War it was attacked by the Arabs. See World War: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: c, 3.

JIHAD. See Jehad.

JIJELI EXPEDITION. See Barbary states: 1664-1684.

JILJULIEH, town in Palestine northeast of Joppa. It was attacked by the British in 1918 of the World War. See World War: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 14.

JIMENES de Cisneros, Francisco. See Ximenes de Cisneros, Francisco.

JIMENEZ, Juan Isidro, president of Santo Domingo, 1899-1903, and 1914-1916. See Santo Domingo: 1882-1899; 1901-1905; 1908-1918.

JIMMU TENNO, first ruler of Japan, 660-581 B.C., and reputed founder of the line of mikados. See Japan: B.C. 7th-A.D. 5th centuries.

JINGIZ-KHAN. See Jenghiz-Khan.

JINGO, or Jingo-Kogo (fl. 3rd century A.D.), empress of Japan. See Japan: B.C. 7th-A.D. 5th centuries.

JINGOES, name applied to advocates of aggressive and warlike measures by a nation. The word itself is probably a corruption of a Basque word, meaning God. The expression "By Jingo" was common in England in 1877, when a great dispute was going on between the Conservatives, who wished to interfere in the Russo-Turkish War to "protect" Turkey, and the Liberals who wished to abstain from interference. The word Jingo thereafter was applied to any one who stood for aggressive imperialism. See CONSERVATIVE PARTY: England: 1790-1900; TURKEY: 1878.

JINN, or Genii, spirits in Arabian mythology. See MYTHOLOGY: Arabian and Persian.

JIVARA, or Jivaro, Indian tribe. See ANDESIANS; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Inca area.

JOACHIM I (1484-1535), elector of Brandenburg, 1499-1535. See BRANDENBURG: 1417-1640.

JOACHIM II (1505-1571), elector of Brandenburg, 1535-1571. See BRANDENBURG: 1417-1640.

JOACHIM FREDERICK (1546-1608), elector of Brandenburg, 1598-1608. See BRANDENBURG: 1417-1640.

JOAN OF ARC (c. 1411-1431), the "Maid of Orléans" and the national heroine of France. She resisted the English and raised the siege of Orléans, 1429; won the battle of Patay, 1429; captured and sold to the English, 1430; burned at the stake, 1431.

Campaign, trial and execution. See FRANCE: 1429-1431.

Her beatification. See PAPACY: 1909 (April).

Canonization. See PAPACY: 1920 (May).

JOANNA, the Mad (1479-1555), queen of Castile and mother of emperor Charles V. See SPAIN: 1496-1517.

JOANNA I (c. 1327-1382), queen of Naples, 1343-1382. See ITALY (Southern): 1343-1389.

Joanna II (1371-1435), queen of Naples, 1414-1435. See ITALY: 1412-1447.

JOASH, or Jehoash (d. 825 B.C.), king of Jerusalem, 839-825 B.C. See JERUSALEM: B.C. 1400-700.

JOCKEY CLUB, Paris. See CLUBS: 19th-20th centuries: Paris.

JODELLE, Étienne, seigneur de Limodin (1532-1573), French dramatist and poet. See DRAMA: 1500-1700.

JOFFRE, Joseph Jacques Césaire (1852-), marshal of France. Served in the Franco-Prussian War, 1870-1871; appointed chief of general staff, 1911; stopped the German advance upon Paris at the battle of the Marne, 1914; made chief military adviser to the French government upon being relieved from the supreme command, 1916; is an eminent mathematician and member of the French Academy. His chief work on military science is "My March to Timbuctoo."

Chief in command. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: g, 1.

First battle of the Marne. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: o, 1; p, 7.

Battle of Champagne. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: a, 7; i, 9.

Second battle of the Marne. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 12.

French mission to the United States. See U.S.A.: 1917 (April-May); WORLD WAR: 1917: VIII. United States and the war: i, 12.

Polish boundary commission. See POLAND: 1920: Resumption of peace negotiations.

JOGLARS. See TROUBADOURS.

JOHANNESBURG, town in Transvaal, South Africa, about thirty miles southwest of Pretoria.

Origin. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1885-1890.

Revolutionary conspiracy of Uitlanders. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1895-1896.

Taken by British forces. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (May-June).

Library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: South Africa.

JOHANNISBURG, town in Poland, southeast of Königsberg. In 1915 of the World War it was occupied by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: h.

JOHANNINE EPISTLES. See CHRISTIANITY: A.D. 50-100.

JOHN, the Apostle, disciple of Christ, son of Zebedee, a fisherman of Galilee. Was called, with his brother James, to the discipleship of Christ (Mark, 1:19-20); rose to a prominent position among the apostles, and is mentioned by Paul as prominent in the church at Jerusalem, 46-47 A.D.; was probably killed by the Jews about 60-70 A.D. See CHRISTIANITY: A.D. 33-70; 50-100.

John, the Baptist, the forerunner of Christ, son of Zacharias, the priest. His mother Elizabeth was related to Mary, the mother of Christ; at 30 he began his life by preaching in the wilderness of the coming of the Messiah; executed by Herod Antipas about 28 A.D.

JOHN I, pope, 523-526.
John II, pope, 533-535.
John III, pope, 561-574.
John IV, pope, 640-642.
John V, pope, 685-686.
John VI, pope, 701-705.
John VII, pope, 705-707.
John VIII, pope, 872-882.
John IX, pope, 898-900.
John X, pope, 914-928.
John XI, pope, 931-935.
John XII, pope, 955-964.
John XIII, pope, 965-972.
John XIV, pope, 983-984.
John XV, pope, 985-996.
John XVI, anti-pope, 997-998.
John XVII, pope, 1003, June to December.
John XVIII, pope, 1003-1009.
John XIX, pope, 1024-1033.
John XXI, pope, 1276-1277.

John XXII (c. 1244-1334), pope, 1316-1334. Resided at Avignon, and was subservient to the French court; opposed Louis the Bavarian who installed Nicholas V, as anti-pope in Rome, 1328. See ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: Definition.

John XXIII (c. 1360-1419), pope, 1410-1415. Opposed by the anti-popes Benedict XIII and Gregory XII, and was deposed with them in 1415, by the Council of Constance. See PAPACY: 1414-1418; ITALY (Southern): 1386-1414.

John I, Zimisces (925-976), Roman emperor (Eastern), 969-976). See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 963-1025.

John II, Comnenus, or Kalojoames (1088-1143), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1118-1143.

John III, Vatatzes, or Ducas (1193-1254), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1222-1255. See NICÆA: 1204-1261.

John IV, Lascaris (c. 1250-c. 1300), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1258-1261.

John V, or VI, Palaeologus (1332-1391), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1341-1347 and 1355-1391.

John VI, or V, Cantacuzene (c. 1292-1383), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1347-1354. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1348-1355.

John VII, Palaeologus (1390-1448), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1425-1448. He united the Greek and Roman churches. See PAPACY: 1431-1448.

John (d. 1889), king of Abyssinia. See ABYSSINIA: 1854-1889.

John I (1350-1395), king of Aragon, 1387-1395.

John II (1397-1479), king of Aragon, 1458-1479. See NAVARRE: 1442-1521.

John, of Luxemburg (1296-1346), king of Bohemia, 1310-1346. See GERMANY: 1308-1313.

John I (1358-1390), king of Castile, 1379-1390.

John II (1405-1454), king of Castile, 1406-1454. See SPAIN: 1368-1479; CORTES: Early Spanish.

John I (1455-1513), king of Denmark, as John II, king of Sweden, 1481-1513. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 1397-1527.

John (1167-1216), king of England, 1199-1216. He was the second son of Henry II, and succeeded his brother Richard I. This caused a revolt of the French duchies, consequently seized by Philip II, of France; quarreled with the pope over naming the archbishop of Canterbury, 1206; the pope placed England under an interdict, 1208, and issued a bull deposing him, 1212; peace made, 1213; invaded France in alliance with the emperor, but was defeated, 1214; forced to grant the Magna Charta, 1215; deposed by the barons and his crown given to the son of Philip II of France. See ENGLAND: 1199-1202; 1205; ANJOU: 1206-1442; BOUVINES, BATTLE OF; FRANCE: 1214; IRELAND: 1169-1200; 13th-14th centuries.

John I, king of France, 1316.

John II, the Good (1319-1364), king of France, 1350-1364. Captured by the Black prince after being defeated at Poitiers, 1356, and liberated by the English, 1360. See BURGUNDY: 1364.

John, Zapolya (1487-1540), king of Hungary, 1526-1540. See AUSTRIA: 1525-1527; HUNGARY: 1526-1567.

John I, king of Navarre. See JOHN II, KING OF ARAGON.

John II, Casimir (1609-1672), king of Poland, 1648-1668. See POLAND: 1590-1648; 1668-1696; BRANDENBURG: 1640-1688.

John III, Sobieski (1624-1696), king of Poland, 1674-1696. See POLAND: 1668-1696.

John I, the Great (1357-1433), king of Portugal, 1385-1433. See PORTUGAL: 1383-1385.

John II, the Perfect (1455-1495), king of Portugal, 1481-1495. See AMERICA: 1493; PORTUGAL: 1463-1498.

John III (1502-1557), king of Portugal, 1521-1557.

John IV, the Fortunate (1603-1656), king of Portugal, 1640-1656; and duke of Braganza. See PORTUGAL: 1637-1668.

John V (1689-1750), king of Portugal, 1706-1750.

John VI (1769-1826), king of Portugal, 1816-1826. See PORTUGAL: 1824-1889; BRAZIL: 1808-1822.

John II, king of Sweden. See JOHN I, KING OF DENMARK.

John III (1537-1592), king of Sweden, 1568-1592. See SWEDEN: 1523-1604.

John (1782-1859), archduke of Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1848; GERMANY: 1848 (March-September).

John, the Fearless (c. 1371-1419), duke of Burgundy. See FRANCE: 1415-1419.

JOHN, Don, of Austria (1545-1578). Son of Emperor Charles V, and a Spanish soldier; fought the Algerian pirates, 1568; the Moors, 1569-1570; recovered Cyprus from the Turks, 1571; governor-general of the Netherlands, 1576. See NETHERLANDS: 1575-1577; 1577-1581; TURKEY: 1566-1571; 1572-1573.

JOHN ALBERT (1459-1501), king of Poland, 1492-1501. See POLAND: 1333-1572.

JOHN ALEXANDER, ruler of Bulgaria, 1331-1365. See BULGARIA: 1258-1872.

JOHN BALLIOL. See BALLIOL, JOHN DE.

JOHN BULL, well-known nickname applied collectively to the English nation as a popular symbol, in the same manner as "Uncle Sam" has been adopted in the United States. In pictures, particularly in caricatures, John Bull is represented as a bluff, corpulent, irascible old fellow, clad in leather breeches and top boots, and carrying a stout oaken cudgel. The name appears in a satire ridiculing the duke of Marlborough, published in 1712, entitled "History of John Bull.' Though often attributed to Dean Swift and sometimes included in editions of his works, the satire was written by Dr. John Arbuthnot (1667-1735). It is not definitely known whether Arbuthnot originated or only adopted the nickname.

JOHN CASIMIR. See JOHN II, KING OF POLAND.

JOHN CHRYSOSTOM. See CHRYSOSTOM, JOHN.

JOHN COMPANY, name applied to the English East India Company. See INDIA: 1858.

JOHN HERRON ART INSTITUTE. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern: United States.

JOHN OF BRIENNE (c. 1148-1237), king of Jerusalem, 1210-1225, and Latin emperor of Constantinople, 1229-1237. Took part in the 5th Crusade. See JERUSALEM: 1187-1229; CRUSADES: Military aspect of the Crusades.

JOHN OF DAMASCUS (c. 700-754), early Christian missionary and theologian. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: 11th-16th centuries.

JOHN OF DUNSTABLE (d. 1453), Early English composer. See MUSIC: Medieval: 1226-1622.

JOHN OF GAUNT, Duke of Lancaster (1340-1399), English soldier and statesman. See ENGLAND: 1360-1414.

JOHN OF NASSAU (d. 1606), brother of William the Silent. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: Holland.

JOHN OF SPIRES, early printer in Venice. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1469-1515.

JOHN OF SWABIA, the Parricide (1290-c. 1320), German prince. See AUSTRIA: 1291-1349.

JOHN SIGISMUND (1540-1571), king of Hungary and prince of Transylvania, 1540-1571. See HUNGARY: 1526-1567; 1567-1604; 1595-1606.

JOHN SOBIESKI. See JOHN III, KING OF POLAND.

JOHNNIES. See BOYS IN BLUE.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1867; 1916.

JOHNSON, Andrew (1808-1875), seventeenth president of the United States. Member of Tennessee legislature, 1835-1837, 1839, 1841; member of national House of Representatives, 1843-1853; governor of Tennessee, 1853-1857; member of United States Senate, 1857-1861; military governor of Tennessee, 1862-1864; elected vice president of the United States, 1864, becoming president on the death of Lincoln, 1865-1869; member of United States Senate, 1875.

Military governor of Tennessee. See U.S.A.: 1862 (March-June); TENNESSEE: 1834-1856.

Election to vice presidency. See U.S.A.: 1864 (May-November).

Succession to presidency. See U.S.A.: 1865 (Apr. 15).

Reconstruction policy. See U.S.A.: 1865 (May-July) to 1867 (March); 1868-1870: Reconstruction complete; FLORIDA: 1865-1868.

Impeachment. See U.S.A.: 1868 (March-May);

CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: Senate: Impeachment.

JOHNSON, Hiram Warren (1866-), American governor and senator. Became prominent in 1906 through his participation in the trial of San Francisco graft cases; governor of California, 1911-1915; reëlected for the term, 1915-1919; resigned, 1917. One of the founders of the Progressive party, 1912, and its candidate for vice president, 1917; United States senator, 1917-1923. See CALIFORNIA: 1916; U.S.A.: 1912: Formation of Progressive party; 1919 (July-September): President Wilson endeavors to obtain unconditional ratification of treaty.

JOHNSON, James (1810-1891), governor of Georgia, 1865. See U.S.A.: 1865 (May-July).

JOHNSON, Sir John (1742-1830), American Tory leader. See U.S.A.: 1779 (August-September).

JOHNSON, John Albert (1861-1909), governor of Minnesota, 1904-1909. See MINNESOTA: 1904-1921.

JOHNSON, John Neeley, governor of California, 1856-1858. See CALIFORNIA: 1856.

JOHNSON, Samuel (1709-1784), English author and lexicographer; leading figure among the classicists, his works include poetry, drama and essays; published "The Vanity of Human Wishes," 1749; dictionary of the English language, 1755; founded his famous literary club, 1763; brought out an edition of Shakespeare, 1765; closed his literary career with "Lives of the Poets," 1779-1781. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1660-1780; CLUBS: Dr. Johnson's.

JOHNSON, Samuel (1696-1772), American educator. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1746-1787.

JOHNSON, Thomas (1732-1819), American statesman. Delegate to first continental congress. See U.S.A.: 1774 (September); MARYLAND: 1776-1783.

JOHNSON, Sir William (1715-1774), British soldier and head of Indian affairs in America. See CANADA: 1755 (September); U.S.A.: 1765-1768.

JOHNSON-CLARENDON CONVENTION. See ALABAMA CLAIMS: 1862-1869.

JOHNSON COUNTY RAID. See WYOMING: 1892.

JOHNSTON, Albert Sidney (1803-1862), American Confederate general. Fought in the battle of Shiloh, where he met his death. See U.S.A.: 1862: (January-February: Kentucky-Tennessee); (February-April: Tennessee); UTAH: 1857-1859.

JOHNSTON, Joseph Eggleston (1807-1891), American Confederate general. Took part in the Black Hawk, Seminole, and Mexican wars; appointed quartermaster general of the army, 1860; resigned his commission, 1861, and was appointed one of the first five brigadier generals in the Confederate service.

At first battle of Bull Run. See U.S.A.: 1861 (July-Virginia).

Command in northern Virginia. See U.S.A.: 1861-1862 (December-April: Virginia).

Command on the peninsula. See U.S.A.: 1862 (March-May: Virginia), to (May: Virginia).

Command in the west. See U.S.A.: 1863 (April-July: On the Mississippi).

Atlanta campaign.—Relieved of command. See U.S.A.: 1864 (May: Georgia); (May-September: Georgia).

Command in the Carolinas. See U.S.A.: 1865 (February-March: Carolinas).

Surrender. See U.S.A.: 1865 (Apr. 26).

JOHNSTOWN FLOOD. See U.S.A.: 1889-1890; PENNSYLVANIA: 1889.

JOHOR, one of the Federated Malay States. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: 1909-1914.

JOINT DISTRIBUTION COMMITTEE. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: Jewish relief.

JOINT HIGH COMMISSION, created 1871 to settle questions between Great Britain and the United States. See ALABAMA CLAIMS: 1869-1871; 1871.

JOINT HIGH COMMISSION, created 1897 to settle questions between the United States and Canada. See ALASKA BOUNDARY QUESTION: 1867-1903; BERING SEA QUESTION; CANADA: 1898-1899.

JOINT RESOLUTION, term used in American politics to indicate the expression of legislative opinion upon matters of a temporary, private, local, or incidental character, by both houses of the legislative body jointly. It is used in Congress and in many of the states. The term is distinguished from concurrent resolution in that the latter is the concern of the legislative body only, and is therefore not submitted to the executive for approval.

JOINT STATEHOOD ACT (1906). See U.S.A.: 1906 (June).

JOINT STOCK LAND BANKS. See RURAL CREDIT.

JOINT STOCK LIBRARIES. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: Early history.

JOINVILLE, Jean, Sire de (1224-1319), French chronicler. See HISTORY: 19; 20.

JOINVILLE ISLAND, in the Antarctic regions, south of the South Shetlands. Discovered, 1838. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1819-1838.

JOLIET, Louis (1645-1700), French Canadian explorer. See CANADA: 1634-1673.

JOLO. See SULU.

JOMINI, Antoine Henri, Baron (1779-1869), Swiss military writer, general in the French and later in the Russian service; appointed chief of staff to Marshal Ney, 1808; published "Précis de l'art de la guerre," 1836.

JOMSBORG, stronghold at the mouth of the Oder, became, in the later part of the tenth and early part of the eleventh centuries, a noted fastness of the piratical heathen Danes, who found there "a secure refuge from the new religion and the civilization it brought with it," which their country was then submitting to. They founded at Jomsborg "a state to which no man might belong save on proof of courage, where no woman might enter within the walls, and where all booty was in common."—J. R. Green, *Conquest of England, pp.* 366-367.—"The impregnable castle of a certain body corporate, or 'Sea-Robbery Association (limited)' which, for some generations, held the Baltic in terror, and plundered far beyond the Belt,—in the ocean itself, in Flanders and the opulent trading havens there,—above all, in opulent anarchic England, which, for forty years from about this time, was the pirates' Goshen; and yielded, regularly every summer, slaves, danegelt, and miscellaneous plunder, like no other country Jomsburg or the viking-world had ever known."—T. Carlyle, *Early kings of Norway, ch.* 5.—The pirate-nest at Jomsborg was broken up, about the middle of the tenth century, by Magnus the Good, of Norway.

JONCAIRE, Captain, French Canadian who established commercial relations with the Iroquois. See NIAGARA: 1725-1726.

JONCOURT, village in France, about ten miles southeast of Cambrai. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: 0, 2.

JONES, Henry Arthur (1851-), English playwright. See DRAMA: 1888-1921.

JONES, Inigo (1573-1652), English architect. Appointed surveyor-general of the royal buildings, 1615; planned the palace of Whitehall, of which only the banqueting hall was carried out, 1618.

JONES, Jacob (1768-1850), American naval officer. See U.S.A.: 1812-1813: Indifference to the navy.

JONES, James Chamberlain (1809-1859), United States senator and governor of Tennessee, 1841-1845. See TENNESSEE: 1834-1856.

JONES, John Paul (1747-1792), Scottish-American naval officer. See U.S.A.: 1775-1776: Beginnings of American navy; 1779 (September); 1905 (February-June).

JONES, Samuel Milton (1846-1904), mayor of Toledo. His reform policy won him the title of "Golden Rule" Jones. See TOLEDO: 1899-1903.

JONES, Sir William (1746-1794, English Orientalist. See PHILOLOGY: 5.

JONES ACT. See PORTO RICO: 1917.

JONES LAW (1916), for Philippine autonomy. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1913-1917.

JONESBORO', Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1864 (May-September: Georgia).

JONESCU, Take (1858-1922), Rumanian statesman. Gained international distinction during the World War by bringing in Rumania on the side of the Allies; minister without portfolio in Bratinu's cabinet, 1916; driven from Rumania on the defeat of that country, 1918; returned and took part in forming a new cabinet, 1919; minister of foreign affairs in General Averescu's cabinet, 1920; premier and minister of finance, 1921-1922 (December-January); represented Rumania in the Assembly of the League of Nations.—See also WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: c, 2.

JONES-WORKS LAW (1912). See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1906-1913.

JONGLEURS, public minstrels in medieval France. See TROUBADOURS; FRENCH LITERATURE: 1050-1350; MUSIC: Medieval: 12th century.

JONNART, Charles (1857-), French diplomat. As allied high commissioner to Greece forced the abdication of King Constantine and the renunciation of the crown prince's right of succession, June 11, 1917; appointed minister of blockade and invaded regions in the Clemenceau cabinet, November 16, 1917. See GREECE: 1917; MOROCCO: 1895-1906. WORLD WAR: 1917: V. Balkan theater: a, 1; a, 3; a, 6.

JONSON, Ben (c. 1573-1637), English dramatist. See DRAMA: 1592-1648.

JOPPA. See JAFFA.

JORDAN, David Starr (1851-), American educator and ichthyologist. See BERING SEA QUESTION.

JORDAN, principal river in Palestine. In the World War, 1917-1918, the English and their Arab allies from Hejaz conducted in the valley of the Jordan successful campaigns against the Turkish armies. See PALESTINE: Land; WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 1; c, 5; c, 8; c, 20; CHRISTIANITY: Map of Canaan.

JORDANIA, Noé, first president of the Georgian republic. See GEORGIA, REPUBLIC OF: 1800-1918.

JORIS, or Joriszoon, David (c. 1501-1556), Anabaptist leader. See DAVIDISTS.

JORJAN. See HYRCANIA.

JOSEPH I (1678-1711), Holy Roman emperor, 1705-1711; king of Hungary, 1687-1711; king of the Romans, 1690-1711.

Joseph II (1741-1790), Holy Roman emperor, 1765-1790. Elected king of the Romans, 1764, and co-regent with Maria Theresa, 1765; participated in the war of the Bavarian succession, 1778-1779; became sole ruler, 1780; proclaimed "Edict of Tolerance," 1781; joined Russia against Turkey, 1788; suffered a revolt in the Netherlands, 1789-1790. See AUSTRIA: 1765-1790; 1790-1797; BAVARIA: 1777-1779; BOHEMIA: 1780-1848; GERMANY: 1763-1790; HUNGARY: 1780-1790; NETHERLANDS: 1747-1795; POLAND: 1791-1792; ROME: Modern city: 1782-1790.

JOSEPH (1872-), former archduke of Austria and Austro-Hungarian field marshal. Regent of Hungary, August-September, 1919; forced to retire by the Entente powers. See HUNGARY: 1918 (November); 1919-1920.

JOSEPH, Emir al momenim, Almoravide prince. See ALMORAVIDES.

JOSEPH, Nez Percés Indian chief. See IDAHO: 1869-1878; NEZ PERCÉS; U.S.A.: 1866-1876.

Joseph's War. See OREGON: 1861-1878.

JOSEPH BONAPARTE. See BONAPARTE, JOSEPH.

JOSEPH FELS FUND COMMISSION (1909). See SINGLE TAX: History of the idea, etc.; OREGON: 1908-1914.

JOSEPHINE, Marie Rose Tascher de la Pagerie (1763-1814), empress of the French. Her first husband was Alexandre, vicomte de Beauharnais, by whom she had two children. Eugène and Hortense. Beauharnais was executed during the Terror. She married Napoleon Bonaparte just before he started on his Italian campaign, March, 1796; crowned empress December 2, 1804; the childlessness of their union served as an excuse for their divorce, 1809. The Senate, after the divorce, bestowed imperial honors and a large annuity upon Josephine, and she retired to Malmaison. See FRANCE: 1810-1812.

JOSEPHITES. See JEWS: Children of Israel in Egypt.

JOSEPHUS, Flavius (c. 37-c. 95), Jewish historian. See HISTORY: 14; JESUS CHRIST: Testimony of Josephus; GREEK LITERATURE: Greco-Roman period: History.

JOSQUIN DES PRÉS. See DE PRÉS, JOSQUIN.

JOSS, widely used term applied to Chinese idols and deities. It is a pidgin-English corruption of "deos," the Portuguese word for a god. See CHINA: 1898-1899.

JOST VAN DYKE ISLAND. See VIRGIN ISLANDS.

JOTAPATA, Siege of (67 A.D.).—The Jewish city of Jotapata, defended by the historian Josephus, was besieged by Vespasian for forty-seven days and taken.—Josephus, *Jewish war, bk.* 3, *ch.* 7-8.

JOUBERT, Barthélemy Catherine (1769-1799), French revolutionary general. Commander-in-chief in Italy, 1799; killed at the battle of Novi, 1799. See FRANCE: 1796-1797; 1798-1799; 1799 (April).

JOUBERT, Petrus Jacobus (1834-1900), South African statesman and general. Acted as president in the absence of T. F. Burgers, 1875, and in Kruger's absence, 1883-1884; commandant-general of the Boer forces, 1880-1881; conducted negotiations leading to the Pretoria convention, 1881; defeated by Kruger three times for presidency; commander-in-chief of the Boer forces at the outbreak of the South African War, 1899. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (October-November); 1900 (March).

JOUFFROY D'ABBANS, Claude François Dorothee (1751-1832), French inventor and engineer. See STEAM NAVIGATION: Beginnings.

JOULE, James Prescott (1818-1889), English physicist. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1825-1921.

JOURDAN, Jean Baptiste, Count (1762-1833), French marshal. Served in a French regiment in the American revolution; won the battle of Wattignies, 1793; victorious at Fleurus, 1794. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December): Progress of the war; 1794 (June-July): French victory; 1795 (June-December); 1796 (April-October); 1798-1799 (August-April); 1801-1803.

JOURNEYMAN, worker who has learned his trade, as distinguished from an apprentice. See GUILDS: Medieval; COMPAGNONNAGES; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1720-1800.

JOUST, contest or tilt on horseback. See TOURNEY.

JOVELLANOS, or Jove Llanos, Gaspar Melchor de (1744-1811), Spanish statesman and author. Minister of grace and justice under Godoy, 1797; imprisoned, 1801-1808; member of the central junta.

JOVIAN, Flavius Claudius (c. 332-364), Roman emperor, 363-364. See ROME: Empire: 363-379.

JOVIANS AND HERCULIANS. See PRÆTORIAN GUARDS: 312.

JOYOUS ENTRY INTO BRABANT (1477). See NETHERLANDS: 1477: Severance from Burgundy.

Into Netherlands (1583). See NETHERLANDS: 1581-1584.

JU JU SACRIFICE. See NIGERIA: 1897.

JUAN. See JOHN.

JUAN AVO, Indian tribe. See GUCK OR COCO GROUP.

JUANGS, tribe in India. See INDIA: People.

JUAREZ, Benito Pablo (1806-1872), president of Mexico, 1858-1872. See MEXICO: 1848-1861; 1861-1867; 1867-1892; 1906.

JUAREZ CELMAN, Miguel (1844-), president of Argentina, 1886-1890. See ARGENTINA: 1880-1891.

JUBA I (fl. 1st century B.C.), king of Numidia. See UTICA: Curio's defeat.

JUBILEE, Diamond: Of Queen Victoria. See ENGLAND: 1897 (June).

JUBILEE, Papal institution of the. See PAPACY: 1294-1348.

JUBILEE ANNIVERSARY, South Dakota. See SOUTH DAKOTA: 1911.

JUBILEE YEAR, Papal (1900). See PAPACY: 1900-1901.

JUDÆA, ancient name of Palestine. See PALESTINE: Name.

JUDAH, Kingdom of. See JEWS: Definition; Kingdoms of Israel and Judah; B.C. 604-536; B.C. 724-604; JERUSALEM: B.C. 1400-700; HEBRON.

JUDAISM. See JEWS.

JUDAS ISCARIOT, one of the Apostles of Christ, and His betrayer. See JESUS CHRIST: Antagonism roused, etc.

JUDAS MACCABÆUS. See MACCABÆUS, JUDAS.

JUDENICH. See YUDENICH, NIKOLAI.

JUDEO-GERMAN LITERATURE. See JEWS: Language and literature.

JUDGE, William Quan (1851-1892), Irish-American theosophist. See THEOSOPHY.

JUDGES, Book of. See HISTORY: 14.

JUDGES, Conference of (1913). See COURTS: United States: Lack of uniformity.

JUDGES OF ISRAEL. See JEWS: Israel under the Judges.

JUDGMENT OF GOD. See ORDEAL; WAGER OF BATTLE.

JUDICATURE ACTS. See COMMON LAW: 1278; 1873; ADMIRALTY LAW: 1873.

JUDICES DECEMVIRI, Rome. See CIVIL LAW: B.C. 471.

JUDICIAL COMBAT. See WAGER OF BATTLE.

JUDICIAL COMMITTEE AMENDMENT ACT (1895). See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial federation: Privy council as supreme court.

JUDICIAL CONTROL. See ADMINISTRATIVE LAW.

JUDICIAL OFFICES, Sale of. See COMMON LAW: 1258.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM. See COURTS.

JUDICIARY. See COURTS; SUPREME COURT.

JUDITH (fl. 862), queen of England, and daughter of Charles the Bald of France. See FLANDERS: 863.

JUGANTES. See BRITAIN: Celtic Tribes.

JUGDULLUK, pass in northern India, where British soldiers were massacred by the Afghans, 1842. See AFGHANISTAN: 1838-1842.

JUGERUM.—"A Roman jugerum [of land] was somewhat less than two-thirds of a statute acre."—W. Ihne, *History of Rome, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 7, *footnote.*

JUGGERNAUT, name under which Vishnu is worshipped at Puri in Orissa, India. Immense crowds participate in the annual Car festival in the early summer, when the huge image of the god is drawn on a large car from one temple to another; but the common belief that the worshippers throw themselves under the wheels is wholly untrue.

JUGORIA, country in the southern part of the Ural mountains. See HUNGARY: Origin.

JUGO-SLAVIA, or Yugoslavia, popular name given to the "Kingdom of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes"; an inland kingdom of southeastern Europe, situated north of the Balkan peninsula, and extending uninterruptedly from southern Carinthia, Styria, southern and southwestern Hungary to the southern frontiers of Montenegro and Serbia. It is bounded on the west by the Adriatic and on the east by Bulgaria. In 1920 it had an estimated population of 11,337,686. (See EUROPE: Modern: Political map.) The state took its rise at the close of the World War by a union of the territories of the southern Slavs with Serbia as the predominant partner. During the war these peoples rallied together for the creation of a single nation under the headship of King Peter of Serbia, an age-long aspiration carried into effect by the Peace conference. The executive is vested in the king and his ministers, and the legislative authority in the king in conjunction with the National Assembly or Narodna Skupshtina and a State Council. The parliament, which is seated in Belgrade, is composed of 166 deputies elected by universal suffrage for four years; the Council has sixteen members, eight nominated by the king and eight by the Assembly. It may be truly said that the desire of the Southern Slavs to erect this state—a "Greater Serbia"—was the direct cause of the great war, the assassinations at Serajevo on June 28, 1914, being but one of numerous manifestations of Pan-Serbian propaganda. It was to crush this movement that Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia, and thereby kindled the conflagration that eventually spread over the whole world.

Resources.—Jugo-Slavia has 11,930,740 acres in farm lands of which 21 per cent is arable and largely given over to the raising of cereals and tobacco, to gardening, and fruit and vine production. It has forests aggregating 3,792,000 acres, consisting of fir, oak, and bush, and mineral resources of great value which cannot be fully developed without the entrance of a large amount

of foreign capital. Coal, iron and copper are the leading minerals but the state also yields lignite, lead, zinc, gold, and cement. In 1920, the total coal production was 2,494,258 metric tons. Silk culture, carpet weaving, flour milling and cattle raising, constitute other activities. Jugo-Slavia's chief problems are the exploitation of her vast mineral and agricultural resources and the improvement of her communications.—See also BALKAN STATES: Map.

Jugo-Slav peoples. — Their religions and alphabets.—"The Jugo-Slavs belong to the southern branch of the Slav family; they include the Slovenes, Serbs, and Croats. [See BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities.] . . . On the fringes of this [new Jugo-Slav] territory there are almost everywhere areas of mixed population where the drawing of an equitable frontier line will be a matter of extreme difficulty, further complicated by the frequent conflicts of racial and strategic considerations. But within it the Jugo-Slavs form a population united by blood, by language, and to a certain extent by national tradition, though divided by religion as well as, hitherto, by government. The Jugo-Slavs of Austria were distributed among six provinces, while the inhabitants of Croatia-Slavonia were attached to Hungary, though, unlike the Serbs of South Hungary they enjoy a limited measure of home rule. . . . Outside the Dual Monarchy the Jugo-Slavs [were] divided between the independent kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro. As regards religion, the Slovenes are purely Catholic; Serbia, Montenegro, and the Serbs of South Hungary, Orthodox [Greek]. Elsewhere the two confessions are closely intermingled, generally in such a way that no geographical line can be drawn between them. In Bosnia-Herzegovina the Orthodox form the largest, the Moslems the second element in the State; but the Catholic element is also very considerable. In Croatia-Slavonia the Catholics form about two-thirds, the Orthodox nearly one-third of the population. The difference in religion coincides with a difference of alphabets. Orthodox communities using the Cyrillic, Catholic the Latin characters. The common national literature is printed partly in one type, partly in the other; hence both are equally familiar to the educated, and the Latin type is at least very generally taught in the primary schools of Orthodox districts. Among the Jugo-Slavs of the former Habsburg monarchy the Slovenes [occupied] territories farthest north and north-west, including, besides the southern part of Carinthia and Styria, the whole of Carniola, the northernmost strip of Istria, and a large part of Gorizia-Gradisca. Their chief centre . . . [was] Ljubljana (Laibach). There is a large Slovene minority in the population of Trieste city, and a considerable majority in Gorizia and Gradisca together. These northernmost Jugo-Slavs . . . [had] been under German rule for a thousand years, and . . . [had] followed the fortunes of the Austrian Duchies under the Babenberg and Habsburg dynasties. The vigor of their nationality was so marked that they . . . [had] preserved their language, identity, and racial cohesion down to the present day. The speech of the Slovenes, though allied to the Serbo-Croatian, is a distinct variety, but intelligible to their Serbo-Croatian neighbours; for some time moreover, an educational and literary movement has been at work among them, tending towards linguistic assimilation to the latter. From close contact with German and Italian elements in the towns, the Slovenes have been able to attain a relatively high educational stands. They alone among the Jugo-Slavs were affected by the Reformation; and, though the movement was finally stamped out by the Counter-Reformation, it may be said that something of its spirit survives in the temper of the Slovene people. The rest of the Jugo-Slav population of Austria Hungary . . . [was] Serbo-Croatian. Serbs and Croats cannot be distinguished racially. They are the descendants of two closely related tribes which in the seventh century entered side by side the Roman province of Illyricum. [See ILLYRICUM OF THE ROMANS.] In spite of the political barriers which have at practically all periods of their history impeded their intercourse, their language is at the present day uniform to such a degree that its extreme varieties as spoken by the Croats of the Save valley and by the Herzegovinian Serbs of the Narenta, differ less perhaps than the dialects of Lancashire and the Midlands. The difference of name indicates, therefore, rather a difference of religion than of race, the Croats being Catholics, the Serbs Orthodox. The cause of the divergence is to be found in the fact that from the time of Diocletian onwards the Roman Empire was divided for administrative purposes, and that the province of Illyricum fell partly to the eastern, partly to the western half. Hence the Serbs, the more easterly of the invading tribes, found themselves under the authority, more or less effectively asserted, of Byzantium, and ultimately received from that quarter the Orthodox faith. The Croats settled within the limits of the Western Empire, in regions where the See of Rome endeavored incessantly, and on the whole succesfully, to maintain its spiritual authority. Later on, the cause of Latin Christianity in this region was reinforced and its triumph ensured by the rise of Hungary in the north and of Venice on the Adriatic side. Religious antagonism, however, appears on the whole to have been conspicuous by its absence. . . . To the 'Illyrists' of the nineteenth century the religious distinction appeared unimportant, and in 1848 it proved no obstacle to the co-operation of Serbs and Croats. Bishop Strossmayer and Dr. Franjo Racki, President of the South Slav Academy, both churchmen of high distinction, identified themselves with the cause of Jugo-Slav unity, and maintained friendly relations with the Orthodox clergy."—*Jugo-Slav movement (Handbook of the Historical Section of the British Foreign Office, pp. 1-5).*—See also SLAVS; CROATIA; SERBIA.

1807-1835.—Early tendencies toward unity.—Illyria.—"Napoleon, whose brilliant career wrought so many changes in Europe, also exercised a profound impression upon the future destiny of the Southern Slavs. After having conquered Dalmatia [see DALMATIA: 1797-1814], and deprived Austria of Istria, Goritzia, Carinthia and Carniola, together with part of Croatia, he united all these provinces on the basis of their ethnographic coherence in the one kingdom of Illyria with its capital at Ljubljana [Laibach]. This kingdom of Illyria was the first purely Southern Slav state since the ninth century in which all three branches of the race—Serbs, Croats and Slovenes—were united under one administration. [See GERMANY: 1809 (July-September).] Notwithstanding its short life this state awoke high hopes for their ultimate unification, and has ever since remained the ideal of the Southern Slav patriots. Later on in the thirties of last century the Croatian patriot Ludevit Gaj [1809-1872], in his desire to give a common form to the new national movement amongst the Southern Slavs, proposed that all Southern Slavs should discard their provincial

names of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes and adopt the common name of Illyrians, because their country was called Illyria in Roman and Byzantine times and because the Serbs were commonly referred to as 'Illyrians' in Vienna. He also advocated the discontinuance of the use of local dialects in literature and the adoption of the idiom spoken by great numbers of the Serbo-Croat people in Dalmatia, Montenegro, Bosnia, Serbia and Southern Hungary, as the official and literary language of the nation. The Croats, without exception, adopted this suggestion and since that time their literary language has been the same as that of the Serbs. Gaj's task was rendered comparatively easy by the fact that the works of Vuk Karadjic, the father of the new Serbian literature, had already exemplified all the beauty and richness of this Slav idiom, and the Serbian national songs and ballads collected and published by Vuk Karadjic had evolved the admiration of Europe."—V. R. Savic, *Southeastern Europe, pp.* 74-75.

1848-1867.—Transition period.—"The revolution of 1848 demonstrated still further the friendly relations of these potential rivals as national unifiers. For the first time, the Croats and Serbs publicly fraternized and showed that the seemingly insurmountable barrier of religious difference tended to disappear in the struggle for national independence. In this sense the events of 1848—when the hand of the foreign master was for the while taken away—have given confident hope to those who believe that Jugo-Slav differences are soluble. Jelacic, Ban of Croatia, the idol of the Serbo-Croats, was proclaimed dictator and supported by the Croatian Diet at Zagreb (Agram) and the Serbian assembly at Karlovac (Karlowitz). The Serb Patriarch Rejacic and the young and gifted Stratimirovic, provisional administrator of the Serb Vojvodina, attended the Croatian Diet and the High Mass where Bishop Ozegovic sang the Te Deum in Old Slavic. After Gaj, Rajacic, and Stratimirovic had failed at Vienna and Pressburg to bend the dynasty or the defiant Kossuth, Jelacic was empowered to defend the monarchy and bring back the historical rights of the Triune Kingdom and the Serb Vojvodina. [See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849; HUNGARY: 1847-1849.] The dynasty and the monarchy survived, but Jugo-Slav hopes and the promises they had received were unfulfilled or soon withdrawn, as for instance the Vojvodina in 1861. Absolutism reigned supreme from 1849 to 1860. [See AUSTRIA: 1849-1859.] This disappointment led the Croats and Serbs to try coöperation with the Magyars, who under Deák and Eötvös appeared to be anxious to conciliate the non-Magyars in those uncertain years which began in 1859 and ended in dualism. Austria lacked a great statesman, and the Prusso-Austrian rivalry led the fearful and impatient Francis Joseph into the Compromise (Ausgleich) of 1867. It was a work of haste and expediency and bound with it the fate of the dynasty. Thereafter, the German minority in Austria and the Magyar minority in Hungary were the decisive factors in the problems confronting the Jugo-Slavs. Dalmatia was handed over to Austria; Croatia, by a compromise which she . . . never really accepted, to Hungary."—R. J. Kerner, *Russian revolution, pp.* 88-90.—See also HUNGARY: 1868-1890.

1867-1914.—Austrian policy in Balkan states.—"The foreign policy of Austria-Hungary during this period had to do mostly with ambitions in the Balkans and attempts to extend to the south. With the new German Empire cordial relations were established. With respect to Italy the old ambitions were completely given over. In the latter part of the nineteenth century, while other European powers were making themselves greater by colonial expansion the Dual Monarchy hoped to reach southward along the eastern shore of the Adriatic and down through the Balkans to an outlet, perhaps at Salonica. As early as the War for Greek Independence it was evident that Austria and Russia were suspicious of each other in rivalry about the Balkans. This was more apparent in 1877, when the Russo-Turkish War began. In the next year, at the Congress of Berlin, when Russia was forced to let a great part of what she had accomplished be undone, Austria-Hungary was given the administration of the two Turkish provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, peopled with South Slavs, and conveniently adjoining her own Slavic provinces of Dalmatia and Croatia-Slavonia. [See BALKAN STATES: 1878; BERLIN, TREATY OF.] . . . In the southern provinces of the Monarchy just before the [World] war there were 7,000,000 Jugo-Slavs, while across the border in Montenegro and Servia there were 5,000,000. Once these people had been glad to escape the Turkish yoke by being taken into the Austrian dominions, and now in the Dual Monarchy they had no little prosperity and progress. But meanwhile, Rumania and Servia had grown up, and in course of time, as the Ruman and South Slavic subjects of Austria-Hungary saw themselves treated as inferiors and debarred from equal rights, some of them began to yearn for the day when they might be united with their brethren. Thus the statesmen of the Dual Monarchy saw it threatened with disintegration. Just before the Great War, it is said, the ill-fated Archduke Franz Ferdinand cherished the scheme of admitting the Slavs to a partnership with Magyars and Germans; but this plan, which would probably have failed to cure the ills of the state, never was tried."—E. R. Turner, *Europe, pp.* 444-445.—See also DALMATIA: 1861-1914.

1868-1917.—Relations and conditions among Jugo-Slav peoples.—Declaration of Corfu.—"The Ausgleich between Austria and Hungary and Hungary and Croatia opened in 1868 a period which ended in 1905—it was a period, on the one hand of the greatest decay and decomposition in the political life of the Jugo-Slavs, and, on the other, of the greatest literary and intellectual unity as shaped by Bishop Strossmayer and Peter I and Nicholas of Montenegro. Bishop Strossmayer and the Slovene, Croat, and Serb academies, matica, and learned societies, as well as men of literature, spoke, wrote, and pleaded for unity in this period, in vain. But they and the universities of Prague and Zagreb produced a younger generation which later took up the fight for national unity and which abandoned individual political foibles and looked over the boundaries of their provinces for inspiration. Among the Slovenes, politics degenerated into the struggle for minor concessions from the court at Vienna in regard to the Slovene language and schools, while political parties multiplied freely through personal and social differences. The lines which bound them to their kinsmen in the south were weakest during this period. The Croats found themselves no match for the astute Magyars who resorted to packed diets, gerrymandering, bribery, and forgery. The Compromise (Nagoda) of 1868 was as decisive as the murder of the farsighted Prince Michael of Serbia in that year. It will be remembered that, in spite of his many faults, he had made an

agreement with Montenegro for the ultimate merging of their states and, after allying himself with Rumania, had carried out an agreement with the Bulgarian committee for the amalgamation of Bulgaria with Serbia, thus obtaining a commanding influence in the Balkans. With his death, Serbia fell into the hands of Milan and Alexander, whose weak and erratically despotic reigns ushered in an era in Serbian history from which she emerged in 1903, through the assassination and the extinction of the last of the Obrenovics, a country without a good name, a nation which, through no special fault of its own, had become degraded. It was in the midst of this political decay that the Bosnians revolted in 1875 and that Serbia, Montenegro, Russia, and Rumania became involved in the Russo-Turkish war. Space forbids any but the most hasty survey of the occupation and administration by Austria of Bosnia and the Herzegovina by virtue of the Treaty of Berlin in 1878. [See BERLIN, TREATY OF.] Bismarck, Francis Joseph, and Andrassy were swayed by differing motives whose total result was that Austria was to become a Balkan power—the outpost of the German *Drang nach Osten* (q. v.) and that it was worth while making a greater Serbia impossible, even at the cost of increasing the number of Slavs in the Habsburg monarchy, which, now reënforced by the Ausgleich, could stand the strain of advancing democracy and the necessity therefore of granting further rights to the Slavs. The occupation of Bosnia led to the first real quarrels in modern times between Croat and Serb, for the former wanted Bosnia in Greater Croatia in order to have connection with Dalmatia; the latter wished it annexed to Greater Serbia, because it was Serbian. Magyar and German, further, quarreled as to the status of Bosnia and left it unsettled. But one thing was settled by the occupation in 1879 and the annexation in 1908. Neither Greater Croatia nor Greater Serbia were any longer truly possible as a final solution, only a Jugo-Slavia. The Greater Croatia received a mortal blow by the addition of Serbs up to more than one third of the number of Croats in Austria-Hungary, and Serbia faced the future either as a vassal or as a territory which must be annexed. From that time until the present the Habsburg monarchy, largely owing to the predominance of the Magyars in Croatia, adopted a policy of prevention—Jugo-Slav nationality was to be prevented. Viewed in that light the rule of Count Khuen-Hedervary, Ban of Croatia from 1883 to 1903,—in which time, according to Croats, he corrupted a whole generation, turned Serb against Croat, and played out the radical demands of the party of Starcevic and Frank,—is intelligible. The policy of Count Khuen, which was based on corruption and forgery, on press-muzzling and career-exploding, has since been imitated, and its imitation has been largely responsible for this war. It was not until the Serbs and Croats formed their coalition in 1905 that the trial of strength had come. In Serbia, Peter Karageorgevitch ascended the throne and reversed the pro-Austrian policy of his predecessor. This it will be remembered was influenced until then by the Bulgarian policy of Russia and by Serbia's defeat at the hands of Bulgaria in 1885. The commercial treaty with Bulgaria in 1905, and the tariff war which Austria began immediately afterward, pointed out which way the wind was blowing. An era big with decisive events arrived. The Jugo-Slavs had learned that union meant victory, division foreign mastery. Petty politics and religious fanaticism were forgotten, and Jugo-Slav nationality was formed in the fierce fires of Austro-Magyar terrorism and forgery, and in the whirlwind reaped from the Balkan wars. [See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1903-1905; 1908-1909; SERBIA: 1903-1908.] It was too late to talk of trialism [to supersede dualism in a new *Ausgleich*] unless it meant independence, and, when it meant that, it did not mean Austrian trialism. The treason trial by which Baron Rauch hoped to split the Serbo-Croat coalition, and which was to furnish the cause of a war with Serbia on the annexation of Bosnia in 1908, collapsed. It rested on forgeries concocted within the walls of the Austro-Hungarian legation in Belgrade where Count Forgach held forth. The annexation of Bosnia in 1908 completed the operation begun in 1878 and called for the completion of the policy of prevention. It was the forerunner of the press campaign in the first Balkan war, the Prohaska affair, the attack by Bulgaria upon Serbia and Greece, the rebuff to Masaryk and Pasic, the murder of Francis Ferdinand, and the Austro-Hungarian note to Serbia. The mysteries connected with the forgeries and this chain of events will remain a fertile field for detectives and psychologists and, after that, for historians. For us, it is necessary to note that, as the hand of Pan-Germanism became more evident, the Slovenes began to draw nearer to the Croats and the Serbs. [See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1917-1918.] It remained only for the Serbs to electrify the Jugo-Slavs—'to avenge Kossovo with Kumanovo'—in order to cement their loyalty to the regenerated Serbs. Religious differences, political rivalries, linguistic quibbles, and the petty foibles of centuries appeared to be forgotten in the three short years which elapsed from Kumanovo to the destruction of Serbia in 1915. The Greater Serbia idea had really perished in 1915, as had the greater Croatia idea in 1878. In their place emerged Jugo-Slavia—the kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes—implied by the South Slav Parliamentary Club in Austria in their Declaration of May 30, 1917, and formulated by the Pact of Corfu of July 7, 1917, which Pasic, premier of Serbia, and Trumbic, the head of the London Jugo-Slav Committee, drew up."—R. J. Kerner, *Jugo-Slav movement* (A. I. Petrunkevitch, *Russian revolution, pp.* 90-94).

The following is the text of the declaration of Corfu:

"1. The State of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, who are also known by the name of Southern Slavs or Jugoslavs, will be a free and independent Kingdom, with an indivisible territory and unity of power. This State will be a constitutional, democratic, and Parliamentary monarchy, with the Karageorgevitch dynasty, which has always shared the ideals and feelings of the nation in placing above everything else the national liberty and will at its head.

"2. The name of this State will be the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, and the title of the sovereign will be King of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

"3. This State will only have one coat of arms, one flag, and one crown.

"4. The four different flags of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes will have equal rights, and may be hoisted freely on all occasions. The same will obtain for the four different coats of arms.

"5. The three national denominations, the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, are equal before the law in all the territory of the kingdom, and each may freely use it on all occasions in public life and before all authorities.

"6. The two Cyrillic and Latin alphabets also have the same rights and every one may freely use them in all the territory of the kingdom. The royal and local self-governing authorities have the right and ought to employ the two alphabets according to the desire of the citizens.

"7. All religions are recognized, and may be free and publicly practiced. The Orthodox, Roman Catholic and Mussulman religions, which are most professed in our country, will be equal and enjoy the same rights in relation to the State. In view of these principles, the Legislature will be careful to preserve the religious peace in conformity with the spirit and tradition of our entire nation.

"8. The Gregorian calendar will be adopted as soon as possible.

"9. The territory of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes will comprise all the territory where our nation lives in compact masses and without discontinuity, and where it could not be mutilated without injuring the vital interests of the community. Our nation does not ask for anything which belongs to others, and only claims that which belongs to it. It desires to free itself and establish its unity. That is why it conscientiously and firmly rejects every partial solution of the problem of its freedom from the Austro-Hungarian domination.

"10. The Adriatic Sea, in the interests of liberty and equal rights of all nations, is to be free and open to all and each.

"11. All citizens throughout the territory of the kingdom are equal and enjoy the same rights in regard to the State and the law.

"12. The election of Deputies to the national representation will take place under universal suffrage, which is to be equal, direct, and secret. The same will apply to the elections in the communes and other administrative institutions. A vote will be taken in each commune.

"13. The Constitution to be established after the conclusion of peace by the Constituent Assembly elected by universal, direct, and secret suffrage will serve as a basis for the life of the State. It will be the origin and ultimate end of all the powers and all rights by which the whole national life will be regulated. The Constitution will give the people the opportunity of exercising its particular energies in local autonomies, regulated by natural, social, and economic conditions. The Constitution must be adopted in its entirety by a numerical majority of the Constituent Assembly, and all other laws passed by the Constituent Assembly will not come into force until they have been sanctioned by the King.

"Thus the united nation of Serbs, Croatians, and Slovenes will form a State of twelve million inhabitants. This State will be a guarantee of their national independence and of their general national progress and civilization, and a powerful rampart against the pressure of the Germans, and an inseparable ally of all civilized peoples and States. Having proclaimed the principle of right and liberty and of international justice, it will form a worthy part of the new society of nations.

"Signed at Corfu, July 20, 1917, by the President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Kingdom of Serbia, Nikola Pashitch, and the President of the Jugoslav Committee, Dr. Anto [or Ante] Trumbich."—V. R. Savic, *Southeastern Europe, Introduction.*—See also WORLD WAR: 1917: V. Balkan theater: b, 1; c.

1905-1914.—Nationalist movement in Dalmatia. See DALMATIA: 1861-1914.

1914-1918.—Austria's treatment of Jugo-Slavs. —Jugo-Slav agitation for unity and independence.—"In the earlier stages of the war, evidence as to the feeling of Jugo-Slavs in Austria-Hungary and their treatment by the Government was difficult to obtain. However, some amount of information as to internal conditions reached Italy during the period of Italian neutrality, chiefly through the medium of escaped prisoners, and some could also be gleaned from the press in Austria and Hungary. Both sources indicated that the Government was pursuing a policy of repression in its most extreme form, especially in Bosnia-Herzegovina. A very large proportion of the educated Jugo-Slavs were imprisoned or interned; a severe press censorship was established; the Provincial Diets in Austria in which the Jugo-Slavs were represented were suspended; and, though the Croatian Diet continued to subsist, any free expression of opinion would have laid its members open to the charge of high treason. Decrees passed on October 7 and 13, 1914, deprived of citizenship all subjects of the Monarchy then abroad and suspected of working against its interests. The property of all such persons was confiscated, and their families were deported. . . . The Orthodox clergy were the object of severe persecutions. A decree of the Government of Croatia suspended all the Orthodox parish priests of Slavonia and Syrmia, while it is stated that in Bosnia scarcely an Orthodox priest was left at liberty and large numbers were hanged. From all suspected regions hostages were taken, and executed in the event of anti-Government action in their localities. Trials for treason were numerous. The information available points to the conclusion that the Government from the first believed disaffection to be general in the Jugo-Slav population. In 1917 the reopening of the Reichsrat in May and the amnesty granted to political prisoners in July restored some measure of free speech. The proceedings of the Government in Dalmatia and Bosnia and the condition of the Jugo-Slav prison camps were denounced in the Reichsrat (October 19, 1917) by Dr. Tresic-Pavicic, deputy for the Dalmatian islands, who had himself been arrested on the outbreak of the war and released only under the terms of the amnesty. The charges were horrifying, and it is not surprising that the speech was suppressed in the Austrian and Hungarian newspapers. At Zagreb the first half was printed, evidently with the connivance of the local authority; and the effect of the statements on public opinion was profound. While the circumstances were obviously not favorable to the compilation of exact statistics, much information was made available by the release of the political prisoners, whose numbers were great. The high character of the Dalmatian deputy and the fact that the Government made no reply to his speech after its partial publication at Zagreb were taken to support the substantial accuracy of the charges. They include that of wholesale massacres of the Serb population in Bosnia-Herzegovina, and give a considerable amount of detail. In prison camps the alleged rates of mortality were no less startling: 8,000 were stated to have died at Doboj in Bosnia, where a camp had been formed in December 1915, and between 3,000 and 4,000 at Arad in Hungary, while over 8,000 Croats, deported chiefly from Istria, perished in Styria alone. To the members of the Reichsrat Dr. Tresic's statements were known in full; and they intensified the already apparent determination of the Jugo-Slavs to secure their separation from the Habsburg Empire. . . . On the reopening of the Reichsrat in May 1917, the Jugo-Slav deputies, by forming themselves into a single Parliamentary Club had already taken a decided line. Owing to various

causes their 37 representatives were reduced to 31. Of these 29 united in the Jugo-Slav Club under the presidency of Mgr. Korosec (Slovene); . . . On May 30 the Jugo-Slav Club put forward in the Reichsrat a demand that all the provinces of the Monarchy inhabited by Slovenes, Croats, or Serbs, should be united under the Habsburg Crown in a single autonomous and democratic State, free from all foreign domination. The reference to the Habsburg Crown was dictated merely by prudential motives, as was recognized alike by the Jugo-Slav and the German-Austrian press. . . . All subsequent official pronouncements of the Jugo-Slavs reiterated the demand for a national and independent State without qualification. . . . The prominent part played by the Slovenes deserves remark, as also the fact that the chief promoters of the Jugo-Slav movement among them are distinguished churchmen. Among the most notable personalities in the Reichsrat were the late Mgr. Krek and Mgr. Korosec, and outside it the Prince-Bishop of Ljubljana (Laibach) and the Bishops of Trieste and Veglia. The pro-Serbian sympathies of the Slovenes before the European War were evident to all. The German-Austrian press noted in 1917 that in Slovene lands the Jugo-Slav propaganda 'has penetrated to every peasant's hut.' In the same year Slovene women collected from their own sex 200,000 signatures to a petition for incorporation in a Jugo-Slav State which should include all Jugo-Slavs. As the total Slovene population before the war was under 1,500,000, the figure is high. The Slovenes alone among the Austrian Jugo-Slavs were able to carry on a definite agitation, the repressive measures of the Government in Istria and Dalmatia rendering concerted action impossible until a very late stage of the war. In Croatia, conditions under Hungarian rule were no less unfavorable to the free expression of opinion than those obtaining in Austria. On the outbreak of the war an overwhelming proportion of the educated class was imprisoned or interned, including, in spite of their parliamentary immunity, members of the Croatian Diet. In a large proportion of cases no evidence was forthcoming against the persons arrested; and under the pressure of public opinion from 1915 onwards many of them were successively released. According to information received, they immediately began to organize a secret revolutionary society, somewhat on the lines of the Carbonari, each member being known to only two of his fellows, and to work through it for the Jugo-Slav cause. The organization is alleged not merely to have completely captured civilian opinion, but to have acquired over the army a hold which contributed largely to the formation of the volunteer regiments in Russia and determined the course of events on the Italian front in the later stages of the war. The [Croatian] Diet naturally maintained an attitude of reserve. On the whole it confined itself to demanding separation from Hungary, but it abstained from any specific declaration of loyalty. Individual members frequently insisted on the racial unity of Slovenes, Croats and Serbs. In October 1918 the greatly diminished Frank party joined the National Council, the two or three irreconcilables who remained withdrawing from political life. Thus the only political opposition in Croatia to union with the Jugo-Slavs outside the Monarchy disappeared. The national sympathies of Croatian officials were noteworthy, and were the subject of complaint in the German Austrian press. The Mayor of Zagreb and eight town councillors attended, on May 16, 1918, a Czech demonstration, which openly demanded complete independence for Bohemia. The censorship has frequently been evaded at Zagreb, as in the case of the speech of Tresic-Pavicic, alluded to above. Great demonstrations attended the tour through Croatia of Count Louis Voinovic, a distinguished Dalmatian author who was arrested on the outbreak of the war, and released late in 1917. At meetings organized in his honor throughout Croatia, Dalmatia, and Bosnia, Jugo-Slav unity and independence of the Habsburgs were openly demanded. Reference has already been made to the severity of the repressive measures taken in Bosnia-Herzegovina. It may be added that desertions to the enemy from Bosnian regiments were specially frequent, and were often due to concerted action. The first Bosnian regiment twice passed over *en bloc* to the enemy and was twice reconstituted. Finally, at Jassy, it went over to the Russians with its Mohammedan Serb colonel at its head. A large number of Jugo-Slavs who had fought perforce in the Austrian army and surrendered to the Russians or been captured by them were anxious to join the ranks of the Entente, and in 1915 a Jugo-Slav Committee was formed at Odessa to organize and equip them. It worked under difficulties, for the prisoners were scattered over remote and widely separated camps—a circumstance which increased the difficulty of communication and transport. Nevertheless, between November 1915 and July 1917 volunteers were enrolled to the number of 46,581, of whom the largest proportion was furnished by Bosnia-Herzegovina. The corps saw much service, and suffered heavily in proportion to its numbers. . . . The Jugo-Slav leaders who had escaped from Austria-Hungary in the early stages of the European War had formed themselves into a committee to represent their national interests, and stood for the union of all Jugo-Slavs in a free and independent State. They gradually established communications with the majority of the deputies in the several Diets and in the Reichsrat, and had the unanimous support of the considerable Jugo-Slav colonies in America, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. In 1915 and 1916, however, the President of the Committee, Dr. Anto Trumbic, a Croat deputy of Dalmatia, and the other members of the Committee in London were unwilling to break with Russia; and the same attitude was maintained by [Alexander] the Crown Prince of Serbia, who was naturally believed to incline to the 'Greater Serbia' solution."—*Jugo-Slav movement* (*Handbook of the Historical Section of the British Foreign Office*, 1920, *pp.* 21-27).

ALSO IN: L. Voinovitch, *Dalmatia and the Jugo-Slav movement*.

1916-1920.—Relations with Italy.—Torre-Trumbitch agreement. See ADRIATIC QUESTION: Jugo-Slav contention; Torre-Trumbitch agreement; Treaty of London, etc.; ITALY: 1918-1919.

1918.—Operations during World War.—Campaign in Balkans.—In Vardar region. See WORLD WAR: 1918: V. Balkan theater: a; c, 81, iii.

1918 (April-October).—Allied and American war aims in regard to Jugo-Slav peoples.—"Championship of the rights of small states acquired new importance as the lesser nationalities gradually emerged from the wreck of Russian, Turkish, and Austro-Hungarian empires. It was towards the latter that the [American] President's attitude showed the most marked change, and it appears to have been much influenced by the Congress of Oppressed Nationalities held at Rome in the second week of April 1918. At the beginning of June the President [of the United States] formally announced that the United States had

followed these proceedings with great interest and that 'the national aspirations of Czecho-Slovaks and Juglo-Slavs [see HUNGARY: 1918: End of World War] for liberty have the lively sympathy of this Government' (29th May). This declaration was immediately endorsed by the three Entente Powers (3rd June) . . . and when German and Austrian sympathizers and officials sought to construe the President's utterance as a mere declaration in favour of autonomy, he issued a new statement (28th June) that the position of the United States Government was that 'all branches of the Slav race should be completely freed from German and Austrian rule.' This was very important, for the independence of Czecho-Slovakia meant the break-up of Austria-Hungary. On the 3rd September the President went even further and recognized the Czecho-Slovak National Council as a belligerent Government. When on the 18th October he answered the Austrian Note requesting an armistice, he quoted the above-mentioned declarations and stated that they had been made since the 'Fourteen Points' and prevented his negotiating with Austria-Hungary on the basis of the 'mere autonomy' of these peoples in accordance with Point 10 of the 'Fourteen Points.' . . . [And] 'he is obliged to insist that they (Czecho-Slovaks and Yugo-Slavs) and not he shall be the judge of what action on the part of the Austro-Hungarian Government will satisfy their aspirations.'"—H. W. V. Temperley, *History of the peace conference at Paris, v.* 1, *pp.* 198-199.

1918 (September).—Peace proposal of Austria-Hungary.—Armistice with Bulgaria. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: **k**; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: **c.**

1918 (October).—Armistice with Turkey.—Text. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: **d.**

1918.—Formation of the Serb, Croat, Slovene kingdom (Kingdom of Srba Hrvata i Slovenica).—After the armistice, a national assembly of the Croats proclaimed the independence of Croatia, Slovakia and Dalmatia and voted for union with Serbia and Montenegro under the Crown Prince Alexander of Serbia as regent. The assembly claimed to represent all the Jugo-Slav territory in the former Dual monarchy (see HUNGARY: 1918 [November]), but the boundaries were subject to determination by the peace conference at Paris as later set forth in the Treaty of Saint-Germain (see ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF); signed, December 5, 1919, by the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. (For the relations with Italy, dating from the meeting of the Congress of Oppressed Nationalities at Rome, April 8-10, see ADRIATIC QUESTION: Friction between Italy and the Jugo-Slavs; Jugo-Slav contention; FIUME; ITALY: 1918-1919.) All elements declared in favor of the acting Serbian assembly at Belgrade, enlarged by delegates from the other states, for the time being. The Montenegrin Skupshtina at Podgoritza voted to depose King Nicholas and unite with the new state. Finally, Prince Alexander at Belgrade, in the name of his father, King Peter of Serbia, and in compliance with an address, proclaimed the union of Serbia with the states of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and a ministry, headed by the Serbian premier, Pashitch, and including members from the other states, undertook the government, December 29, 1918. For the first two years of its existence the government of the new state was not of a representative character.—See also EUROPE: Modern: New balance of powers; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1918; BALKAN STATES: 1921: Jugo-Slavia.

1918 (November).—Armistices with Austria-Hungary and Germany.—Terms. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: **e; f.**

1918-1922.—Relief work of A. R. A. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: American relief administration.

1919.—Political conditions at the opening of the year.—Parties and their leaders.—"The most important political party of Croatia before the war, and the one which has retained the lead . . . since 1914, is the party of the 'Croato-Serb Coalition.' . . . It declared itself for union without restriction, for complete centralization. It was forthwith abandoned by the Slav patriots, who rejected the solution of a 'Balkan gravitation.' These democratic progressives, who abandoned the Coalition, raised their own banner, that of Federalism. . . . The leader of the coalition party at Zagreb, Svetozar Pribitchevitch, a Croatian Serb and Minister of the Interior in the Jugo-Slav ministry at Belgrade, resolutely waived the possibility of a Federalistic solution; the State, he declared, must be centralized in one Government with a single legislative body. Only the Slovenes occupied a separate territory, while the Croats and Serbs were so intermingled that a line of demarkation would be almost impossible between them. The Federalists, he intimated, were mostly Austrian sympathizers. Yet he advocated autonomy for the communes, districts, and departments; but this autonomy, he said, must not extend to the former boundary divisions, as Serbia had been replaced by the kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes; so Croatia, Bosnia, Slovenia and Dalmatia must disappear as individualities. . . . The Serbian National Radical party and the Social Democratic party, of minor importance as compared with the party of coalition, were both unionist in tendency. The other side of the picture was presented by the apprehensions of the Croat commercial circles, which feared that the Belgrade centralization would suppress Croat institutions; . . . that Serbia would assume the aspect of a dead weight upon the new communistic life of South Slavdom. Free, Croatia might enjoy the right of development [hitherto] checked by the Hungarian despotism; closely united with Serbia, this settlement might be long deferred. As Jugo-Slavs, the Croats desired the formation of a common State. . . . But at present any liberty understood in the centralizing sense, and which brought the Croats a diminution of their autonomy, could scarcely be admitted. The Slovenes, on their part, republicans by conviction, accepted nevertheless the monarchical regime in the interests of united Jugoslavia. The Slovenes, oppressed by Vienna, yet found in her a source of Western culture. In the Slavic family the Slovenes culturally come immediately after the Czechs. Essentially democratic, they rallied nevertheless with all their parties, including the Clericals, to the slogan of Centralism at Belgrade, and demanded a monarchy ruled by the Karageorgevitch dynasty. Though more developed generally than their co-nationals of Croatia and Serbia, they accepted this centralization, at least provisionally, in order to oppose a compact body to external dangers, waiving the advantages that might accrue to them from a confederation which would preserve their national physiognomy. Such was the spirit of Slovenia as expressed and crystallized in their capital, Liubliana (formerly Laibach). . . . In the cosmopolitan province of Bosnia-Herzegovina, nationalities had been created by religions; both sympathies and antipathies were determined by the religious angle. This point of view led to complications; the Orthodox Serb saw in the

Croatian Catholic the Austrian of the old regime; in the Bosnian Musselman he saw the Turk, abhorred less as Turk than as infidel. In this population . . . there were 600,000 Musselmans, 840,000 Orthodox, 460,000 Catholics, and 12,000 Jews; necessarily there was no unity of opinion when the day of liberation came. . . . Even before the Jugo-Slav idea had taken form, Serbia had claimed Bosnia on the same basis as Macedonia; also the Banat, and, under another form, Montenegro. When the Serbian military occupation came, Catholics and Musselmans protested; only the Orthodox supported the Serbs. Bosnia, they said, was Serbian, and would become an integral part of Serbia. Let Bosnia-Herzegovina enter into the new kingdom of Jugoslavia, answered the protestors, but we refuse to favor her becoming a Serbian province. . . . Belgrade was working silently on her task of national reconstruction; and Prince Alexander, with the same resolution that he [had] displayed for . . . four years . . . among the débris of his shattered armies, undertook the vast and complex task of the creation of the new Jugoslavic State. In . . . Belgrade, torn and devastated by war, the first conception of a united Serbia, completed by all the lands torn from Austria, arose; . . . this original conception was developed into the wider project, discussed at Zagreb and taken up at Belgrade, of a complete and definitive South Slav State. M. Pashitch, at the personal request of the Crown Prince, nominally relinquished his power [1918], though his influence continued parallel with that of M. Protitch, appointed President of the Council in his place. . . . [Pan Serbism had] crystallized throughout the war around the person of M. Pashitch, at Corfu and Saloniki, which became the centers of Serbian existence during the dark period of invasion; while, during the same period, Jugoslavism, personified by M. Trumbitch, [had] developed . . . at London, ignored by the Allies, who encouraged the creation of Greater Serbia. The belief of M. Protitch, as expressed by himself, embraced the organization of the new Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes as a democratic and parliamentary monarchy in the modern sense of the word, governed by its heroic dynasty, with wide administrative autonomy, and with equal, universal, secret suffrage. M. Balougditch, Minister of the Court, entertained a similar view; Serbia had renounced her Parliament and admitted into her Government a full third of Croatian and Slovenian Ministers; she had decided for autonomy; what more could be asked of her in the way of concession? . . . Prince Alexander . . . declared: 'It does not enter into our intentions to Serbicize Jugoslavia.'"—*New York Times Current History, May*, 1919, *pp.* 302-306.—See also SERBIA: 1918-1919; 1919.

1919.—Treaty with Greece. See GREECE: 1919.

1919.—Statistics of trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1919.—Recognized by Bulgaria by Treaty of Neuilly. See NEUILLY, TREATY OF (1919).

1919-1920.—Relations with Albania and Bulgaria. See ALBANIA: 1919; BULGARIA: 1920-1921.

1919-1920.—Changing ministries.—Internal politics, in 1919, centered in a struggle between the Radicals and the newly constituted Democratic party. The latter was in favor of an active agrarian policy, woman suffrage, and proportional representation. The Radicals were opposed to these policies, after constant ministerial crises, Protitch, the prime minister and leader of the Radicals, resigned August 2. Davidovitch, leader of the Democratic Party, succeeded in forming a ministry which included Trumbitch as foreign minister. The trial of strength between the two groups continued until May, 1920, when the cabinet was reconstructed under Vesnich.

1920.—Foreign relations (outside the Adriatic Question).—"Little Entente."—In August, 1920, following a number of commercial agreements among the "succession" powers of Eastern Europe, occurred the signing of a pact between the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes and the Czecho-Slovakian republic, represented by their respective premiers, M. Vesnitch and Dr. Benes, to maintain the status established by the peace treaties among the Slav powers not involved in the war which was then raging between Poland and Russia. [See LITTLE ENTENTE; CZECHO-SLOVAKIA: 1920.] Rumania was invited to join this entente—in fact, it was first conceived by Take Jonescu, Rumanian minister of foreign affairs—but while in sympathy with its purposes, Premier Averescu of Rumania took the view that a *formal* adherence at that time was not advisable. . . . The protocols as drafted and signed related particularly to Hungary and the menace of a proposed Danubian reactionary combination. It was announced: "The entente is also willing to live at peace with Hungary and to establish normal, friendly relations with that State, if the latter abandons its present policy and ceases to foment disturbances through its agents upon the territories of its neighbors. The united power of Czechoslovakia, Jugoslavia and Rumania is so considerable that no State in Central or Eastern Europe would venture to attack this alliance."—*New York Times Current History, Oct.*, 1920, *p.* 80.—"The new states which in Central Europe have taken the place of the Hapsburg monarchy owe their creation to the living will of the peoples who for centuries had been oppressed in Austro-Hungary, and who had in vain endeavored to secure within that state the necessary conditions for a free and full development of their economic and cultural life. The revolutionary activities of these peoples—whether of a military or diplomatic character, whether undertaken abroad, side by side with the Allies, or at home—were the clear expression of this will, which could only be acted upon successfully because the European War created the pre-conditions for a new adjustment of Europe and because the substitution of new independent states for the Austro-Hungarian monarchy was not only an act of historic justice but at the same time in the interests of Europe generally. The Danubian monarchy was the aider, abetter and tool of Hohenzollern imperialism. It was, moreover, by its very constitution, the outward expression of a German-Magyar system of violence and the living negation of those ideals which brought half Europe and America into the conflict. Its removal became a manifest necessity as an insurance against future dangers and in order to secure the triumph of the principles for which the war was fought. The changes which have thus been made in Central Europe are, of course, greater than any which have taken place in other parts of the continent. An entire great state has been obliterated from the map of Europe, an ancient and mighty dynasty deprived of its power and dominion; frontiers of new states have been delimited, and with their creation there have been severed political ties and, above all, economic ties of no mean importance. . . . Nothing was more natural than that there should come co-operation in the field of practical politics. The work of bringing about the dissolution of the Hapsburg monarchy had already been carried on with a certain degree

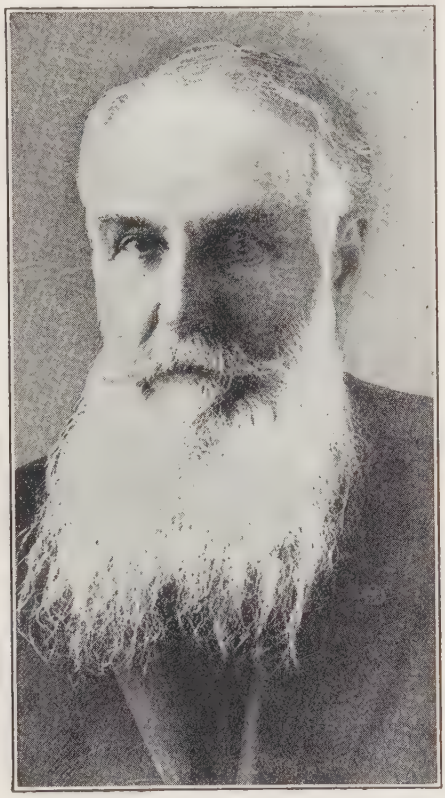
of contact and mutual understanding. The memorable Congress of the Oppressed Nations of Austria-Hungary, held at Rome in the spring of 1918, is one of the striking proofs of this fact. At the Peace Conference, too, the liberated nations acted in unison, maintaining a common front against their enemies and pursuing a common fundamental aim. The first stage of this common policy took a concrete form in the agreement concluded between Czechoslovakia and Jugoslavia on the 14th of September, 1920, which is in substance a *defensive convention* against the Hungarian menace. It is the product of long negotiations that had been carried on from the end of the year 1919. Hungary had become the center of a reactionary monarchistic movement which, with the restoration of the Hapsburgs as its motto, aimed at overthrowing the new order of things in Central Europe and threatened the security of the young succession states—and with it, of course, the security of Europe as a whole."—E. Benes, *Little Entente* (*Foreign Affairs, Sept.* 15, 1922).—See also HUNGARY: 1920-1921.

1920.—Treaty of Rapallo with Italy. See RAPALLO, TREATY OF (1920); ADRIATIC QUESTION: Friction between Italy and Jugo-Slavia; FIUME: 1919-1921.

1920.—Treaty of Sèvres with Turkey. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF (1920).

1920.—Control of part of Temesvar by Treaty of Trianon. See TRIANON, TREATY OF (1920).

1920-1921.—New government.—New constitution.—Commercial and financial conditions.—In November a general election was held to establish a constituent assembly with full authority. The total number of deputies in the new constituent assembly was 420. Neither party won a majority; and of the smaller parties, the Croatian Peasants' Party, the Slovene Clericals, the Mohammedans of Bosnia, the Croatian Nationalists, and the Communists, the Croatian Nationalists fared badly and the Communists returned only sixty for the whole country. Whereupon the Vesnich government resigned and Pashitch became prime minister of a coalition cabinet, January, 1921. "By March, 1921, the Premier had so strengthened his control as to diminish the federative tendencies in drafting the new Constitution. With the growing support that the Premier has received from the regions outside of Serbia proper the Constitution is now reflecting the organism of a highly centralized Government, with all the old boundaries wiped out and the former divisions replaced by departments, as in France, with prefects appointed by the central Government. Each department is expected to include a population of 700,000, and will have its own Legislature, while the national Legislature will consist of a single elected Chamber, drawn from the counties into which each department will be divided. These local divisions will take into consideration three elements—industrial, racial and political. Universal manhood suffrage will prevail."—*New York Times Current History, May,* 1921, *p.* 221.—In June, in order to forestall the resignation of Spaho and Karamehmedovitch, Pashitch agreed to pay 60,000,000 dinars compensation for the Moslem losses under the agrarian reform and to place a Mohammedan head of their department in the ministry of religion. On July 21, Drashovitch, minister of the interior, was murdered by a Bosnian Communist. Ten days later the Skupshtina passed the Defence of the Realm Act, in which terrorist agitation was made punishable by death, prolonged penal servitude, or heavy fines; and the Communist party in parliament was annulled. In November, Alexander took the oath of accession. "In spite of all difficulties—and they have often seemed insurmountable—the Jugoslav Government has, since 1918, been gradually improving its railway and water services. There are now regular transport services on the Danube and the Sava to Rumania and Hungary, used mainly for the transport of produce. The railways are running all over the country, and one has only to travel in Rumania or Greece to appreciate the improvement Jugoslavia is making in transport development. Passenger services are daily becoming better, Vienna, Belgrade, Zagrab, Salonika, Fiume, Trieste, are all in close touch. . . . In Jugoslavia the Government has put a stop to the bribery in hotels. On arrival at the capital, or any important town, the traveller must go to the police station,



© Keystone View Co.

NIKOLA PASHITCH

where there is a special department for registering the accommodation at hotels and private boarding-houses. Here he can obtain a voucher entitling him to accommodation at a fixed price. But the shortage of accommodation, the poor beds, and the lack of sanitary conveniences, make the traveller's life a misery."—H. Kramrisch, *Trading conditions in Southeast Europe* (*Eastern Europe, Mar.,* 1921, *pp.* 26-27).—"The country itself has very little liquid capital, and the Government finances are not in good condition. The treaties require that the new States assume a proper proportion of the pre-war debt of the old Austrian Empire and that they also assume specific debts which are a lien on railways and other utilities taken over from the former empire. The amounts to be assumed are to be established by commissions set up under the treaty, but at present—a year

and a half after signature of the treaty—most of these commissions are not even established. The taxation is heavy, and the policy of the Government is to develop the country so far as possible by local capital and Government aid. There is, however, a great opportunity for investment of foreign capital, not only in the development of minerals, but also of manufacturing."—W. G. Atwood, *Jugo-Slavia's resources and beauty* (*New York Times Current History, Feb.*, 1921).—In accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of St. Germain, the liquidation of the Austro-Hungarian Bank produced 10,000,000 gold krönen as the share due to Jugo-Slavia. This sum was deposited at the National Bank in Belgrade during June, 1921. In October the Skupshtina passed a workmen's in-

ALEXANDER I

surance act, which marked the inauguration of a wide scheme of social reform.

1921.—Inclusion of Montenegro in the kingdom. See MONTENEGRO: 1918-1921.

1921.—Child relief. See CHARITIES: Jugo-Slavia: 1921.

1921.—Represented at Portorosa conference. See PORTOROSA CONFERENCE (1921).

1921 (August 16).—Death of Peter I.—The death of Peter I occurred August 16, 1921. He "was a constitutional ruler and because of this and perhaps of his age he played no great personal part in the two Balkan wars [1912-1913] and the diplomatic negotiations by which the Balkan allies were cheated of part of their conquests. . . . Peter, on account of his age, had appointed the Crown Prince Alexander regent of Serbia [June 22, 1914]. But, in November [1914], when the second great Austrian attack on Serbia had forced the evacuation of Belgrade, Peter went down in person into the front trenches at Valjavo and took part in the Serbian counter-attack which routed the Austrian army and reconquered Belgrade. Less than a year later, however, Serbia was crushed by the combined German-Austro-Hungarian-Bulgarian onslaught under Mackensen. Peter shared the incredible hardships of his army's retreat over the Albanian mountains, and after a brief stay with his brother-in-law, the King of Italy, went with his suite to the island of Euboia, where for a while he remained as the guest of the Greek Government. After the defeat of the Bulgarians by the Allies, in which the remnant of the Serbian army took a conspicuous part, and the collapse of the Central Powers, King Peter returned to Belgrade."—*New York Times, Aug.* 17, 1921.

1922.—Represented at Genoa conference. See GENOA CONFERENCE (1922).

1922.—Trade unions.—Radicalism. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922.

1922.—Cabinet crisis.—Resignation of Pashitch.—During the early part of the year a threatened cabinet crisis was averted when President Ribar succeeded in mediating between the Radicals and Democrats whose split threatened the coalition. The passage of a new electoral law, June 21, 1922, again threatened the coalition government, and on December 4, the resignation of Nikola Pashitch was brought about by the peasant bloc in the Chamber, led by Raditch. This bloc held the balance of power against the Democrats and Radicals, and had as one of its chief aims, backed by the Croatian Fascisti, the creation of a Croatian republic within the monarchy of Jugo-Slavia. "Stephen Raditch, leader of the peasant Republicans, announced that the Croats would remain united with the Serbians through fear of a plot to divide Jugoslav territory. He charged that understanding existed between Mussolini, the Italian Premier, and the Hungarian Fascisti by which Croatia proper should be returned to Hungary and Dalmatia go to Italy. Turkey also, he said, wanted the restoration of the boundaries that existed before the Balkan wars, including Bosnia, Albania and Macedonia, and threatening the interests of all Jugoslav territory. The Croats therefore were willing to forego their republican principles and remain united with Serbia to avert these dangers. Thereupon the fifty elected Croatian members of the Jugoslav Parliament in Belgrade took their seats, which they had previously refused to occupy."—*Jugo-Slavia* (*New York Times Current History, Feb.*, 1923, *p.* 876).

See also AUSTRIA; BALKAN STATES; CROATIA; DALMATIA; MONTENEGRO; SERBIA; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Jugo-Slavia; COÖPERATION: Jugo-Slavia; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Jugo-Slavia.

JUGO-SLAVIA, Constitution of.—"The main provisions of the new South Slav Constitution, recently adopted by a vote of 227 to 93 [in the Convention] are summarized in the British *Review of the Foreign Press* as follows:—The State of the Serbs, Croatians, and Slovenians (S. H. S.) is a constitutional-parliamentary and hereditary monarchy. The official language is Serbo-Croat-Slovene. The King promulgates the laws, approves officials, and confers military rank in accordance with the law, is the supreme head of the land and sea forces; has the right of amnesty and pardon; and has power to declare war and conclude peace. Except when the country is attacked, he may declare war only with the consent of Parliament. He may not become the head

of any other State without the consent of Parliament. No act of the royal power takes effect unless countersigned by the minister responsible. The King of the Serbians, Croatians, and Slovenes is Peter I of the House of Karageorgevich, and his heir is Prince Alexander. The Crown devolves upon the descendants of the latter in the male line by order of primogeniture. The King takes the oath to Parliament to maintain the national unity and the integrity of the State, and to respect its constitution and laws. Parliament consists of a single Chamber elected for four years by direct universal suffrage, in the proportion of one deputy to every 50,000 inhabitants. The representation of national minorities is guaranteed. The King may dissolve Parliament by decree, countersigned by all the ministers, which decree provides for holding elections within three, and the reassembling of Parliament within four months at the latest. Religious liberty is guaranteed. All religions recognized by law are equal and may be publicly exercised. The credits voted for religion are distributed among the various religions in proportion to their needs and the number of their followers. No minister of religion may carry on political propaganda when in the exercise of his functions. The State of the Serbians, Croatians, and Slovenes forms a single unified state. Special provisional enactments provide for the conversion of the federal regime in existence during the pre-constitutional period into an equal and uniform administrative system."—*Living Age, July* 30, 1921, *pp.* 250-251.—The text of the constitution is as follows:

PART I

General Provisions

Section 1. The State of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes is a constitutional, parliamentary and hereditary monarchy.

The official name of the State is the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Sect. 2. The coat-of-arms of the kingdom is a double-headed spread eagle in flight, on a red shield. Over both heads of the double-headed spread eagle stands the crown of the kingdom. On the breast of the eagle is a shield on which are the coats-of-arms, Serb—a cross on a red shield with a single firesteel by each bar; Croat—shield with twenty-five fields, alternately red and silver; Slovene—on a blue field three golden six-pointed stars and under this a white half moon.

The State flag is blue, white and red in a horizontal position facing an upright staff.

Sect. 3. The official language of the kingdom is Serb-Croat-Slovene.

PART II

Basic Rights and Duties of Citizens

Section 4. There is one citizenship in the whole kingdom; all citizens are equal before the law. All enjoy the same protection from [State] authority.

There is no recognition of nobility, nor titles, nor pre-eminence of birth.

Sect. 5. Personal freedom is guaranteed.

No one can be called to account, nor be arrested, nor otherwise be deprived of freedom by any one except in cases that the law has prescribed.

No one can be imprisoned for any crime whatsoever without a warrant of competent authority in writing and furnished with reasons. That warrant must be shown to the person arrested, either at the time of the arrest or, if that be impossible, at furthest within a period of twenty-four hours from the time of the arrest. Against this warrant for arrest he has the right to appeal to a competent court within a period of three days. In case there has been no appeal within that time, the investigating body must send the evidence to the court within twenty-four hours. The court is bound to give its decision within a period of two days from the time of receiving the evidence. The court decision is final.

Official authorities who transgress against these statutes shall be punished for illegal deprivation of freedom.

Sect. 6. No one can be tried by an incompetent Judge.

Sect. 7. No one can be condemned until he shall have been summoned by an official lawfully or in legal manner to defend himself.

Sect. 8. Punishment may be fixed only in accordance with the law and can be applied solely to acts for which the said law stated beforehand that they should be punished according to said law.

Sect. 9. Capital punishment cannot be inflicted for merely political crimes.

Excepted are the cases of the commission of or attempt at assassination on the person of the ruler or members of the royal house, for which the death penalty is fixed in criminal law.

Besides this are also excepted acts in which, to purely political culpability there is added some punishable act for which the death penalty is fixed in the criminal law, and such acts also which military law punishes with death penalty.

Sect. 10. No citizen can be banished from the State. He cannot be driven within the country from one place to another, nor be banished to one particular place except in cases which the law has expressly foreseen.

No one can, in any event, be banished from his own native place without judicial action.

Sect. 11. A dwelling is inviolable.

The authorities [the State] may not undertake any investigation or search in the house of a citizen, except in eventualities which the law has foreseen and in the manner which the law has prescribed.

Before the investigation [or search] the authorities are obliged to give to the person whose dwelling is being searched a written warrant for the search, the authorities [stating] on what grounds the investigation is undertaken. Against this warrant he has the right of appeal to a court of first instance. But this appeal does not prevent the carrying out of the search. The search shall be carried out immediately in the presence of two [other] citizens.

Immediately after the completion of a search, the authorities are obliged to give to the person whose house is searched information about the outcome of the search and a signed list of articles taken away for further examination.

At night police officials may enter a private house only in cases of sudden emergency, as when they shall be called from the house for help. At this act of the authorities there shall be present the President of the municipality or two neighbors summoned.

Officials of state who have acted contrary to these provisions shall be punished for illegal violation of a dwelling.

Sect. 12. Freedom of belief and conscience is guaranteed. The adherents of different confes-

sions are of equal rights before the law and may practice their religion openly.

The enjoyment of civil and political rights is not dependent on confession or belief. No one can be freed from his civil and military duties and obligations by appealing to the tenets of his faith.

Those faiths are permitted which have thus far obtained legal recognition in any part of the kingdom. Other faiths can obtain recognition only in accordance with the law. Accepted and recognized faiths regulate independently their internal religious affairs and control their own institutions and funds within the limits of the law.

No one is obliged to express publicly his religious convictions. No one is obliged to take part in religious acts, celebrations, rites and practices, except on State holidays and celebrations and in so far as the law enjoins this upon persons who are subject to paternal, guardian's or military authority.

Accepted and recognized faiths may maintain relations with their sovereign superiors even outside the borders of the State, in so far as the spiritual prescripts of the several confessions demand this. The manner in which these relations shall be maintained shall be regulated by law.

In so far as is foreseen in the State budget for religion, the outlay is to be divided among the several accepted and recognized faiths, according to the number of their adherents and their clearly shown need.

Religious leaders may not employ their spiritual authority for partisan aims outside their houses of worship, or beyond prescripts of a religious character, or otherwise in the fulfillment of their official duty.

Sect. 13. The press is free.

There cannot be established any preventive measure which hinders the appearance, sale and circulation of publications and newspapers. Censorship can be established only during time of war or mobilization, and that in a manner previously specified by law. Forbidden is the circulation and sale of newspapers or printed matter which contains abuse of the ruler or members of the royal house, heads of foreign States, the National Skupshtina, indirect incitement of the citizens to forcible change of the Constitution or laws of the land, or which contains serious offense against public morals. But in these cases the authorities must lay the matter before the court within twenty-four hours of the infringement of the prohibition, and said court must also within twenty-four hours enforce or annul the suppression. In a contrary event, it is considered that the suppression is annulled. The regular courts shall decide about the indemnification for a wrong done, independently of the court decision about the suppression.

For such crime committed by the press are responsible: Author, editor, printer, publisher and circulator. It shall be prescribed by a special law regarding the press when and in what event the persons enumerated above, and in what manner they shall answer for crimes committed by the press. The regular courts shall try all crimes committed by the press.

Sect. 14. Citizens have the right of assembly and discussion. Further stipulations about this, the law shall provide. They may not come into assembly under arms. Assemblies in the open must be announced to competent authorities at least twenty-four hours beforehand.

Citizens have the right to assemble for purposes which are not punishable under the law.

Sect. 15. Citizens have the right of petition. Petitions may be signed by one or more individuals or by all legal persons. Petitions may be presented to all authorities without distinction.

Sect. 16. Science and art are unrestricted and enjoy the protection and support of the State.

University instruction is unrestricted.

Education is a prerogative of the State.

In the whole land education rests on one and the same plan, being adapted to the purpose for which it is intended.

All schools must give moral instruction and develop the civic consciousness in the spirit of national unity and religious toleration.

Public instruction is individual, general, and obligatory.

Religious instruction is given according to the wish of the parents or guardians respectively, divided into groups according to confession and in harmony with their religious principles.

Technical schools shall be opened in accord with the needs of business.

State education is given without enrollment fees, school tuition, or other charges.

In how far there shall exist private schools and schools of the several religious sects and under what arrangements they shall operate shall be established by law.

All institutions for instruction are under State supervision.

The State shall assist the work of national enlightenment.

To minorities of other race or language elementary instruction shall be given under conditions which the law shall prescribe.

Sect. 17. The right of private correspondence and telegraph and telephone communication is uninfringed except in the case of criminal investigation, mobilization, or war.

All those who violate private correspondence or telegraph and telephone communications shall be punished according to law.

Sect. 18. Every citizen has the right directly and without any sort of [previous] official authorization to bring charges against State courts or minor autonomous [minor civil] officials for criminal acts, which they may have committed against him in official activity.

Special regulations apply to Ministers, Judges and soldiers under the flag.

For a wrong which a State or autonomous official does to citizens by irregular fulfillment of duty, the State or autonomous body is answerable before the regular courts. The official concerned is answerable to them.

A complaint of a wrong is invalid after nine months.

Sect. 19. All offices in all branches of State service are open alike within their legal requirements to all [Jugoslav] citizens by birth as also to citizens who are by birth of Serbo-Croat-Slovene nationality.

Foreign-born citizens can enter State service only when they have been ten years resident in the kingdom; and by the express authority of the Council of State and with the well-founded support of a competent Minister beforehand (previously given).

Sect. 20. Every citizen enjoys the protection of the State in foreign States. Every citizen has the right to renounce his citizenship after fulfilling his obligations toward the State.

The surrender of its own citizens is prohibited.

Sect. 21. Every citizen is under obligation to obey the laws, serve the interests of national unity, protect the fatherland, support the burdens of

the State according to his inherited ability and in accord with the provisions of the law.

PART III

Social and Economic Provisions

Section 22. With the purpose that uniform prosperity be brought to all citizens, the State will provide a place of display for the economic products to which they give their efforts. In keeping with this it will establish a permanent scientific organization and institute constant support of school attendance for capable poor children.

Sect. 23. The working class is under the protection of the State.

Women and children not fully grown are especially to be protected from occupations harmful to their health.

The law shall establish special measures for the security and protection of workers and shall prescribe the hours of work in all occupations.

Sect. 24. The products of mental exertion are the property of the author and enjoy State protection.

Sect. 25. Freedom of agreement in trade relations is recognized in so far as it is not opposed to the interests of society.

Sect. 26. It is the right and duty of the State to intervene in the public interest and on the basis of the law, in the economic relations of citizens, in the spirit of justice and for the prevention of social friction.

Sect. 27. The State shall give attention to (1) The betterment of general hygienic and social conditions which affect the national health; (2) special care for mothers and young children; (3) the preservation of the health of the whole citizenship; (4) the suppression of acute and chronic infectious diseases, as well as the suppression of the abuse of alcohol; (5) medical assistance without cost, the furnishing of medicines and other necessities without cost for the preservation of the general health of the needy citizens of the nation.

Sect. 28. Marriage shall be under the protection of the State.

Sect. 29. The State shall assist materially the National Syndicate. Likewise the State shall assist materially other national economic organizations which are not working for profit. Precedence shall be given over other private undertakings under otherwise equal conditions to such syndicate and such economic associations within the circle of their activities in view of their cooperation.

There shall be passed a law with reference to associations, which shall apply to the whole nation.

Sect. 30. Farmers' insurance unions shall be established by a special legal enactment.

Sect. 31. The insurance of workingmen against the event of accident, illness, unemployment, incapacity, old age and death shall be established by a special law.

Sect. 32. Invalids, war orphans, war widows and the poor parents, unable to work, of soldiers who fell or died in the war shall enjoy special State protection and help in token of recognition.

In accord with the law, provision shall be made for the feeding of invalids incapable of work and for the training of war orphans for work and for life.

Sect. 33. The right of workingmen to organize for the purpose of obtaining better working conditions is guaranteed.

Sect. 34. Special attention shall be given to the marine and to sea fisheries.

The insurance of persons employed on the sea against the event of sickness, incapacity, old age and death shall be established by a special law.

Sect. 35. The State shall care for the construction and maintenance of all means of intercommunication wherever the general State interests demand.

Sect. 36. Usury (extortion) of every sort is forbidden.

Sect. 37. Property rights are guaranteed. From property arise also obligations. There shall be no employment of property to the detriment of the public. The content, extent and limitations of private property shall be fixed by law.

Expropriation of private property for the benefit of the public is permitted on the basis of the law in return for just compensation.

Sect. 38. Entail shall be abolished.

Foundations with purely beneficent purposes shall be permitted. It shall be fixed by law in what event aims and objects of foundations shall be changed to meet changed conditions.

Sect. 39. According to law concerning taxes on an inheritance, an interest in the inheritance shall be assured to the State; in this, basing the calculation on the degree of relationship between the heir and the deceased person and the value of the inheritance.

Sect. 40. The requisition of a room and of other necessities for the military shall be done only in return for just compensation.

Sect. 41. Large private forest tracts shall be expropriated according to the law and shall pass into the possession of the State or of autonomous bodies. The law shall stipulate in how far great forest tracts can be the property of other legal bodies which already exist or which shall be founded.

Real forest land, whose forestation furthers climatic and cultural considerations, shall pass likewise in accordance with the law of expropriation into the property of the State or of autonomous bodies, in so far as this forestation cannot be accomplished in any other manner.

Great forest tracts which foreign authority handed over to individuals shall pass, according to the law, into State or municipal possession without any recompense whatever to those individuals. The law regarding forests shall fix the conditions under which peasants cultivating the land, and those who support themselves incidentally by work on the land, may help themselves by cutting wood for building material or fuel, as well as for the pasturing of cattle in State and communal forests.

Sect. 42. Fief relationships are legally regarded as terminated on the day of freedom from foreign domination. In how far injustices were done anywhere before that time by the dissolution of fief relationships or their simulations into private legal relationships shall be passed on by the law of rectifications.

Vassals (serfs), as also in general land workers who till the land in fief-like relationships, shall be established as free possessors of State lands, not paying themselves any sort of compensation whatever for it and shall be regarded as having hereditary rights.

Sect. 43. The expropriation of great possessions and their division into properties for those who till the land shall be regulated by law. The law shall fix also what sort of compensation shall be given for expropriated possessions. For great possessions which belonged to members of former

foreign dynasties, and for those which foreign authority bestowed on individuals, no compensation whatever shall be given.

Settlements shall be effected primarily with the help of settlement associations organized freely, and giving attention also thereto that the settlers may be supplied with indispensible equipment for production.

In settlements as well as in the division of expropriated tracts, preference shall be given to needy soldiers who fought for the deliverance of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and their families.

The amount of ground assigned to the land workers shall be specified by law, also the conditions under which this may not be divided among heirs or in any manner be taken away.

Sect. 44. An Industrial Council shall be created for the working out of social matters and the formulating of industrial laws. Further details about its composition and competency shall be fixed by law.

PART IV

State Authorities

Section 45. All State authorities shall be established in accordance with the provisions of this Constitution.

Sect. 46. The King and the National Skupshtina (Assembly) together shall constitute the law-giving authority.

Sect. 47. The King shall exercise administrative authority through a responsible Ministry in accordance with the provisions of this Constitution.

Sect. 48. The courts shall exercise judicial authority. Their judgments and decisions shall be handed down and carried out in the name of the King on the basis of the laws.

PART V

The King

Section 49. The King shall confirm and proclaim the laws, appoint State officials, and give out military commands according to the provisions of the law.

The King is the Commander-in-Chief of all military forces. He gives out decorations and other distinctions.

Sect. 50. The King has the right of amnesty for political and military criminals. Through amnesty the legal consequences of the criminal act may be lessened, but the right of private persons to compensation for injury cannot be infringed by it. Amnesty may be given before the beginning of court proceedings, during the course of the proceedings, or after the judgment is rendered. Amnesty is general or individual.

For amnesty of a Minister there is necessary a previous concurrence of the National Skupshtina, but this cannot be given to a Minister in any event before the rendering of judgment.

The King has the right of pardon. He can pardon, or shorten, or mollify a punishment fixed by the court. The right of amnesty for acts punishable only through private complaint is fixed by the law regarding judicial procedure in criminal cases.

Sect. 51. The King shall represent the State in all its relations with foreign States. He shall declare war and conclude peace. If the State is not attacked or war declared upon it by some other State, a previous approval by the National Skupshtina is necessary for the declaration of war.

If war be proclaimed on the country or if it shall be attacked, the National Skupshtina must be called together at once.

Sect. 52. The King shall summon the National Skupshtina for ordinary or extraordinary session.

He shall open and close the sitting in person, with a speech from the throne or through the Council of Ministers with a message or ukas.

All the Ministers shall countersign a speech from the throne, a message and ukas.

A ukas by which the sittings of one session are closed shall always contain also an announcement of the date of the new session.

The King can at any time, in State necessity, convene the National Skupshtina which had prorogued its sitting.

The King has the right to dissolve the National Skupshtina, but the ukas concerning the dissolution must contain a call for new elections within a period of three months at latest, and a call for a sitting of the National Skupshtina within four months at latest from the day of dissolution of the Skupshtina. All Ministers shall countersign a ukas for the dissolution of the National Skupshtina.

Sect. 53. The King cannot at the same time be the ruler of any other State without the consent of the National Skupshtina.

If the King, contrary to this provision, still accepts the crown of any other State, he shall be regarded as having renounced the throne of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Sect. 54. No act of royal authority shall have force nor can it be enforced if a competent Minister has not countersigned it. For all acts of the King, oral or written, countersigned or not countersigned, as also for all his proceedings of political character, a competent Minister shall be responsible.

For the King's acts as military Commander-in-Chief the Minister of War and Marine shall be responsible.

Sect. 55. The King and his heir are of age when they complete eighteen years.

The King's person is unassailable [inviolable]. No charge can be brought involving the King's responsibility, nor can a complaint be made against the King. This [inviolability] does not hold of the King's private status.

Sect. 56. In the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes the ruler is Peter I., Karageorgevich. King Peter shall be followed by Heir to the Throne Alexander and his male offspring from legal marriage by the right of primogeniture.

If the King has no male offspring he shall appoint an heir to himself from the indirect line with the consent of the National Skupshtina. For that is necessary a decision of half plus one of the full number of the membership of the National Skupshtina.

Sect. 57. The royal house shall consist of the Queen Consort, the living forebears and descendants in direct line with their consorts, the full brothers and their descendants, with their consorts, and the sisters of the ruling King. The relations and status in the royal house shall be defined by a statute which shall be extra legal. No member of the royal house can be a Minister or member of the National Skupshtina.

Sect. 58. In the presence of the National Skupshtina the King shall take an oath which runs as follows: I [name], ascending the throne of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and assuming royal authority, swear by Almighty God

that I will preserve the unity and independence of the State and the integrity of State territory, and that I will hold the Constitution inviolable; that I will rule according to it and the laws, and that I will keep before me with all my might the welfare of the nation. So help me, Lord God. Amen!

Sect. 59. The King shall live constantly in the country. If the necessity appears that the King go out of the country for a short time the heir to the throne shall represent him. If the heir to the throne is not of age or if he is prevented [in any way], the Council of Ministers shall represent the King. This representation shall be carried out according to the directions which the King shall give within the limits of the Constitution. This also applies in the event of illness of the King which shall not produce permanent incapacity.

During the time of absence of the King or heir to the throne, the Council of Ministers shall not have the right to dissolve the National Skupshtina.

The representation of the Council of Ministers can last at longest six months. At the end of this time shall come into play the constitutional regulations for a regency.

PART VI

Regency

Section 60. The King's authority shall be assumed by a regency: (1) If the King is a minor; (2) If, on account of mental or physical illness, he is permanently incapacitated from assuming the King's authority.

The National Skupshtina shall decide by secret vote regarding the establishment and abolition of a regency.

If the Council of Ministers shall decide that the event of the King's incapacity has transpired, it shall impart this to the National Skupshtina, together with the opinion of three physicians selected from the National Medical Faculty. The proceedings shall be the same if the heir to the throne is in question.

Sect. 61. The authority of Regent shall fall by right to the heir to the throne, if he is of age. If the heir to the throne, for reasons enumerated in Section 60, cannot assume the authority of Regent, the National Skupshtina shall, by secret vote, choose three Regents for the King. Regents for the King shall be chosen for four years; after this time, in the event that the regency must be prolonged at least for a year, there shall be a new election; if the regency is to last longer, a secret election shall be held again for four years.

Eligible for Regents are only those born Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, citizens of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes who are 45 years of age and have a higher education.

Before they take the King's authority into their hands the Regents must take an oath before the National Skupshtina which has chosen them that they will be faithful to the King and that they will rule according to the Constitution and the laws of the land.

Sect. 62. If one of the three Regents is for the time absent or [in any way] prevented, the two other Regents shall have authority and shall carry on State business without him.

Sect. 63. The Regents shall care for the education of a minor King. The administrators appointed by the will of a King shall care for the property of a minor King. If the deceased King has not appointed administrators, the Regents shall appoint them, conferring with the Council of State.

Sect. 64. Until the selection of Regents, the Council of Ministers shall exercise, provisionally, the royal authority under their own responsibility.

Sect. 65. In the event of the death or resignation of the King, the heir to the throne, if he is of age, shall assume the Government at once and shall announce this to the nation by proclamation. At the end of ten days he shall take the prescribed oath before the National Skupshtina. If the National Skupshtina has previously been dissolved and the new one is not yet elected, the old National Skupshtina shall be convoked.

Sect. 66. If the King, after his death, has not left male issue, but the Queen should be pregnant at the time of the King's death, the National Skupshtina shall choose Regents, who shall exercise the authority of the King only until the time of birth. The Government is bound to submit to the National Skupshtina before the selection of Regents, the opinions of three physicians selected from the National Medical Faculty regarding the pregnancy of the Queen. The same requirement holds also in the event that the heir to the throne should die and that his wife should be pregnant at the time of the King's death.

Sect. 67. In the event that the throne, according to the provisions of this Constitution, should remain without an heir, the Council of Ministers shall take into their hands the authority of the King, and shall at once call the National Skupshtina to a special session, in which a solution about the throne shall be reached.

Sect. 68. The civil list of the King shall be fixed by law. The civil list, once fixed, cannot be increased without the consent of the National Skupshtina, nor decreased without the consent of the King.

The King's Regents shall take from the State Treasury, for the fulfillment of their duties, only so much as the National Skupshtina shall fix for them at the time of their selection.

PART VII

National Skupshtina

Section 69. The National Skupshtina shall be composed of representatives which the nation shall choose freely in a general, direct and secret election, held everywhere at the same time, with representation of the minorities.

For every 40,000 inhabitants one representative shall be chosen. If the excess of inhabitants in any election district shall be more than 25,000, one representative shall be chosen for that remnant.

The National Skupshtina shall be elected for four years. The further details about the election shall be prescribed by law.

Sect. 70. Every citizen by birth or naturalization shall have electoral right if he shall have reached the age of 21 years.

Active officers, even though not in service, as well as under officers and soldiers under the flag, cannot exercise electoral right or be elected.

The law shall decide also about woman's right to the vote.

Sect. 71. Those persons shall be deprived temporarily of electoral right: (1) Who are condemned to hard labor (imprisonment), until they shall be restored to their rights; (2) who are condemned to the loss of the privileges of citizen-

ship, for the duration of this punishment; (3) who are under restraint (temporarily mentally incompetent); (4) who are under guardianship.

Sect. 72. For representative in the National Skupshtina can be chosen only those persons who have electoral right, regardless of whether they are entered on the electoral list. From every representative are demanded the following conditions: (1) That he shall be a citizen by birth or naturalization of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Naturalized citizens, if not of Serb-Croat-Slovene birth, must be resident at least ten years counting from the day of naturalization; (2) that he be 30 years of age; (3) that he speak and write the national language.

National representatives cannot be at the same time purveyors or State contractors.

Sect. 73. Political, financial and forest officials as well as officials of the agrarian reform cannot be candidates except they have given up office a year before the announcement of the election.

Other officials who exercise public authority cannot be candidates in the electoral district of their territorial competence.

Officials who shall be chosen for national representatives shall be placed in official retirement during the period of the duration of the mandate.

Ministers, active and in retirement, and professors in the universities can be candidates, and if they are elected shall hold their position.

Sect. 74. Every national representative shall represent the whole nation and not merely those who elected him.

Electors cannot give, and national representatives cannot receive, mandatory and obligatory instructions.

All national representatives shall take oath that they will faithfully preserve the Constitution.

Sect. 75. The National Skupshtina shall meet in the capital city, Belgrade, in regular session every year Oct. 20, if it is not called before that date into extraordinary session by the King's ukas.

If in the event of war the capital is changed, the National Skupshtina shall meet in the provisional capital.

The regular session cannot be dissolved until the State budget shall be fixed.

During the time of war the National Skupshtina is constantly in session except if it itself shall decide otherwise.

Sect. 76. The National Skupshtina shall scrutinize the credentials of its own members and shall decide about them.

The National Skupshtina shall prescribe its own order of business.

Sect. 77. The National Skupshtina shall choose for each session its officials from its own membership.

Sect. 78. The Council of Ministers or individual Ministers shall introduce bills on the King's authority.

The right of introducing bills belongs to every member of the National Skupshtina.

Sect. 79. The King shall conclude treaties with foreign States, but a provisional confirmation of the National Skupshtina is necessary for the validity of these treaties. The provisional confirmation of the National Skupshtina is not necessary for the validity of merely political agreements, if they are not contrary to the Constitution and laws of the State.

An agreement that a foreign army shall occupy land of the kingdom or shall go across it is not valid without provisional confirmation of the National Skupshtina.

The National Skupshtina can, if State necessity demands it, by resolution beforehand, empower the Council of Ministers to take measures for the acceptance of a proposed treaty if it cannot be postponed.

State territory cannot be disposed of or exchanged without the ratification of the National Skupshtina.

Sect. 80. The King shall proclaim the laws by ukas which shall contain also the law itself if passed by the National Skupshtina. All the Ministers shall countersign the ukas. The Minister of Justice shall place on it the State seal and shall care for the publication of the laws in the Official News.

The law shall have binding force fifteen days after publication in the Official News, if the law itself does not stipulate otherwise. The day of publication in the Official News shall be counted.

Sect. 81. The National Skupshtina has the right of inquiry and even of investigation in electoral and purely administrative questions.

Sect. 82. Every member of the National Skupshtina has the right to put questions and interpellations to the Ministry. The Ministers are obliged to give answer to them in the course of the same session at the time which the order of business fixes.

Sect. 83. The National Skupshtina shall deal only indirectly with the Ministers.

Sect. 84. Only its members, members of the Government, and Government confidants have the right to speak in the National Skupshtina.

Sect. 85. The National Skupshtina can make a fully binding decision if there are one-third of all the members present in the sitting.

For a fully binding decision a majority of the votes of the representatives present is necessary. In the event of an equal division of votes, the proposal voted upon shall be regarded as lost.

Sect. 86. No bill can be passed in a legal manner by the National Skupshtina until it shall have passed first through a competent committee.

Voting in the National Skupshtina is usually open; only elections are decided by secret ballot. A vote can be cast only in person.

Each bill must be voted on twice in the same session of the National Skupshtina before it is finally adopted.

Sect. 87. No one can ever call a representative to account for a vote which he has cast as a member of the National Skupshtina.

For all utterances and proceedings in exercise of a mandate, whether in a sitting of the National Skupshtina, or in a committee, or on an individual mission, or in an individual duty at the direction of the Skupshtina, representatives are accountable only to the National Skupshtina according to the provisions of the order of procedure.

Sect. 88. Without the authorization of the National Skupshtina no members can be held to answer for any crime of whatever degree, nor in any event or on any authority be deprived of their freedom, as long as their mandate lasts, unless they are caught in the very act of crime or misdemeanor. But even in this last event the National Skupshtina, if it is in session, shall be informed at once and shall give or refuse authorization for a competent trial to be carried on during the time of the session.

Right of immunity of the representative begins with the day of election.

If any one becomes a representative before a judgment against him on account of any crime is carried out, the authority which made the inquiry and investigation shall give information about

this to the National Skupshtina, which shall give or refuse authorization for the continuance of the proceedings.

A member of the National Skupshtina can be held to account only for that act of which he is charged.

Sect. 89. To the National Skupshtina falls the exclusive right of maintaining order in its midst through its presiding officer. No armed force can be posted in the building of the National Skupshtina, nor in any courtyard, without the consent of the President of the National Skupshtina. Likewise no State officials can perform any acts of authority in the National Skupshtina without his consent.

No armed person may enter the building of the National Skupshtina except persons who are authorized to wear arms and are engaged in service under the National Skupshtina.

PART VIII

Administrative Authority

Section 90. All the Ministers form the Council of Ministers, which stands directly under the King. The King names the President and the members of the Council of Ministers. The Ministers stand at the head of the several branches of the State Administration.

Ministers can also be without portfolio.

In the Ministries there can be placed, where the necessity is shown, State Under Secretaries for one definite part of the business of these branches of the State Administration. State Under Secretaries, if they are chosen from Parliament, do not lose their mandate.

Ministers name the subordinate State officials according to the provisions of the law.

Ministers before entering upon their duty take oath to support the Constitution and be faithful to the King.

Sect. 91. Ministers are responsible to the King and to the National Skupshtina.

The King and the National Skupshtina can bring charges against Ministers for infringement of the Constitution and of the laws of the land committed in their official capacity. For wrongs which Ministers do by an illegal [act in] fulfillment of duty the State is responsible.

Sect. 92. Charges can be brought against Ministers both during the time of their service and for five years after retirement.

A proposal that charges be brought against a Minister must be made in writing and must contain the charges.

If the National Skupshtina brings charges against a Minister a decision to bring the Minister before the court shall be brought by a majority of two-thirds of the votes of the members present.

Sect. 93. The State Court shall try Ministers. The State Court is formed of six Councilors of State and six Court of Cassation Judges, whom each of these bodies shall choose by lot in their plenary sittings. The President of the Court of Cassation is the President of the State Court.

For those acts which are not foreseen in the said law punishment shall be fixed by the law about Ministerial responsibility.

Further details about Ministerial responsibility shall be set forth in a special law.

Sect. 94. Administrative authority can make the necessary regulations for the application of laws.

By regulations with legal force administrative authority can regulate relations only on the basis of legal authorization which shall be given especially for each case.

The National Skupshtina can by resolution declare without force in whole or in part regulations set forth on the basis of legal authorization.

Regulations may be published, and in them must be cited each time the law on the basis of which they are made.

Sect. 95. Administration in the kingdom shall be conducted by departments, circuits, districts and communes.

The division into departments shall be made by law on natural, social and economic bases. One province can have at most 800,000 inhabitants.

Two or more smaller departments can be joined into one larger department. The departmental assemblies of the departments concerned shall make the final decision about this. But even such a department cannot have more than 800,000 inhabitants.

At the head of each department shall be a Great Zupan, whom the King shall appoint and who shall conduct the business of State administration in the department through State officials.

Sect. 96. For business of a city, commune, district and departmental character there shall be established local civil autonomous organizations for the city, commune, district and department on an elective basis.

A special law shall be passed regarding the government and autonomy of cities.

Autonomous business shall be cared for by special autonomous officials, according to the provision of the law.

In the range of activity of the autonomous departmental administration shall fall the following sorts of business:

1. Departmental finances: (a) Making up the departmental budget; (b) disposition of departmental public taxes, which are fixed on the basis of the law by the department to cover departmental expenditures.

2. Departmental public works, as also building prescriptions.

3. Care for the furthering of departmental economic interests: Agriculture, stock raising, vine culture, fruit culture, forestry, lake and river fisheries, hunting, as also for technical improvement of the land.

4. Administration of public property.

5. Care for the public health in the departments, as well as for all institutions, through which the health status of the department may be furthered.

6. Care about social problems in the department.

7. Departmental humane institutions.

8. Departmental means of communication.

9. Co-operation in the furtherance of enlightenment in the department.

10. Co-operation in industrial education in the department.

11. Establishment and maintenance of seed institutions, tourist clubs, mutual loan and insurance associations.

12. The expression of opinion at the request of the Government about projects in conformity with the law, which concern the department, as also in general about all other subjects for which the Government asks their opinion.

Also other business can by law be entrusted to the departmental, autonomous administration.

If the department with its means should not be able to carry out the several matters enumerated, the State shall on demand of the departmental Skupshtina and by decision of the National

Skupshtina give the necessary means or shall itself take over the carrying out of these matters.

Sect. 97. Autonomous [local] units shall have their yearly budgets. The administration of autonomous units shall be under the supervision of the Minister of Finance and the chief control shall be regulated by special laws.

Sect. 98. The departmental organs of administration are the departmental Skupshtina and the departmental committee.

The departmental and district Skupshtina shall choose for themselves a President, who shall preside over their sittings. They shall choose also a departmental and district committee.

By exception, joint competence can be assigned by law for the same branches of State and autonomous work in the department.

The Great Zupan is the chief official of the general State administration in the department, in so far as special competence for one or more departments is not given by law for special business of State administration.

The law shall decide what State business the Great Zupan shall handle in consultation with the departmental committee.

Further details about authority and competence of autonomous bodies—city, commune, district and departmental—shall be fixed by a special law.

Sect. 99. The departmental Skupshtina has the right to make departmental regulation about those matters of its competence. The Great Zupan of the department shall proclaim departmental regulations.

The Great Zupan of the department shall stay from proclamation regulations which he finds are not based on the Constitution and the law. In this event he shall bring such regulations with his opinion to the Council of State for decision, and shall inform the competent Minister about this. If the Council of State shall find that the said regulations are not based on the Constitution or on any law, they shall not be proclaimed or published. The Council of State is obliged to bring in their decision within two months. If the Council of State shall not bring in their decision in that time, the decision of the Great Zupan shall stand.

Sect. 100. The departmental committee shall prescribe provisions and directions for the fulfillment of departmental regulations.

Sect. 101. The State administrative authority exercises supervision over autonomous business authorities through the Great Zupan and individual expert officials. The Great Zupan has the right to stay from execution all decisions of autonomous officials which should not be based on the Constitution, the laws or departmental regulations. Against a ruling of the Great Zupan a complaint can be lodged with the Council of State within the time limit of the law. If the Council of State should not bring a ruling within a month at furthest from the date of its receipt, the decision of the Zupan shall stand.

Sect. 102. For matters of administrative nature administrative courts shall be established. The law shall fix their seat, competence and organization.

Sect. 103. The Council of State is the highest administrative court. The King shall appoint members of the Council of State on the advice of the President of the Council of Ministers, and in the following manner: The King shall name half the members from twice the number which the National Skupshtina proposes, and the National Skupshtina shall choose the other half from twice the number which the King proposes. The filling of the administrative positions of the Councilors of State shall be fixed by a special law which can also deviate from the above stipulations.

For members of the Council of State only those higher officials or public workers who have Faculty (university) preparation or ten years' State service or public work can be appointed.

At least two-thirds of the Councilors of State must have diplomas after completing [the work of] a legal Faculty.

Members of the Council of State can be removed from their places, transferred to another branch of State service and placed on pension only on legal action. But when they reach 70 years of age or become ill, so that they cannot fulfill their duty, they must be placed on pension.

The Council of State has the following duties:

1. As the highest administrative court it decides on matters of administrative nature. Matters pertaining to a complaint against a ukas and Ministerial decrees shall be decided by the Council of State in first and last instance.

2. As an administrative organ it heads State Administration and decides about acts of administrative nature for which its approval is not necessary according to special laws.

3. It exercises supervisory authority over autonomous units according to the provisions of the law.

4. It decides conflicts about competence between State administrative authorities as well as conflicts about competence between State and autonomous authorities.

5. It decides also about other questions which shall be placed within its competence by law.

Further details about the constitution of competence and its handling under the Council of State shall be prescribed by special law.

Sect. 104. State competence shall be established according to the prescriptions of the law.

Sect. 105. It shall be prescribed by law how officials shall be named.

Sect. 106. The names of State officials, rights and duties, pay and pensions of State officials according to their office shall be fixed by the law about officials.

Sect. 107. State officials are officials of the whole State and shall work for the general interest.

The use of their authority and position by State officials for partisan aims, as also the influence of a chief on State officials, shall be punished according to the law.

Sect. 108. An official to whom a permanent place shall be assured by law cannot be removed against his will without process of a regular criminal or disciplinary court.

PART IX

Judicial Authority

Section 109. Judges are independent. In the rendering of justice they shall not stand under the influence of any authority, but shall judge according to the law.

Judges and judicial competency can be established only by law. But in no event can extraordinary Judges or commissions be established for investigations.

In family and supervisory business of the Mussulmans State Sheriat Judges shall act.

Sect. 110. For the whole kingdom there shall be only one Court of Cassation, with its seat at Zagreb.

The Court of Cassation is competent also for the settlement of conflicts between administrative,

civil or military authority and judicial authority. Likewise it is competent, also for the settlement of conflicts between administrative and regular courts.

Sect. 111. The appointment of Cassation and Appellate Judges and of the President of courts of the first rank shall be made by the King's ukas (decree) on the advice of the Minister of Justice from among the number of candidates which the original body shall select, the constitution of which shall be fixed more exactly by law.

Sect. 112. The Judges of all courts are permanent. Judges cannot be deprived of their office nor from any cause be relieved from duty against their will, without process of regular courts or disciplinary process of the Court of Cassation. Judges cannot be held to account for their judicial work without approval of a competent Appellate Court. For members of the higher courts the Court of Cassation shall give this approval.

A Judge cannot, even provisionally, be assigned to another paid or unpaid public service without his own consent and the approval of the Court of Cassation.

A Judge can be transferred only at his own consent.

A Judge can be in service only until reaching the sixty-fifth year of his life and the Presidents of the Cassation and Appellate Courts till the age of 70 years. Before that time Judges can be placed on pension only on written request or if they have so failed physically or mentally that they cannot fulfill their duty. The Court of Cassation shall bring in the rulings about pensioning in this last event.

PART X

State Economy

Section 113. Each year the National Skupshtina shall draw up a State budget, which it shall fix only for a year.

The budget must be spread before the National Skupshtina at furthest a month after its coming together. At the same time with the budget shall be spread before the National Skupshtina for survey and approval also a complete account of the expenditures of the last fiscal year.

The National Skupshtina cannot increase the showing of the parts, but can decrease and omit them.

The budget shall be approved by parts.

The manner of construction and completion of the budget shall be prescribed by law.

The savings of one part of the budget or budget year cannot be expended in satisfying the needs of another part or year, without the approval of the National Skupshtina.

Sect. 114. Until the budget laid before it shall be approved, the National Skupshtina can approve one-twelfth for one or more months. If the National Skupshtina is dissolved before the budget is fixed, the budget of the preceding fiscal year shall be prolonged by ukas for at most four months.

Sect. 115. State expenditures and general State outlay shall be fixed by law.

The National Skupshtina shall decide about State loans. The Government is obliged to lay before the National Skupshtina, through the Chief Control, a punctual attested report, whether arrangements about loans are concluded and fulfilled in the sense of the law.

Sect. 116. Tax obligation is general, and all State public expenditures are general for the whole State.

[A] tax shall be paid according to taxable worth, and progressively.

The King and heir to the throne shall pay State taxes on private property.

No help whatever, permanent or temporary; no gift or loan can be given from the State Treasury if it shall not be based on the law.

Sect. 117. The Minister of Finance shall have control of State property, so far as the laws do not establish otherwise.

A special law shall be passed about the manner of disposal of State goods.

[The] right of monopoly shall fall to the State.

Ores, medicinal waters and springs and forces of nature are State property.

A special law shall be passed about the giving over of mining, industrial or, indeed, any other privileges.

Sect. 118. A Chief Control shall be established for the oversight of State accounts and supervision of the completion of State and provincial budgets and as head of the Court of Accounts.

The President and members of the Chief Control shall be chosen by the National Skupshtina from a list of candidates, which the Council of State shall prepare and in which shall be nominated twice as many candidates as there are places vacant.

The President and half the members of the Chief Control must be jurists (i. e., members of the bar). The other members must have been Ministers of Finance or must have had ten years of proved service in financial employment.

The President and members of the Chief Control shall enjoy the same right of tenure as the members of the Council of State.

Further details about the composition, authority and procedure of the Chief Control shall be set forth in a special law.

It shall be fixed by law in what events there shall be grounds for complaint against the ruling of the Chief Control to the Court of Cassation.

The Chief Control shall survey, justify and liquidate accounts of general administration and all bills rendered against the State Treasury. It shall watch that no expenditure overstep the budget, and that no sum shall be carried from one part of the budget into another. It shall close up the accounts of all State administration and is obliged to bring together all evidence and information.

A complete State accounting shall be laid before the National Skupshtina in conjunction with explanations of the Chief Control and that, at longest, for one year, reckoning from the completion of each fiscal year.

PART XI

The Army

Section 119. Military obligation is general, according to the ordinances of the law. The organization and size of the army and fleet shall be prescribed by law. The King, depending on the advice of the Minister of War and Marine, shall prescribe the formation of units for both within the prescriptions of the law. How much of the army shall be held under the flag shall be decided each year by the budget.

Sect. 120. The military courts are independent. In rendering justice, the Judge shall not be under

any authority, but shall judge according to the law.

The Judges of the Military Appellate Court shall be permanent, but the permanency of the Judges of military courts of first instance shall be regulated by the law.

Judges of a military court of first instance cannot be held to account for their judicial work without the approval of the Military Appellate Court, and Appellate judges without the approval of the Court of Cassation. Judges of a Military Appellate Court can be transferred only by their own consent, and in the event of promotion to a higher position, and Judges of a military court of first instance in accordance with the ordinances of the law.

Sect. 121. The civil courts shall judge crimes which a civilian associated with the army commits, but during time of war military courts.

Sect. 122. No one, on reaching the age of 20 years, can enter State service or remain in it if he has not served his year according to the ordinances of the law or been excused from military service.

Sect. 123. For the maintenance of internal order, the military can be used only on the request of competent civil authorities.

Sect. 124. A foreign army cannot be taken into the service of our State, as also the army of our State cannot be placed in the service of any foreign State without the previous approval of the National Skupshtina.

PART XII

Changes in the Constitution

Section 125. The National Skupshtina, with the King, shall decide about changes in the Constitution.

Sect. 126. A proposal that something be changed or supplemented in the Constitution can be made by the King or the National Skupshtina.

In such proposal must be named expressly all the points of the Constitution which should be changed or supplemented.

If the King has made the proposal, he shall impart this to the National Skupshtina, but the National Skupshtina can be prorogued at once afterward, and shall be convened anew after four months at longest.

If such proposal originated from the National Skupshtina, decision shall be made about it on the basis foreseen for decisions of legal (constitutional) proposals with a majority of three-fifths of the whole number of members.

If the proposal shall be adopted in this manner, the National Skupshtina shall be prorogued and convened anew at latest in a period of four months from the day when the proposal was adopted.

And in one and the other event the National Skupshtina can decide only about those changes and supplements of the Constitution which the proposal on the basis of which it was called together contains.

The National Skupshtina shall make decisions with a majority of half plus one of the total number of its members.

Sect. 127. In the event of war or general mobilization the National Skupshtina can suspend for the whole territory of the State, and for the event of an armed uprising for any single part of it, by law temporarily these rights of citizens: The right of assembly, coming together and taking counsel, freedom of movement, noninfringement of dwelling, correspondence and telegraphic communication. For the same reason the freedom of the press can be limited in the event of an armed uprising for the part of the State concerned.

PART XIII

Transfer of Authority

Section 128. In the first session of the Skupshtina after the proclamation of the Constitution the Heir to the Throne Alexander as the regent of King Peter I. in the sense of Section 58 of the Constitution shall take the oath:

"In the name of his Majesty King Peter I., I swear with the help of God that I will hold the Constitution inviolable, that I will rule according to it and the laws, that I will preserve the unity of the nation, the independence of the State and the integrity of the territory of the State, and that in all my efforts and work I will have the good of the nation before my eyes. So help me, God. Amen!"

Sect. 129. After this the national representatives in the sitting of the Skupshtina before the President of the Skupshtina shall take this oath:

"I [name] swear that with the help of God and by all that is most holy to me under the law and dearest to me on earth, I will hold true to the Constitution in my work as a representative, and that I will have ever the good of the King and the nation before my eyes and the unity of the State in my heart and mind."

Sect. 130. The provisions and provisional laws, with the signatures of the Provisional Government, published in the Official News, given out for the time from Dec. 1, 1918, until the entering into force of this Constitution, shall remain further in force as laws so far as they are not rescinded or changed by other laws.

Within the period of three months from the entering into life of this Constitution the Government shall lay before the Constitutional Committee all those provisions set forth for the time being in the first sitting which are to be annulled, and the Constitutional Committee shall render its decision as to what shall be announced.

Sect. 131. Until the passing of laws regarding the organization of the Ministries, regarding the Council of State, regarding the Chief Control, regarding the order of business in the Council of State and regarding Ministerial responsibility, there shall be extended provisionally over the whole State the force of the corresponding laws of the Kingdom of Serbia, with changes and additions which shall be carried out in the manner foreseen in Section 133.

Sect. 132. The statute signed by the King Aug. 30, 1909, and published in the Serb News Feb. 26, 1911, shall remain in force until a new statute shall be passed in the sense of Section 57 of this Constitution.

Sect. 133. For the correlation of legislation and administration in the [newly] founded land a short course of procedure shall be established.

All legal proposals which have for their object the correlation of legislation and administration, originating either from the Government or from individual representatives, shall be referred through the President of the Skupshtina to a legislative committee.

The report of the legislative committee with the proposal which the committee has adopted shall be referred to the National Skupshtina for action. Regarding these legal proposals the Skupshtina shall decide by roll-call vote once and for

all whether it shall accept or reject them. Before the vote each Parliamentary group may give short explanation through one representative.

Such rather brief procedure for correlation of legislation and administration in the land can be applied within five years from the day of entering into force of the Constitution, but this time can also be extended by law.

As long as the Constitutional Skupshtina shall last as a legislative Skupshtina the Constitutional Committee shall fulfill the duty of the legislative committee.

Sect. 134. After the entering into force of this Constitution there shall remain for the time being the provisional provincial administrations. A provincial Regent shall exercise administration through a chief of department under the direct supervision of the Minister of Internal Affairs, but as the organ of competent Ministers on the basis of laws and ordinances hitherto prevailing.

Laws passed after the entering into force of this Constitution cannot assign to provincial administrations new duties.

Regarding the progressive transfer of the business of the provincial administrations to the individual Ministries and to the individual departments, according to provisions set forth in the manner foreseen in Section 135, the Council of Ministers shall make decisions in agreement with the provincial Regent concerned.

As long as the provincial administrations shall be prolonged the subordinates of the several Ministries in the provinces are obliged to consult the opinion of the provincial Regent previous to a Ministerial decision for a project of theirs of general character or which bears on the official personnel.

Parties have the right of appeal to the Council of State as a first and last appeal about administrative conflicts in which the provisional provincial administration decides. With respect to this duty, whatever is necessary is prepared in the Council of State. An administrative conflict is only between a private or legal person on the one side and an administrative authority on the other; and they arise there where by regulation or decision of an administrative authority the right of a private or legal person is injured contrary to legal provisions. According to this there is no conflict there where it is established by law for the provisional provincial Executive or administrative authority how he shall handle, judge or decide a matter.

Sect. 135. The project of a law about the division of the country into departments and for the establishment of departments (Sections 95 and 96), as also about the transfer of the previous provincial authority to the Ministerial and Departmental Governments (Section 134), the Government must present to the National Skupshtina for adoption within a period of four months. If the National Skupshtina should not act on these laws within a period of three months, the same shall be carried out under the provisions of Section 133 regarding the correlation of legislation and administration in the country; and in so far as these laws shall not be passed in accordance with this rather short method of procedure in the further time of two months, there shall be made by a decree of the King within one month a division of the country together with the apportionment of the provincial administration in the sense of Sections 95 and 96 of the Constitution. This decree can be changed only in a legal manner. If this division of the country should be made, not in accordance with the first nor the second sentence of this section, but in accordance with the third, then there shall be established in Chorvatia and Slovania four departments.

Likewise, also, if the country be divided by higher decree, according to this section, Tzrna Gora (Montenegro), of 1913, with the region of Boka Kotorska, but without the circuits of Plevlje and Bijelopolje shall constitute a department and shall fulfill the functions of a department according to this Constitution.

In accordance with the law about the apportionment of departments, Bosnia and Herzegovina shall be divided into departments within their present bounds, until this shall be enacted by law, the circuits in Bosnia and Herzegovina shall constitute departments. Uniting of these departments shall be carried out by decision of the Departmental Skupshtinas of the departments concerned by a majority of two-thirds of the votes cast within the limitations fixed by the third paragraph of Section 95 of the Constitution. Single communes or districts can be separated from their departments and annexed to another department within the present bounds of Bosnia and Herzegovina or outside of them, if their autonomous representatives consent to this by a decision of three-fifths of the votes and the National Skupshtina approves this decision.

The circuits (rupanates) shall remain as units of State administration as far as they are not abolished by law. The law shall regulate their circuit work.

Liquidation of the autonomous circuits shall be carried through in favor of the departments and districts as soon as the departments shall be organized.

Sect. 136. Until the new law about officials foreseen in Section 106 of the Constitution, the present law about the rights and duties of officials shall hold. The new law shall contain the transfers of authority in the whole compass and schedule of the officials of administration and shall be passed at furthest within three years from the entering into force of this Constitution, until which time the list of officials shall be extended and revised.

Sect. 137. The Presidents of the courts and all Judges to whom permanency is guaranteed by the Constitution of the law shall be maintained further in their positions and duties in court. In other regions than the former Kingdom of Serbia, permanency for the several Judges can be instituted within a period of one year from the adoption of this Constitution. In this time the Minister of Justice will form a commission of the Judges of the higher courts for these regions, with whom he shall formulate a decision, for what Judges by name this permanency shall not hold.

The necessary filling of administrative Presidencies and judicial positions shall be done according to the laws which are now being formulated.

Judges, who are appointed or shall be appointed in accordance with the law about the provisional filling of official positions during time of war or according to any other provisional law or decree, must pass their judicial examination within a year and a half after the entering into force of this Constitution. Whoever of them does not do this within the time decreed, shall be at once relieved from judicial duty.

The Court of Cassation in Belgrade, the Hundred Seven in Zagreb, the High Court in Serajevo, the Great Court in Podgoritsa and the division of the Court of Cassation in Novy Sad shall continue as hitherto until the new establish-

ment of one Court of Cassation for the whole land and shall be regarded as part of the Court of Cassation.

Sect. 138. The publishing—i. e., the circulation—of newspapers and printed matter can be forbidden if they stimulate hatred against the State as a whole, religious or race discord; likewise if they indirectly incite citizens to change the Constitution or the laws of the land by force, merely if it is seen clearly from the title that they thereby aim at such incitement of the citizens. The provisions of Section 13, Paragraph 3, about the enforcement of suppression, apply also here. If express necessity arises these provisions can be annulled by law.

Sect. 139. Until a law shall be passed about privileges in the sense of Section 117 of the Constitution, all privileges assigned until the day of the proclamation of the Constitution shall be reviewed in the manner foreseen in Section 133 of the Constitution. In the privilege for the cutting of State forests the terms fixed in the review shall have retroactive force from Dec. 1, 1918.

Sect. 140. When this Constitution shall enter into force the Constitutional Skupshtina called Nov. 28, 1920, shall be transformed into an ordinary legislative Skupshtina with the time of duration provided by the electoral law for the Constitutional Skupshtina.

Sect. 141. Until a new law is passed regarding the election of representatives on the basis of the Constitution, that law shall continue in force on the basis of which the elections were held on Nov. 28, 1920, with whatever changes shall be made in conformity with this Constitution. These changes shall be made in the manner provided in Section 133 of this Constitution and shall have force as soon as they receive the sanction of the King.

The committee can make the necessary changes in time also, which that law prescribes, but besides that it is empowered to prescribe the manner, too, in which shall be made the apportionment of the mandates to the several candidate lists in proportion to the number of votes.

PART XIV

Concluding Ordinances

Section 142. This Constitution with the transfer of authority shall come into force when the King signs it, but shall take on binding force when it is published in the Official News. From that day all legal provisions which might be contrary to it shall cease to have force.

The President of the Council of Ministers and all the Ministers shall care for the enforcement of this Constitution.

We recommend to our Provisional Ministry for the Constitutional Skupshtina and Unification of the Laws that this Constitution be published, and to all the Ministers that they care for its enforcement; we enjoin the authorities then that they act according to it, and one and all that they submit to it.

JUGURTHA (d. 104 B.C.), king of Numidia, 118-104 B.C. See NUMIDIA: B.C. 118-104.

Jugurthine War. See NUMIDIA: B.C. 118-104; ROME: Republic: B.C. 118-99.

JUHLKE, Karl Ludwig (1856-1886), German explorer. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

JUJUISM: In Africa. See MYTHOLOGY: African.

JULIA FLAVENTA, ancient name for Barcelona. See BARCELONA: B.C. 3rd-A.D. 6th centuries.

JULIAN (Flavius Claudius Julianus), the Apostate (331-363), Roman emperor, 361-363. See ROME: Empire: 337-361; 361-363; GAUL: 355-361; PARIS: Julian's residence.

JULIAN CALENDAR AND ERA. See CHRONOLOGY: Julian era; Gregorian reformation, etc.

JULIAN CODE. See CODES: 117-533.

JULIAN FAMILY.—"The Julian Family is that of the dictator Cæsar; his name was transmitted, by adoption, out of the direct line, but always within the circle of his kindred, to the five first heads of the Roman empire; Augustus reigned from the year 30 B.C. to the year 14 of our era; Tiberius, from 14 to 37; Caligula, from 37 to 41; Claudius, from 41 to 54; Nero, from 54 to 68."—J. C. L. Sismondi, *Fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 2.

JULIAN LAW. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 90-88.

JULIAN LAWS.—"Cæsar [during his year of consulship, 59 B.C., before he went to Gaul] carried, with the help of the people, the body of admirable laws which are known to jurists as the 'Leges Juliæ,' and mark an epoch in Roman history. . . . There was a law declaring the inviolability of the persons of magistrates during their term of authority, reflecting back on the murder of Saturninus, and touching by implication the killing of Lentulus and his companions. There was a law for the punishment of adultery, most disinterestedly singular if the popular accounts of Cæsar's habits had any grain of truth in them. There were laws for the protection of the subject from violence, public or private; and laws disabling persons who had laid hands illegally on Roman citizens from holding office in the Commonwealth. There was a law, intended at last to be effective, to deal with judges who allowed themselves to be bribed. There were laws against defrauders of the revenue; laws against debasing the coin; laws against sacrilege; laws against corrupt State contracts; laws against bribery at elections. Finally, there was a law, carefully framed, 'De repetundis,' to exact retribution from proconsuls or pro-prætors of the type of Verres, who had plundered the provinces."—J. A. Froude, *Cæsar, ch.* 13.

JULIANUS, Marcus Didius Salvius (132-193), Roman emperor, 193. See ROME: Empire: 192-284.

JULICH-CLEVE CONTEST. See GERMANY: 1608-1618; FRANCE: 1659-1661.

JULIOMAGUS, modern Angers. See VENETI OF WESTERN GAUL.

JULIUS I (d. 352), pope, 337-352.

Julius II (1443-1513), pope, 1503-1513. Joined the League of Cambrai against Venice, 1508; formed the Holy League against France, 1511; called the Lateran council of 1512. See EUROPE: Renaissance and reformation: Catholic reformation; ITALY: 1510-1513; PAPACY: 1471-1513; VENICE: 1508-1509; VATICAN: 15th century.

Julius III (1487-1555), pope, 1550-1555. See PAPACY: 1537-1563.

JULIUS NEPOS. See NEPOS, JULIUS.

JULIUS SEXTUS AFRICANUS (d. 232), Christian chronicler. See HISTORY: 18.

JULY FIRST, dominion day in Canada. See CANADA: 1867.

JULY FOURTH, independence day in the United States. See U. S. A.: 1776 (July).

JULY MONARCHY.—The reign of Louis Philippe, which was brought about by the revolu-

tion of July, 1830 (see FRANCE: 1815-1830; 1830-1840), is commonly known in France as the July Monarchy.

JUNEAU, capital of Alaska, situated about one hundred miles north of Sitka. See ALASKA: 1884-1912; also Map.

JUNGLINGS VEREIN. See YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1625-1844.

JUNGMANN, Joseph Jacob (1773-1847), Czech philologist. See BOHEMIAN LITERATURE: Its significance.

JUNIN, Battle of (1824). See PERU: 1820-1826.

JUNIOR COLLEGE. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Junior college.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Secondary schools.

JUNIPERO, Miguel José Serra (1713-1784), Franciscan missionary in America. See CALIFORNIA: 1769; 1769-1770.

JUNIUS LETTERS.—This remarkable series of political letters appeared in the London *Public Advertiser* over the pseudonym of *Junius.* The first letter bearing this signature appeared on November 21, 1768, the second one on January 21, 1769. In the only authentic edition—the so-called "Woodfall" edition—edited by Junius himself and presented to the proprietor and editor of the *Public Advertiser,* Henry Sampson Woodfall, the mysterious Junius cancelled his first letter of November 21, 1768, and began the edition with that of January 21, 1769. They continued to appear at intervals until January 21, 1772, when the last Junius letter was published. These few facts should be borne in mind, as the number of "Junius Letters" has risen considerably since the author's edition was issued. In 1812, forty years after the last Junius letter had appeared, Woodfall's son, then proprietor and editor of the *Public Advertiser,* engaged the services of a Dr. John Mason Good to bring out a new edition of Junius. "It [this new edition] contains not only the letters acknowledged by Junius and included in the edition of 1772, but others Signed 'Veteran,' etc., the authenticity of which is beyond question,—and many private notes that had passed between the writer and Sampson Woodfall the publisher. Unfortunately, not content with these authentic additions, Dr. Good got hold of the volumes of the *Public Advertiser;* and on the strength . . . of what he is pleased to call 'a thorough knowledge of our author's style,' he thence transferred just what he pleased into his collections as the 'miscellaneous letters of Junius'! . . . In the original edition of 1772 the collected letters of Junius, with the aid of *Philo-Junius, Recens, Moderatus,* &c., amount to 59 or 60. To these Good added more than one hundred!—all, as he states, contributed by Junius to the *Public Advertiser;* though, as we know, unacknowledged by Junius, and the vast majority unknown, we say, to everybody but Dr. Good. . . . More than fifty of these letters are said to have appeared before Junius is known to have written a single line in the Public Advertiser! and yet, as we shall have occasion to show, not one of them was known to Sampson Woodfall to be written by Junius,—and not one is alluded to by Junius himself in his private correspondence respecting the proposed collection of his writings, into which he did not hesitate to introduce letters that had originally appeared with other signatures. . . . We know, if indeed we know or are to believe anything about Junius, that he was a careful and laborious writer. He says [wrote] distinctly to Sampson Woodfall more than once, 'I weigh every word'—'the enclosed has been greatly laboured.' In a private note to Wilkes he thus writes,—'The pains I took with that paper on Privilege were greater than I can express to you. Yet after I had blinded myself with poring over journals, debates, and parliamentary history, &c., &c.,' . . . But observe:—according to Dr. Good this was all idle talk; for Junius had before 1768 been accustomed to write, four, five, six, and even seven letters a month in the Advertiser! Indeed, we are expected to believe that between the 19th of July and the 26th of September, 1768, he wrote no less than sixteen *published* letters, all of which are to be found in the edition of 1812."—C. W. Dilke, *Athenæum, July* 22, 1848.—The contention of Dilke that many of the letters attributed to Junius were not written by the latter is to a considerable extent supported by Junius himself in the preface to the 1772 edition. An examination of a copy of that rare edition will reveal two small volumes, the first of which contains eighteen letters signed "Junius" and six signed "Philo-Junius," avowedly written by Junius, and five letters by Sir William Draper. The second volume contains twenty-five letters signed Junius and fifteen Philo-Junius; and three by Horne Tooke. Finally, there is a letter or appendix bearing no date signed "Junius" and a long extract from a private letter by Junius to John Wilkes. This makes a total of fifty-nine letters acknowledged by Junius as their author. Literary critics accept in addition a few letters after January 21, 1772, signed *Veteran* and, perhaps, a couple bearing other signatures. Thus there is every reason to believe that the letters in Good's edition signed Poplicola, Lucius, Atticus, Valerius, L. L., Cleophas, Why? and Brutus, etc., are not by Junius but other unknown writers, collected by Good from the files of the paper and brought together as "Miscellaneous Letters of Junius." Being by different persons and written from widely different angles of opinion, it was but natural that they should contradict one another, and such contradiction would appear more glaring if it is believed that they were all the work of one hand. This confusion of authorship has given rise to the charge of inconsistency frequently laid against Junius,—that he at one time praised a public character and at another time violently slandered the same individual.—"Junius, when he had been nearly three years before the public, and was known, at least to Woodfall, to have written in the *Public Advertiser* under various signatures, thus spoke on this subject.—'Mr. Horne' (Tooke), he says, 'repeatedly affirms or intimates that he knows the author of these letters. He asserts that he has traced me through a variety of signatures. To make the discovery of any importance to his purpose, he should have proved that the fictitious character of Junius had not been consistently supported, or that the author has maintained different principles under different signatures. I cannot recall to my memory the numberless trifles I have written, but I rely upon the consciousness of my own integrity, and defy him to fix any colourable charge of inconsistency upon me.' Is this the language of a double-dealing knave, such as Mr. Britton and others have described Junius to be? And this public denial and defiance, be it remembered, was made to and through Sampson Woodfall; who must have known as much, at least, as the editor or editors of the edition of 1812,—in which every one of the letters referred to first appeared as the writings of Junius."—*Ibid.*

The letter of January 21, 1769, "contained . . . a

fierce and indiscriminate attack on most men in high places, including the Commander-in-Chief, Lord Granby. . . . [It] roused to controversy a well-known and respectable opponent. Sir William Draper, General in the army and Knight of the Bath, undertook to meet and parry the blows which it had aimed at his Noble friend. In an evil hour for himself he sent to the Public Advertiser a letter subscribed with his own name, and defending the character and conduct of Lord Granby. An answer from Junius soon appeared, urging anew his original charge, and adding some thrusts at Sir William himself on the sale of a regiment, and on the nonpayment of the Manilla ransom. Wincing at the blow, Sir William more than once replied; more than once did the keen pen of Junius lay him prostrate in the dust. The discomfiture of poor Sir William was indeed complete. Even his most partial friends could not deny that so far as wit and eloquence were concerned the man in the mask had far, very far, the better in the controversy. . . . These victories over a man of rank and station such as Draper's gave importance to the name of Junius. Henceforth letters with that signature were eagerly expected by the public, and carefully prepared by the author. He did not indeed altogether cease to write under other names; sometimes especially adopting the part of a bystander, and the signature of Philo-Junius; but it was as Junius that his main and most elaborate attacks were made. Nor was it long before he swooped at far higher game than Sir William. First came a series of most bitter pasquinades against the Duke of Grafton. Dr. Blackstone was then assailed for the unpopular vote which he gave in the case of Wilkes. In September was published a false and malignant attack upon the Duke of Bedford,—an attack, however, of which the sting is felt by his descendants to this day. In December the acme of audacity was reached by the celebrated letter to the King. All this while conjecture was busy as to the secret author. Names of well-known statesmen or well-known writers—Burke or Dunning, Boyd or Dyer, George Sackville or Gerard Hamilton—flew from mouth to mouth. . . . Junius himself took care to enhance his own importance by arrogant, nay even impious, boasts of it. In one letter of August 1771 he goes so far as to declare that 'the Bible and Junius will be read when the commentaries of the Jesuits are forgotten!' . . . In the course of 1770 Mr. Woodfall was indicted for publishing, and Mr. Almon with several others for reprinting, the letter from Junius to the King. [See CRIMINAL LAW: 1770.] The verdict in Woodfall's case was: Guilty of printing and publishing only. It led to repeated discussions and to ulterior proceedings. But in the temper of the public at that period such measures could end only in virtual defeat to the Government, in augmented reputation to the libeller. During the years 1770 and 1771 the letters of Junius were continued with little abatement of spirit. He renewed invectives against the Duke of Grafton; he began them against Lord Mansfield, who had presided at the trials of the printers; he plunged into the full tide of City politics; and he engaged in a keen controversy with the Rev. John Horne, afterwards Horne Tooke. The whole series of letters from January 1769, when it commences, until January 1772, when it terminates, amounts to 69, including those with the signature of Philo-Junius, those of Sir William Draper, and those of Mr. Horne. . . . But the most important of all, perhaps, are the private notes addressed to Mr. Woodfall himself. Of these there are upwards of sixty, signed in general with the letter C.; some only a few lines in length; but many of great value towards deciding the question of authorship. It seems that the packets containing the letters of Junius for Mr. Woodfall or the Public Advertiser were sometimes brought to the office-door, and thrown in, by an unknown gentleman, probably Junius himself; more commonly they were conveyed by a porter or other messenger hired in the streets. When some communication from Mr. Woodfall in reply was deemed desirable, Junius directed it to be addressed to him under some feigned name, and to be left till called for at the bar of some coffee-house. . . . When dedicating his collected letters to the English people, he declares: 'I am the sole depository of my own secret, and it shall perish with me.'"
—Lord Mahon, *History of England, v. 5, ch. 47.*

"Among the mysteries and 'Curiosities of Literature' is the authorship of Junius's Letters. These celebrated political Essays and Satires acquired on their appearance and have maintained extreme and unprecedented popularity; not only from their causticity and unflinching truthfulness of tone and statement, but from the impenetrable mask which concealed the features of the author. The presumed immunities and privileges of Parliament,—the tyranny of King-craft and Minister-craft,—the vassalage of party writers, and the dread of state prosecutions, had previously kept the public press in a state of abject bondage; when a few anonymous letters appeared in the *Public Advertiser* between the years 1767 and 1772, and raised a storm on the political ocean, which endangered many vessels that had till then sailed smoothly on its placid surface. . . . Notwithstanding the celebrity these Letters acquired, and the strenuous efforts that have been made at various times since their publication, and by every artifice that cunning could devise, to discover the anonymous author or authors, no conclusive or satisfactory result has ever yet been attained. Prosecutions [see CRIMINAL LAW: 1843] and imprisonments for libel, Essays, Pamphlets, and Discussions, have all failed to detect the true 'Junius'; who, up to this time [1848], has preserved his incognito, and has upheld and maintained his mystic mask."—J. Britton, *Authorship of the letters of Junius elucidated, pp.* xxv-xxvi.—"The political and literary worlds were equally concerned and greatly stirred up to try and discover who Junius was. Burke wanted to know how he came to be so great a puzzle-power. 'How comes this Junius to have broken through the cobwebs of the Law, and to range uncontrolled, unpunished, through the land? The myrmidons of the Court have been long, and are still, pursuing him in vain. . . . But what do all their efforts avail? No sooner has he wounded one than he lays down another dead at his feet. . . . Kings, lords, and Commons are but the sport of his fury. If he was a member of this House what might not be expected from his knowledge, his firmness and integrity? . . . Though there may be no spear that will reach him at present he may be sometime or other caught."—"Vicarious," *Junius letters: The author-mystery cleared, pp.* 9-10.—"Who was Junius? All are agreed, whoever he was, that he was intimately acquainted with the inner and secret life of the War-office; that he was intimately acquainted with the inner and secret life of the Foreign-office; that he was about the court; that if he were not a member of the Lower House, he was frequently present at the debates held there; that at one time he hated and at another time admired and defended Lord Chatham; that he had a great personal kindness for Woodfall, his printer; that he was a man of brilliant parts, immense

JUNIUS LETTERS

courage, and dogged perseverance; who did an incalculable amount of good and not a little harm; who crushed the Duke of Grafton and insulted the Earl of Mansfield; who was a scarecrow of violence to court-jobbers and back-stairs officials, and who conquered the law with his libels. But the man himself is not less absolutely unknown to us than the Man in the Iron Mask. It is perfectly intelligible that a great literary mystery of this kind should exercise a peculiar fascination upon the mind. . . . He (Junius) is an incomparable enigma. Men of the greatest genius have fastened upon this abstraction and proved him—a mystery."—*Junius: Including letters* (London 1878), xi-xii.—"It will not be difficult to prove that the 'Letters of Junius' have tended, in a most essential manner, to produce the present state of free and fearless discussion which characterizes the press of this country (England). The tone and sentiment which pervade those eloquent epistles have been revived in many modern periodicals. . . . In the vast and varied field of literature there is not a scene or event more completely involved in obscurity—more replete with interest in its origin, progress, and results—than the authorship of Junius's Letters. . . . Spies, traps, and stratagems of every kind were employed for some years to detect the author—bribes, threats, provocations of all sorts, were exercised to bring him into open daylight. He was pronounced to be 'a liar and a coward'; 'a lurking assassin'; 'a lying, infamous, cowardly scoundrel,' and was, indeed, anathematised in every form of vituperative language which rage and revenge could suggest. Instead of provoking angry and hostile passions in the person thus assailed, the language not only excited in him a cool and self-relying complacency, but produced replications so stringently severe and galling to the writers, that the assailants shrunk from further literary combat. . . . We may now comment on the political writings and opinions of Junius, of Burke, of Wilkes, of Paine; as well as on the Parliamentary harangues of Chatham, North, Pitt, Fox, Sheridan, and other once-famed orators and statesmen, without fear of offending the good feelings of honest and independent readers. . . . That the 'Letters of Junius' evince much knowledge of the world—extensive reading—acute intellect—splenetic temper—ardent feelings—strong political bias—warm passions both in friendships and enmities, with consummate art and consequent artifice—is the belief of all persons who have read the whole series, or studied them in detail. The unity and harmony of style and language which pervade these writings show them to be the compositions of one mind: although it is most likely that many of the political and technical facts they record were imparted to the writer by other persons."—J. Britton, *Authorship of the letters of Junius, pp.* 7-10.—"But even the *North Briton* was outdone [in scurrility] by the *Public Advertiser,* which had started life in 1726 as the *London Daily Post.* Between 1769 and 1772, this journal published, above the signature of 'Junius,' a series of letters whose fame has been kept alive by the secrecy in which their authorship was from the first involved. We may perhaps be permitted to wonder that busy men should have thought it worth while to vindicate the claim of any one to the paternity of such compositions. For, in truth, there is no fashionable novelist whose efforts have been more egregiously overrated than the *Letters of Junius.* That their author had a villainous temper, and a considerable command of coarse invective, is certain. . . . Yet Junius is a personage of some consequence in English literature. There are faint traces of him in Burke, and strong traces of him in Macaulay. Above all, from him derives the 'smart' and 'incisive' leader-writer."—J. H. Miller, *Periods of European literature: Mid-eighteenth century, pp.* 314-315.

"Except Swift, is there a human being who has more intentionally concentrated and intensified in his heart venom and hatred? Yet this is not vile, for it thinks itself to be in the service of justice. Amidst these excesses, this is the persuasion which enhances them; these men tear one another, but they do not crawl; whoever their enemy be, they take their stand in front of him. Thus Junius addresses the king: 'Sir,—It is the misfortune of your life, and originally the cause of every reproach and distress which has attended your government, that you should never have been acquainted with the language of truth until you heard it in the complaints of your people. It is not, however, too late to correct the error of your education. We are still inclined to make an indulgent allowance for the pernicious lessons you received in your youth, and to form the most sanguine hopes from the natural benevolence of your disposition. We are far from thinking you capable of a direct, deliberate purpose to invade those original rights of your subjects on which all their civil and political liberties depend.' . . . He writes to the Duke of Grafton: 'There is something in both your character and conduct which distinguishes you not only from all other ministers, but from all other men. It is not that you do wrong by design, but that you should never do right by mistake. It is not that your indolence and your activity have been equally misapplied, but that the first uniform principle, or, if I may call it, the genius of your life, should have carried you through every possible change and contradiction of conduct, without the momentary imputation or colour of a virtue; and that the wildest spirit of inconsistency should never once have betrayed you into a wise or honourable action.' Junius goes on, fiercer and fiercer; even when he sees the minister fallen and dishonoured, he is still savage. . . . 'You have every claim to compassion that can arise from misery and distress. The condition you are reduced to would disarm a private enemy of his resentment, and leave no consolation to the most vindictive spirit, but that such an object, as you are, would disgrace the dignity of revenge. . . . For my own part, I do not pretend to understand those prudent forms of decorum, those gentle rules of discretion, which some men endeavour to unite with the conduct of the greatest and most hazardous affairs.'"—H. A. Taine, *History of English literature, v.* 2, *pp.* 79-80.—"To the last, Junius is a light-armed auxiliary, first of the Grenville connection, then, on George Grenville's death in 1770, of the opponents of the king's tory-minded ministry under Lord North. He darts from one point of vantage to another. Now one, now another, minister is his victim, either when guilty or when unable to defend himself efficiently. Ringing invective, a deadly catalogue of innuendoes, barbed epigrams closing a scornful period, a mastery of verbal fencing and, here and there, a fund of political good sense, all were used by the libeller, and contributed to make him the terror of his victims. . . . But the libeller placed too much trust in his power over the ruling oligarchy and gave too little credit to the dauntless courage and resolution of the king. . . . Junius vanishes with the publication of the collected edition of his letters. . . . Under fresh pseudonyms, such as 'Veteran,' he poured forth furious abuse on Lord Barrington, secretary at war. . . . Junius follows the habit of his fellow-correspondents in dealing very

little with strictly political subjects. Personal recrimination is the chief aim of his letters, and it would hardly be fair to contrast them with those of a different class of authors, such as Burke, or even with the product of the acute legal mind of Candor. Yet, when he treats of political principles he does so with shrewdness and insight. He understood the plain-going whig doctrine he preached, and expounded it, on occasion, with matchless clearness. . . . Scandal, true or false, is the weapon of his choice. 'The great boar of the forest,' as Burke called him, loved the poison in which he dipped his tusks, and took a cruel pleasure in the torture he inflicted. Secure in his anonymity, no insult or counter-thrust could reach him. . . . In Junius, we have the culmination of a series of political writings; but his merits and defects do not exhaust theirs. Abuse and slander and political hatred are continually to be found in all."—C. W. Previté-Orton, *Political literature* (*Cambridge history of English literature, v.* 10, *pp.* 403-406, 410).—"But for the mystery attaching to the authorship of the Junius Letters the name of Junius would probably long ago have been forgotten, except by the historian. But for the suspicion that Philip Francis hid behind the pseudonym, little fame as a writer would have attached to Junius, the qualities of whose methods are thus well summarized by Professor Saintsbury:—'An affectation of exaggerated moral indignation, claptrap rhetorical interrogations, the use, clever enough if it were not so constant, of balanced antitheses, a very good ear for some, though by no means many, cadences and rhythms, some ingenuity in trope and metaphor, and a cunning adaptation of the trick of specializing with proper names with which Lord Macaulay has surfeited readers for the last half-century.' The publication of 'The Francis Letters' will certainly help those who do not find Francis in 'Junius,' and this in spite of a prefatory note on the controversy by Mr. C. F. Keary, in which he proves to his own satisfaction the identity of the two men. These 'Francis Letters' throw naturally no light on the person of Junius, but they go some way to prove, negatively, that Philip Francis was not Junius. . . . His whole character and mode of life, his opinions, his ambitions, his ideals, are a strong contradiction to the theory of his being the author of the celebrated Letters; and although a man may successfully disguise his handwriting on specific occasions; although he may for years successfully conceal his authorship of certain works, he cannot at all times disguise himself, he cannot hide his real character. . . . The voluminous correspondence of Francis never recalls for one instant the vigorous style of Junius."—*Junius and the Francis Letters* (*Literature, Apr.* 20, 1901).—The following list of fifty-one names of persons to whom the letters of Junius have been attributed at different times by different writers is given in Cushing's "Initials and Pseudonyms": James Adair, M. P.; Captain Allen; Lieut.-Col. Isaac Barré, M. P.; William Henry Cavendish Bentinck; Mr. Bickerton; Hugh Macaulay Boyd; Edmund Burke; William Burke; John Butler, Bishop of Hereford; Lord Camden; John Lewis De Lolme; John Dunning, afterwards Lord Ashburton; Samuel Dyer; Henry Flood; Sir Philip Francis; George III.; Edward Gibbon; Richard Glover; Henry Grattan; William Greatrakes; George Grenville; James Grenville; William Gerard Hamilton; James Hollis; Thomas Hollis; Sir George Jackson; Sir William Jones; John Kent; Major-General Charles Lee; Charles Lloyd; Thomas Lyttleton; Laughlin Maclean; Rev. Edmund Marshall; Thomas Paine; William Pitt, Earl of Chatham; the Duke of Portland; Thomas Pownall; Lieut.-Col. Sir Robert Rich; John Roberts; Rev. Philip Rosenhagen; George, Viscount Sackville; the Earl of Shelburne; Philip Dormer Stanhope, Earl of Chesterfield; Richard Suett; Earl Temple; John Horne Tooke; Horace Walpole; Alexander Wedderburn, Lord Loughborough; John Wilkes; James Wilmot, D.D.; Daniel Wray.

Also in: G. W. Cooke, *History of party, v.* 3, *ch.* 6.—C. W. Dilke, *Papers of a critic, v.* 2.—T. B. Macaulay, *Warren Hastings* (*Essays, v.* 5).—A. Bisset, *Short history of the English Parliament, ch.* 7.—J. Ward, *Letters of Junius* (1854).—H. R. Francis, *Junius revealed.*—C. Chabot, *Handwriting of Junius.*—W. Coventry, *Critical inquiry into the letters of Junius* (1825).—Parkes and Merivale, *Memoirs of Sir Philip Francis.*—J. Taylor, *Identity of Junius with a distinguished living character established* (?1818).—B. Francis and E. Keary, ed., *Francis letters.*—L. Stephen, *Sir Philip Francis* (*Dictionary of National Biography,* London).—J. Wade, *Junius.*—W. H. Graves, *Junius finally discovered.*—C. A. W. Pownall, *Thomas Pownall.*

JUNKER CLASS, Germany. See Germany: 1892-1898; Prussia: 1919.

JUNO, goddess of Latin mythology, corresponding to Hera of the Greeks. See Mythology: Grecian.

JUNONIA, settlement at Carthage. See Carthage: B.C. 44.

JUNOT, Andoche, Duke of Abrantès (1771-1813), French general. Distinguished himself in the first wars of the republic; with Napoleon in Egypt, 1798; twice commandant of Paris, 1800 and 1806; in command of the army that invaded Portugal, 1807; created duke of Abrantès and governor of Portugal, 1807; returned to France, 1808. See Portugal: 1807.

JUNTA, a Spanish word signifying council, assembly, association. The *Junta suprema* was the supreme governing body of the Inquisition. The mercantile machinery in Spain found its highest official expression in the *Junta de Comercio y Moned* (Junta, or Council of Commerce and Coinage), which came into existence in 1670. The Central Junta was created during the Spanish War of Independence, 1808-1814.

JUNTA, Apostolic (1824). See Spain: 1814-1827.

JUNTA DE ESTADO (1777). See Spain: 1759-1788.

JUPITER, chief deity of Latin mythology, corresponding to the Greek Zeus. See Mythology: Grecian; Germanic: Identification of Germanic gods, etc.

JUPITER DOLICHENUS, Cult of. See Syria: B.C. 64-63.

JURAT, title of office, chiefly used in the Channel islands. See Jersey and Guernsey.

JURIEH, Battle of. See France: 1799 (August-December).

JURIS-FIRMA, Process of. See Cortes: Early Spanish.

JURISPRUDENCE. See Courts; also Law.

JUROIPACH, Fortress of.—A fortress in the pass of Derbend, between the last spurs of the Caucasus and the Caspian, which the Persians and the Romans undertook at one time to maintain jointly. "This fortress, known as Juroipach or Biraparach, commanded the usual passage by which the hordes of the north were accustomed to issue from their vast arid steppes upon the rich and populous regions of the south for the purpose of plundering raids, if not of actual conquests. Their incursions threatened almost equally Roman and Persian territory, and it was felt that the two na-

tions were alike interested in preventing them."—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy, ch.* 19.

JUROVSKY. See YUROVSKY.

JURY, Trial by.—Trial by jury grew out of something very different from the jury as we know it at the present day. So much is clear; but what the early procedure was from which it rose has been a subject of much study and dispute. In the opinion that now prevails, the origin of trial by jury "was rather French than English, rather royal than popular"; but the English made it what it is, "and what it is, is very different from what it was." It is supposed to have come from a proceeding begun by the Frankish kings, who, when their rights were in dispute, caused an "inquest" to be held, assembling the best and oldest men of the neighborhood and questioning them under oath. "It is here," says Professor Maitland, "that we see the germ of the jury." The Normans brought the procedure of "inquest" to England, and their first important use of it was in the preparation of the Domesday Book, "compiled out of the verdicts rendered by the men of the various hundreds and townships of England in answer to a string of questions. Then Henry II., bent upon making his justice supreme throughout his realm, put this royal remedy at the disposal of all his subjects. This he did not do by one general law, but piecemeal, by a series of ordinances known as 'assizes,' some of which [the Assize of Clarendon, the Assize of Northampton, etc.] may yet be read, while others have perished."—F. Pollock and F. W. Maitland, *History of English law, bk.* 1, *ch.* 5. —See also COMMON LAW: 449-1066; 1066-1154; 1794.

ALSO IN: F. W. Maitland, *Social England, ch.* 3.

JURY SYSTEM: Ancient Athens. See DICASTERIA.

Origin in England. See COMMON LAW: 1066; ENGLAND: 1170-1189.

Charging of. See COMMON LAW: 1208.

Criminal and civil cases.—Jury unanimity. See CRIMINAL LAW: 1166-1215; 1215: Two juries; COMMON LAW: 1154-1189; 1368.

Coroner's jury. See CRIMINAL LAW: 1276.

Challenging jury for cause. See CRIMINAL LAW: 1305.

Jurors cease to be witnesses. See COMMON LAW: 1326-1377; 1670; 1826.

Contrivance for elimination.—Demurrer. See COMMON LAW: 1456.

War regulations, United States. See WAR POWERS OF THE UNITED STATES: Fifth and sixth amendments.

See also GRAND JURY.

JUS CIVILE. See EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Effect of imperial dominion.

JUS GENTIUM.—"The *jus gentium* . . . consisted in that body of principles and usages common to all nations (including the Italians) among whom justice was administered by Roman magistrates. Although it included some rules or principles of international public law (as, *e.g.*, the inviolability of ambassadors), it was wholly different in origin, nature and subject-matter. It originated in the jurisdiction of the *prætor peregrinus* over foreigners (including Latins and Italians) and in relations between Romans and foreigners in Rome and Italy. It related to such matters as verbal contracts, partnerships, loans of money, acquisition by delivery and alluvium, capture in war, rights over slaves, rights of self-defense, etc. Some of its rules, as, for example, those relating to the law of *alluvium*, the right of occupation of *res nullius*, and the absolute ownership of land by the Roman *dominus*, were directly appropriated by Grotius and the other founders of international law, and later applied to international practice. The *jus gentium* of the Romans may thus be regarded as the source of much of the modern law of occupation and territorial sovereignty or jurisdiction."—A. S. Hershey, *History of international relations during antiquity and the Middle Ages* (*American Journal of International Law, Oct.*, 1911, *p.* 921). —See also INTERNATIONAL LAW: Conflict of laws, etc.; Grotius and the early jurists; EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Effects of imperial dominion.

JUS MUNICIPI. See ISOPOLITY.

JUS NATURÆ. See CIVIL LAW; INTERNATIONAL LAW: Grotius and the early jurists; INTERNATIONAL LAW, PRIVATE: Conflict of laws in Rome, etc.

JUS NON SCRIPTUM. See ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: Definition.

JUS POLI, law of heaven. See ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: 400-1000.

JUS POSITIVUM. See CIVIL LAW.

JUS SCRIPTUM. See ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: Definition.

JUSSERAND, Jean Adrien Antoine Jules (1855-), French diplomat and scholar. See FRANCE: 1918-1921; U. S. A.: 1905-1906.

JUSSY, town in France, south of Nancy. During the World War it was taken by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 6; c, 11.

JUSTICE, BED OF. See BED OF JUSTICE.

JUSTICE, BUREAU OF (1888). See LEGAL AID: United States: Historical retrospect.

JUSTICE, Department of, United States.—The Department of Justice was originally developed from the English office of attorney-general. "The office of Attorney-General of the United States was created by the Judiciary Act of 1789, although for several years the duties did not require all the time of the incumbent and he was allowed, if not expected, to engage in private practice. Although the Attorney-General was included by Washington in the number of those who were his cabinet advisers, the Department of Justice was not organized until 1870."—E. Kimball, *National government of the United States, p.* 250.—"The general work of prosecuting delinquents for offenses cognizable under the authority of the United States, and that of conducting civil actions in which the United States was concerned in all tribunals other than the Supreme Court, was conducted by the Attorneys for the respective districts without reference to or interference by the Attorney-General. But the increased growth of Federal jurisdiction following the Civil War brought to the attention of Congress the need of a more systematic conduct of the legal affairs of the Nation."—G. W. Wickersham, *Department of Justice* (*Outlook, Mar.* 19, 1910).—"The functions and duties of the Attorney-General and the Department of Justice [created by the act passed in 1870] are fourfold: (1) The Attorney-General is the legal adviser not merely of the president but of the administration. As such he is frequently called upon to give his opinion on questions concerning the construction of the Constitution and of the laws, not only to the president but to the heads of the departments as well. These opinions involve a double character: they are quasi-judicial rulings, and they also very frequently determine the political policy of the administration. As quasi-judicial rulings the opinions of the Department . . . 'officially define the law, in a multitude of cases, where his decision is in practice final and conclusive. . . . Ac-

cordingly, the opinions of successive Attorneys-General . . . have come to constitute a body of legal precedents, having authority the same in kind, if not the same in degree, with the decisions of the courts of justice.' . . . In addition, . . . his opinion often affects private rights. It has been pointed out that the government of the United States can be sued only with its own consent and that the jurisdiction of the Court of Claims is very restricted; hence the opinion of the Attorney-General is often the only legal decision which a private individual can obtain. 'The Supreme Court will not entertain an appeal from his decision, nor revise his judgment in any case where the law authorized him to exercise his discretion or judgment.' . . . (2) The Attorney-General is the chief advocate of the government. As such he has supervision over all suits to which the United States is a party. . . . After the Attorney-General, the most important officer in the department is the Solicitor-General. He acts in the absence of the Attorney-General and has general charge of the preparation of suits before the courts. The Attorney-General and the district attorneys are also the prosecuting officers of the United States. They conduct criminal prosecution for violations of the laws of the United States, particularly those relating to banking, currency, and revenue. In recent years, however, the activity of the government has been so widely extended, and different departments have been charged with so many specific duties, that special solicitors are assigned to these departments. This is particularly true with regard to the laws prohibiting monopoly—the anti-trust laws. . . . There has been a difference of opinion concerning their interpretation and application; but during the administrations of Presidents Taft and Wilson suits have been brought to a successful conclusion against some of the largest corporations in the country. The conduct of these is under the direction of the Attorney-General's office, but the preparation of the suit, the preliminary investigations, and the trial in the lower courts are frequently assigned to attorneys especially employed for the purpose. (3) The Department of Justice is charged with supervision of the prosecuting and executive officers of the United States courts; that is, with the district attorneys and marshals. Unlike the head of the judicial department in England, the Lord Chancellor, the Attorney-General has no official voice in the selection of the judges and certainly no control; but over the assistant attorneys and the district attorneys he has the same control that is exercised by the heads of other departments. He thus has considerable voice in the distribution of a large amount of patronage. When it is remembered that the majority of the officers in the department are presidential—that is, appointed by the president upon confirmation by the Senate—and are not competitive or classified, it will be seen that the influence of the Attorney-General may be felt in matters which are legal or judicial. It is in this department that the Democratic administration of 1912 made one of its boldest attacks upon the merit system in exempting from the civil service rules all employees in the marshal's offices, from messengers up to deputy marshals. In the control of the district attorneys the Attorney-General may direct that a particular suit be pressed, dismissed, or postponed. From his directions there is no official appeal. Unofficially, appeals have been made to the president or to public opinion with such effect that the orders have been reversed. The United States marshals have the same powers in executing the laws of the United States as the sheriffs have in enforcing the laws of the respective states. There are eighty-six marshals and a number of assistants and deputies. It is their duty to attend the sessions of the district courts and execute all legal processes directed to them under the authority of the United States. The marshals and their assistants and deputies make arrests, carry out the judgment of the court by seizing and selling the property under civil judgments, and under certain circumstances may call upon the military forces of the United States to aid them in the exercise of their duties. The Department of Justice also has administrative control over the penal institutions of the United States. . . . (4) The Attorney-General is also the adviser of the president in the exercise of his pardoning power. . . . The Department of Justice is organized as follows: The Attorney-General, the Solicitor-General, the Assistant to the Attorney-General, six Assistant Attorneys-General, Assistant Attorney-General for customs division, Special Assistant to the Attorney-General for war work, Chief Clerk, Chiefs of the divisions of Accounts and Investigation, Superintendent of Prisons, seven solicitors for the various departments. In Washington there are over fourteen hundred positions in the Department, of which only two hundred and fifty-six are competitive, while over three hundred are noncompetitive and over eight hundred presidential. Outside of Washington there are over twenty-seven hundred positions, of which only about six hundred are competitive."—E. Kimball, *National government of the United States, pp.* 250-254.

ALSO IN: J. S. Easby-Smith, *Department of Justice.*—J. Bryce, *American commonwealth, v.* 1, *ch.* 9.—J. A. Fairlie, *National administration of the United States, pp.* 165-172.

JUSTICE, International, Permanent Court of. See INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF.

JUSTICE OF THE PEACE. See CRIMINAL LAW: 1344.

JUSTICIAR, chief judicial officer of the Normans. See COMMON LAW: 1265.

JUSTIN I (450-527), Roman emperor (Eastern), 518-527.

Justin II (d. 578), Roman emperor (Eastern), 565-578.

JUSTINIAN I (Flavius Anicius Justinianus), the Great (c. 483-565), Roman emperor (Eastern), 527-565. Concluded peace with Persia, 533; conquered the Vandals in North Africa, 533; war with the Ostrogoths in Italy, 535-552; war with Persia, 539-562; codification of Roman law, 528. See ROME: Medieval city: 527-565; 535-553; AFRICA: Ancient and medieval civilization: Roman occupation; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 527-553; ATHENS: 529; BYZANTINE EMPIRE: Part in history; CARTHAGE: 534-558; CORPUS JURIS CIVILIS; EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries: Greece: University of Athens; SAMARIA: Justinian's War; VANDALS: 533-534.

Justinian II, Rhinotmetus (669-711), Roman emperor (Eastern), 685-695, 704-711.

JUSTINIAN CODE. See CORPUS JURIS CIVILIS.

JUSTIZA, or JUSTICIARY, OF ARAGON. See CORTES: Early Spanish.

JUTES, Teutonic tribe. See ENGLAND: 449-473; 449-547; ANGLES; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 5th-6th centuries; EUROPE: Ethnology: Migrations: Map.

JUTHUNGI, Teutonic tribe. See ALEMANNI.

JUTLAND, continental part of Denmark. See DENMARK: Territory.

Ancient name. See CIMBRIAN CHERSONESUS.

1848-1862.—Prussian invasion. See DENMARK: 1848-1862.

1915.—Coöperative movement. See Coöperation: Denmark.

JUTLAND, Battle of (May 31, 1916), most important naval battle of the World War between the German high seas fleet, under Admirals Hipper and Scheer, and the British grand fleet, under Admirals Jellicoe and Beatty. See World War: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a.

JUVAVIUM, Roman name for Salzburg. See Salzburg.

JUVENAL, Decimus Junius Juvenalis (c. 60-140), Roman satirist. See Latin literature: A.D. 14-117; Woman's rights: B.C. 300-A.D. 300.

JUVENALIA.—This was a festival instituted by Nero, to commemorate his attainment of the age of manhood. "His beard was clipped, and the first tender down of his cheek and chin enclosed in a golden casket and dedicated to Jupiter in the Capitol. This ceremony was followed by music and acting," in which the emperor, himself, performed.—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans, ch.* 53.

JUVENILE COURTS. See Child welfare legislation: 1899-1921; 1902-1920; 1903-1920; 1908-1914.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY. See Prison reform: Belgium; England; United States: George junior republic; Boy Scouts: Purpose; Child welfare legislation: 1791-1872; 1889-1900; 1899-1921; 1902-1920; 1903-1920; 1908-1914.

JUVENILE IMMIGRATION, Canada. See Immigration and emigration: Canada: 1867-1910.

JUVERNA, Latin name for Ireland. See Ireland: Geographical description.

JUZIRAL-KADIS, Moorish name for Cadiz. See Cadiz: 711-1262.

K

KAABA AT MECCA.—"An Arab legend asserts that this famous temple was erected by Abraham and his son Ishmael with the aid of the angel Gabriel. Mahomet lent his authority to the legend and devoted to it several chapters in the Koran, and thus it became one of the Mussulman articles of faith. Even before the introduction of Islamism this story was current through a great part of Arabia and spread abroad in proportion as the Ishmaelitish tribes gained ground. . . . This temple, whose name 'square house' indicates its form, is still preserved. It was very small and of very rude construction. It was not till comparatively recent times that it had a door with a lock. . . . For a long time the sole sacred object it contained was the celebrated black stone hadjarel-aswad, an aerolite, which is still the object of Mussulman veneration. . . . We have already mentioned Hobal, the first anthropomorphic idol, placed in the Caaba. This example was soon copied. . . . The Caaba thus became a sort of Arabian Pantheon, and even the Virgin Mary, with her child on her knees, eventually found a place there."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of ancient history of the East, bk.* 7, *ch.* 3.

Also in: W. Muir, *Life of Mahomet, ch.* 2.

KAAHUMANU, queen of Hawaii. See Hawaiian islands: Discovery and early history.

KABAGAMBE, Battle of (1898). See Uganda: 1897-1898.

KABALA. See Cabala.

KABALA, Battle of. See Sicily: B.C. 383.

KABELJAUWS, political party in Holland. See Netherlands: 1345-1354.

KABUL, or Cabul, capital of Afghanistan. (See Asia: Map.) It is a city of great antiquity, and has for ages been the key to northern India, through which the great invasions have passed. It is the chief market of Afghanistan. The population in 1922 was about 150,000.

1840-1841.—Occupation by the British.—Successful native rising.—Retreat and destruction of British army. See Afghanistan: 1838-1842; 1842-1869.

1878-1880.—Murder of Major Cavagnari, British resident.—Second English occupation. See Afghanistan: 1869-1881.

1907.—Development of industries.—Effect of Anglo-Russian Treaty. See Afghanistan: 1907.

KABYLES, group of tribes in Algeria. See Amorites; Libyans; Philology: 25.

KADESH, strong fortress of the ancient Hittites on the Orontes. The name signifies "the holy city." It was the scene of a famous battle in which the Egyptians, under Rameses the Great, defeated the Hittites.—See also Egypt: About B.C. 1350-1200; Hittites.

KADESH-BARNEA, important locality in Biblical history. "It looms up as the objective point of the Israelites in their movement from Sinai to the Promised Land. It is the place of their testing, of their failure, of their judging, and of their dispersion. It is their rallying centre for the forty years of their wandering, and the place of their re-assembling for their final move into the land of their longings."—H. C. Trumbull, *Kadesh-Barnea, pt.* 1.—Mr. Trumbull identifies the site with the oasis of 'Ayn Qadees, in the Wilderness of Zin.

KADIASKERS, Turkish word for judge. See Sublime Porte.

KADISIYA, Battle of (636), the first of the decisive series of battles in which the Arab followers of Mohammed effected the overthrow of the Persian empire (the Sassannian) and the conquest of its dominions. It was desperately fought under the walls of the fortified town of Cadesia (Kadisiyeh in the Arabic) situated near the Sea of Nedjef, between the Euphrates and the Arabian desert. The Persians numbered 120,000 men, under Rustam, their best general. The Arabs were but 30,000 strong at first, but were reinforced the second day. They were commanded by Sa'ad and led by the redoubtable Kaled. The battle was obstinately prolonged through four days, but ended in the complete rout of the Persians and the death of Rustam, with 40,000 of his men.—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy, ch.* 26.—See also Caliphate: 632-651.

KADMEIA, or Cadmea, citadel of Thebes, Bœotia. See Bœotia; Greece: B.C. 399-387; B.C. 385-383.

KADMONITES. See Saracens.

KAFFIR, tribes of negroes of the Bantu family in southeast Africa. See Africa: Races of Africa: Modern; South Africa, Union of: Aboriginal inhabitants.

Wars. See South Africa, Union of: 1811-1868.

KAFIRISTAN, eastern province of Afghanistan, taken in 1896. See Afghanistan: 1896.

KAFRARIA, or Kaffraria, district in the southeastern part of Cape province, South Africa, was annexed by the British in 1868. See South Africa, Union of: 1811-1868.

KAGAYAN, or Cagayan, island in the Philippine archipelago. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-December).

KAGERA RIVER, in East Africa, scene of fighting during the World War. See World War: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 12.

KAGHUL, Battle of (1770). See Turkey: 1768-1774.

KAHE, region in Kenya Colony, British East Africa, occupied by the British during the World War. See World War: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 6.

KAHKWAS, North American Indian tribe. See Hurons.

KAHOOLAWE, island in the Hawaiian group. See Hawaiian islands: Geographical description; Map.

KAINARDJI, or Kutschuk Kainardji, Treaty of (1774). See Asia: 1500-1900; Russia: 1768-1796; Turkey: 1768-1774.

KAIOWES, North American Indian tribe. See Shoshonean family.

KAIPING, town in Manchuria on the Liaotung peninsula, taken by the Japanese in 1904, during the Russo-Japanese War. See Japan: 1902-1905.

KAIRWAN: Founding of.—Acbah, the first of the Moslem conquerors of Northern Africa who penetrated as far westward as the domain of ancient Carthage, but who did not take that city, secured his footing in the region [670-675] by founding a new city, thirty-three leagues southeast of Carthage and twelve leagues from the sea. The site chosen was a wild, thickly wooded valley, in the midst of which the Arab leader is said to have cleared a space, erected walls around it, and then, planting his lance in the center, cried to his followers: "This is your Caravan." Hence the name, Kairwan or Caerwan, or Cairoan. Fixing his seat of government at Kairwan, building mosques and opening markets, Acbah and his successors soon made the new city a populous and important capital.—Based on W. Irving, *Mahomet and his successors, v. 2, ch. 44.*

Also in: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. 51.*—A. A. Boddy, *Kairwan the Holy.*

KAIS, reputed founder of the Afghans. See Afghanistan: Name.

KAISER. See Cæsar, Title.

KAISER WILHELM. See William II, Friedrich Wilhelm Victor Albert.

KAISER WILHELM SHIP CANAL, or Kiel Canal, from the Baltic sea to Brunsbüttel on the Elbe river. It is sixty miles long. See Canals: Principal European canals: Germany; Germany: 1895 (June); Baltic sea.

KAISER WILHELMS LAND, name for the major portion of what was German New Guinea. See Pacific ocean: 1800-1914.

KAISERLAUTERN, Battle of (1794). See France: 1794 (March-July).

KAJAR, Persian imperial dynasty. See Persia: 1905-1907.

KAKI SCALA, name for part of Scironian road, Greece. See Scironian way.

KALAKAUA, David (1836-1891), king of Hawaii, 1874-1891. See Hawaiian islands: Discovery and early history.

KALAPOOIAN FAMILY.—"Under this family name Scouler places two tribes, the Kalapooian, inhabiting 'the fertile Willamat plains' and the Yamkallie, who live 'more in the interior towards the sources of the Willamat River.' . . . The tribes of the Kalapooian family inhabited the valley of Willamette River, Oregan, above the falls."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh annual report, Bureau of Ethnology, p. 81.*—See also Indians, American: Cultural areas in North America: North Pacific coast area.

KALAT, name of province and capital of Baluchistan. See Baluchistan.

KALB, Johann, Baron de (1721-1780), German soldier, served in the American Continental army during the Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1777 (January-December); 1777 (July); 1780 (February-August).

KALEDIN, Alexei (1861-1918), Russian general. Served at the head of the 12th Cavalry Division in the Galician campaigns, 1914-1915; commanded the 8th Army in the Lutsk campaign, 1916; led an anti-Bolshevik rebellion of the Don Cossacks, and was elected Ataman of the Don, 1917; committed suicide, 1918. See World War: 1916: III. Russia and the eastern front: a. 1: a, 2.

KALENIN, president of All-Russian executive committee. See U.S.A.: 1921 (March): Note from Soviet government.

KALEVALA, or Kalewala.—"To a certain class of modern philologists, no poem in the world is more familiar than the Kalewala, the long epic, which is to the mythology and traditional lore of the Finns what the Iliad and Odyssey of Homer are to the heroic story of ancient Greece. It is the source from which nearly all the information connected with the religious creed, the moral notions, the customs, and the domestic details of a most remarkable race is to be obtained. If we would know how the Greeks of the heroic age prayed, fought, ate, drank, sported, and clothed themselves, we turn to the pages of Homer. If we would obtain similar knowledge on the subject of the Finns, we consult the Kalewala. Though the traditions of the Finnish heroes are possibly as old as those of Achilles and Ajax, the arrangement of them into a continuous poem is a work of very recent date. . . . Fragments of Finnish poetry, collected from the oral traditions of the people, had already made their appearance, though even the first important collection of these, which was made by Dr. Zacharias Topelius, dates no further back than 1822. . . . But it is with Dr. Lönnrot that the existence of the epic as an epic, with the title 'Kalewala,' begins. He published it in thirty-two Runes,—that is to say, books or cantos, for the word, which previously denoted an independent poem, now sinks into little more than a sign of division, though here and there, it must be confessed, an abrupt transition occurs, to which a parallel would not be found in the Iliad or the Odyssey. In 1849 a second edition of the Kalewala was published, likewise under the superintendence of Dr. Lönnrot, containing fifty cantos and nearly 23,000 lines."—J. Oxenford, *Kalewala (Temple Bar, Dec., 1860).*—"Besides its fresh and simple beauty of style, its worth as a store-house of every kind of primitive folk-lore, being as it is the production of an Urvolk, a nation that has undergone no violent revolution in language or institutions—the Kalevala has the peculiar interest of occupying a position between the two kinds of primitive poetry, the ballad and the epic. . . . Sixty years ago, it may be said, no one was aware that Finland possessed a national poem at all. Her people—who claim affinity with the Magyars of Hungary, but are possibly a back-wave of an earlier tide of population—had remained untouched by foreign influences since their conquest by Sweden, and their somewhat lax and wholesale conversion to Christianity: events which took place gradually between the middle of the twelfth and the end of the thirteenth cen-

turies. . . . The annexation of Finland by Russia, in 1809, awakened national feeling, and stimulated research into the songs and customs which were the heirlooms of the people. . . . From the north of Norway to the slopes of the Altai, ardent explorers sought out the fragments of unwritten early poetry. These runes, or runots, were sung chiefly by old men called Runoias, to beguile the weariness of the long dark winters. The custom was for two champions to engage in a contest of memory, clasping each other's hands, and reciting in turn till he whose memory first gave in slackened his hold. The Kalevala contains an instance of this practice, where it is said that no one was so hardy as to clasp hands with Wäinämöinen, who is at once the Orpheus and the Prometheus of Finnish mythology. These Runoias, or rhapsodists, complain, of course, of the degeneracy of human memory; they notice how any foreign influence, in religion or politics, is destructive to the native songs of a race. 'As for the lays of old time, a thousand have been scattered to the wind, a thousand buried in the snow. . . . As for those which the Munks (the Teutonic knights) swept away, and the prayer of the priest over-whelmed, a thousand tongues were not able to recount them.' In spite of the losses thus caused, and in spite of the suspicious character of the Finns, which often made the task of collection a dangerous one, enough materials remained to furnish Dr. Lönnrot, the most noted explorer, with thirty-five Runots, or cantos. These were published in 1835, but later research produced the fifteen cantos which make up the symmetrical fifty of the Kalevala. In the task of arranging and uniting these, Dr. Lönnrot played the part generally ascribed to Pisistratus in relation to the Iliad and Odyssey. He is said to have handled with singular fidelity the materials which now come before us as one poem, not without a certain unity and continuous thread of narrative. It is this unity which gives the Kalevala a claim to the title of epic, although the element of permanence which is most obvious in the Greek epics, and in the earliest Hebrew records, is here conspicuously absent. . . . Among the Finns we find no trace of an aristocracy; there is scarcely a mention of kings, or priests; the heroes of the poem are really popular heroes, fishers, smiths, husbandment, 'medicine-men' or wizards; exaggerated shadows of the people, pursuing on a heroic scale, not war, but the common daily business of primitive and peaceful men. In recording their adventures, the Kalevala, like the shield of Achilles, reflects all the life of a race, the feasts, the funerals, the rites of seed-time and harvest, of marriage and death, the hymn, and the magical incantation. Were this all, the epic would only have the value of an exhaustive collection of the popular ballads which, as we have seen, are a poetical record of all the intenser moments in the existence of unsophisticated tribes. But it is distinguished from such a collection, by presenting the ballads as they are produced by the events of a continuous narrative, and thus it takes a distinct place between the aristocratic epics of Greece, or of the Franks, and the scattered songs which have been collected in Scotland, Sweden, Denmark, Greece, and Italy. Besides the interest of its unique position as a popular epic, the Kalevala is very precious, both for its literary beauties and for the confused mass of folk-lore which it contains. . . . What is to be understood by the word, 'Kalevala'? The affix 'la' signifies 'abode.' Thus, 'Tuonela' is 'the abode of Tuoni,' the god of the lower world; and as 'kaleva' means 'heroic,' 'magnificent,' 'Kalevala' is 'The Home of Heroes,' like the Indian 'Beerbhoom,' or 'Virbhûmi.' The poem is the record of the adventures of the people of Kalevala—of their strife with the men of Pohjola, the place of the world's end."—A. Lang, *Kalevala* (*Fraser's Magazine, June*, 1872).—A complete translation of the Kalevala into English verse, by John Martin Crawford, was published in New York, in 1888. The poem is the acknowledged prototype, in form and content, of Longfellow's "Hiawatha." —See also FINLAND: 1809-1898; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: Finnish.

KALGOORLIE, town in western Australia. See WESTERN AUSTRALIA: 1892-1893.

KALI, Hindu goddess. She is the wife of Siva, and is regarded as the patroness of destruction, the devastating plagues and violent death. The murders of the Thugs were committed in her honor.

KALIDASA (fl. 1st century B.C.), Indian dramatic and lyric poet. See HINDU LITERATURE.

KALINGA, name of one of the old kingdoms of southern India. See BENGAL.

KALISCH, Kalisz, or Calisch, city of Poland, about 150 miles southwest of Warsaw. In 1914 of the World War, it was occupied by the Germans.

Battle of (1706). See SWEDEN: 1701-1707.

Treaty of (1813). See GERMANY: 1812-1813.

KALITA, Ivan, Russian ruler, 1328-1340. See RUSSIA: 13th century.

KALKA, Battle of (1223 or 1224). See RUSSIA: 1237-1294.

KALMAR, Union of. See SWEDEN: 1397; DENMARK: Survey of history.

KALMUKS, branch of the Mongol race. See TATARS.

KALNOKY, Gustav Siegmund, Count (1832-1898), Austro-Hungarian statesman. See HUNGARY: 1894-1895.

KALUSZ, town in southwestern Galicia. It was attacked by the Austrians during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: **f, 5.**

KAMAKO, known as Kamatari, minister of the interior and founder of the Fujiwara family. See JAPAN: 550-708.

KAMAKURA, seacoast village of Japan, twelve miles south of Yokohama. It was the ancient capital. See JAPAN: 1159-1199; 1199-1333.

KAMATARI. See KAMAKO.

KAMBALU, or Cambalu, old name for Peking. See CHINA: 1259-1294.

KAMBAR (fl. 17th century), chief of the Brahui, a tribe in Baluchistan. See BALUCHISTAN: 17th century.

KAMBOJA. See CAMBODIA.

KAMBRIA, early name for Cumberland, England. See KYMRY.

KAMBULA, Battle of (1879). See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1877-1879.

KAMEHAMEHA, name of five kings of Hawaii. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Discovery and early history.

Kamehameha I (1736-1819), king of Hawaii.

Kamehameha II (1797-1824), king of Hawaii, 1819-1824.

Kamehameha III (1813-1854), king of Hawaii, 1824-1854.

Kamehameha IV (1834-1863), king of Hawaii, 1855-1863.

Kamehameha V (1830-1872), king of Hawaii, 1863-1872.

KAMERALISM, German word for mercantilism. See ECONOMICS: 17th-18th centuries.

KAMERUN. See CAMEROONS.

KAMI, ancient name for Egypt. See EGYPT: Names.

KAMI, Japanese word for God. See MYTHOLOGY: Japan: Characteristics.

KAMIL, Malik-al, sultan of Egypt. See CRUSADES: Military aspects, etc.

KAMIMURA, Hikonojo, Baron (1849-1916), Japanese admiral. Served in the Russo-Japanese War. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

KAMIO, Mitsuomi, Japanese general. Led the land attack on Kiao-chou in 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: d, 2.

KAMIONKA, town in Poland, about twenty-five miles northeast of Lemberg. A battle was fought here during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 4.

KANAGAWA, Treaty of (1854). See ASIA: 1500-1900.

KANAKAS, aboriginal inhabitants of the Hawaiian islands. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Anthropology of the islands; PHILOLOGY: 27.

KANAWHA, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

KANAWHA, Battle of the Great (1774). See OHIO: 1774.

KANAWHA, Proposed state of (1862). See WEST VIRGINIA: 1861-1862.

KANAWHA STRIKE (1912). See WEST VIRGINIA: 1902-1913.

KANDAHAR, largest city in Afghanistan. It is surrounded by a strong wall, and is an important trade center. In 1922 the population was about 31,500.

1833.—**Besieged by Shah Shujah.** See AFGHANISTAN: 1803-1838.

1879-1881.—**Held by the British.** See AFGHANISTAN: 1869-1881.

KANDHS, tribe in India. See INDIA: People.

KANDY, city in Ceylon. See CEYLON: 1915.

KANE, Elisha Kent (1820-1857), American Arctic explorer. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1850-1883.

K'ANG HSI, or K'ang Hi (1655-1722), second emperor of the Ta Tsing dynasty in China, 1662-1722. During his reign the Chinese empire was greatly extended through the conquest of Khokand, Tibet and Badakhshan. He was a powerful ruler and a notable patron of art and literature. See CHINA: 1662-1838.

KANG YI, assistant grand secretary in China, 1900. See CHINA: 1900.

KANG YU-WEI (c. 1858-), Chinese reformer and scholar. See CHINA: 1898 (June-September); 1916-1917.

KANISHKA, king of Kabul, Kashmir and northwestern India in the 2nd century A.D. See INDIA: B.C. 231-A.D. 480.

KANITZ, Hans Wilhelm Alexander, Count von (1841-1913), German statesman. See GERMANY: 1895-1898.

KANO, province in Sokoto, British North Nigeria, West Africa. It was taken by the British in 1910. See NIGERIA: 1901-1913.

KANO MASANOBU (1424-1520), Japanese painter. See PAINTING: Japanese.

KANO MOTONOBU (1477-1559), Japanese painter and son of Kano Masanobu. See PAINTING: Japanese.

KANONSIONNI, North American Indian tribe. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Iroquoian family.

KANSAS, north central state of the United States, popularly known as the "sun flower state." It was named after the tribe of Sioux Indians that inhabited the territory in the early days. The word means "people of the southwind." The state is bounded on the north by Nebraska, on the east by Missouri, on the south by Oklahoma, and on the west by Colorado. It has an area of 82,158 square miles. In 1920 the population was 1,769,257.

Resources.—The state is pre-eminently agricultural with 45,425,179 acres in farm lands, of which 30,600,760 acres are improved land. The principal crops are grains and potatoes. The extensive live stock industry approximated a total of 6,546,000 head in 1921. Kansas has coal-fields with an area of about 15,000 square miles, from which in 1920 5,982,143 long tons were mined; and oil-fields with a yield of crude petroleum estimated at 38,501,000 barrels. The state also has some zinc, gypsum, limestone, sandstone, and natural gas. See U.S.A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See PAWNEE FAMILY; SIOUAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area.

1541.—**Coronado's expedition.**—Kansas was first visited by Europeans in 1541, when Francisco de Coronado and three hundred others went there in search of treasure, but no results followed this expedition.

1719.—**French occupation.**—In 1719, the French from Louisiana settled in the section now known as Kansas; their occupation lasted six years.

1803.—**Included in the Louisiana Purchase.** See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.

1804-1854.—**Exploration and settlement.**—The region known as Kansas was explored by Lewis and Clark, 1804 (see U.S.A.: 1804-1805: Expedition, etc.); Lieutenant Pike, 1806-1809; and Lieutenant Long, 1819; Fort Leavenworth was established, 1827; the Baptists founded a mission to the Shawnees, 1831; the southwestern part was ceded by Texas, 1850; and between 1850 and 1854 emigrants from Missouri, Arkansas and other northern states rapidly settled the territory.

1854.—**Kansas-Nebraska Bill.—Created territory.** See U.S.A.: 1853-1854; OREGON: 1846-1855; 1856-1859.

1854-1855.—**Territorial governors.—Formation of "Law and Order" party.**—"The inauguration of local government for Kansas Territory devolved upon the Administration of President Franklin Pierce. . . . For Territorial Governor, Andrew H. Reeder, of Easton, Pennsylvania, was appointed, June 29, 1854. . . . Governor Reeder came to Kansas prepared to set up a government and direct the administration of it, as provided in the Kansas-Nebraska bill. . . . [He] immediately opened the Executive offices at Fort Leavenworth. . . . It had been the expectations of the Pro-Slavery men that he would immediately call an election for members of the Territorial Legislature."—W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v.* 1, *p.* 371.—"Governor Reeder divided the territory into districts, appointed judges of election and ordered an election for a Territorial Legislature to be held March 30, 1855. . . . At this March election 6,318 votes were cast, of which 1,410 were legal and 4,908 were fraudulent. . . . Governor Reeder set aside the elections in certain districts for informality, and ordered an election to be held May 22d, to fill vacancies. . . . After his decision in regard to the elections, and his proclamation for the meeting of the Legislature, Governor Reeder went East to meet charges which the Pro-slavery leaders had made in asking his removal. At the election to fill vacancies in the Legislature, neither the Pro-slavery voters in the Territory or in Missouri took part. The Free State voters alone participated. The members of the [first] Legislature met at Pawnee on July 2, 1855. . . . The Legislature came, went into camp, remained four days, unseated the Free State members, seated the members declared elected

on the 30th of March, and passed a bill 'to remove the capital temporarily to Shawnee Manual Labor School,' which act was vetoed by the Governor and passed over his veto, and the Legislature adjourned. On the reassembling of the Legislature at the Shawnee Manual Labor School, Governor Reeder informed the body that it was in session where it had no right, in contravention of the Act of Congress, and that he could give no sanction to any act it might pass. The Legislature, in both branches, memorialized the President of the United States to remove Governor Reeder, and on the 31st of July his removal was officially announced, and on the 16th of August the Governor announced his removal to the Legislature, and so ended the term of the First Territorial Governor of Kansas. . . . The departure of Governor Reeder made Secretary Woodson acting Governor. His signature is affixed to all the laws passed by what the Free State party called the 'Bogus Legislature.' "—N. L. Prentis, *History of Kansas, pp.* 51-54.—"When Reeder was removed, the position of Governor of Kansas Territory was tendered to John L. Dawson, of Pennsylvania, who declined it. [Wilson] Shannon was an applicant for the place, and, upon the declination of Dawson, it was given to him. His commission was dated August 10, 1855. He arrived at Westport, Missouri, September 1st. . . . The task set for himself by Governor Shannon was to enforce the laws passed by the Territorial Legislature, now denominated by the people of Kansas, the 'bogus' laws. Some plan must be devised to compel the Free-State people to accept and obey these laws. This had been the burden of the utterances of President Pierce and Jefferson Davis. . . . All the power of the administration, all the force possible to be exerted by the slave propaganda of the South, and all the fury of the Border-Ruffians were to be turned into Kansas and compel obedience to the bogus laws. The first step in this process was to be the formation of a 'Law and Order' party. . . . The Law and Order party as organized by the meeting at Leavenworth was, in fact, a vicious and atrocious vigilance committee, and it developed into an instrument of terrorism. It was a weapon placed in the hands of the lawless element which had invaded Kansas to fraudulently carry elections, and which it was designed to have invade Kansas in the future to inaugurate civil war."—W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v.* 1, *pp.* 475, 479, 482.

1854-1859.—Battle-ground of the struggle against slavery-extension.—Border-ruffians and free state settlers.—Topeka Free State, and Lecompton, Constitutions.—Last territorial governor.—"The attention of the whole country had now been turned to the struggle provoked by the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, and the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. The fertile soil of Kansas had been offered as a prize to be contended for by Free and Slave States, and both had accepted the contest. The Slave State settlers were first in the field. The slave-holders of Western Missouri, which shut off Kansas from the Free States, had crossed the border, pre-empted lands, and warned Free State immigrants not to pass through Missouri. The first election of a delegate to Congress took place November 29th, 1854, and was carried by organized bands of Missourians, who moved over the border on election day, voted, and returned at once to Missouri. The spring election of 1855, for a Territorial Legislature, was carried in the same fashion. In July, 1855, the Legislature, all Pro-Slavery, met at Pawnee, and adopted a State Constitution. To save trouble it adopted the laws of the State of Missouri entire, with a series of original statutes denouncing the penalty of death for nearly fifty offenses against Slavery. All through the spring and summer of 1855 Kansas was the scene of almost continuous conflict, the Border Ruffians of Missouri endeavoring to drive out the Free State settlers by murder and arson, and the Free State settlers retaliating. The cry of 'bleeding Kansas' went through the North. Emigration societies were formed in the Free States to aid, arm, equip, and protect intending settlers. These, prevented from passing through Missouri, took a more Northern route through Iowa and Nebraska, and moved into Kansas like an invading army. The Southern States also sent parties of intending settlers. But these were not generally slaveholders, but young men anxious for excitement. They did not go to Kansas, as their opponents did, to plow, sow, gather crops, and build up homes. Therefore, though their first rapid and violent movements were successful, their subsequent increase of resources and numbers was not equal to that of the Free State settlers. The Territory soon became practically divided into a Pro-Slavery district, and a Free State district. Leavenworth in the former, and Topeka and Lawrence in the latter, were the chief towns. September 5th, 1855, a Free-State Convention at Topeka repudiated the Territorial Legislature and all its works, as the acts and deeds of Missourians alone. It also resolved to order a separate election for delegate to Congress, so as to force that body to decide the question, and to form a State government. January 15th, 1856, the Free State settlers [having applied to Congress for admission as a state] elected State officers under the Topeka Free State Constitution. [Charles Robinson was chosen governor; and the first session of the Topeka legislature was held March 4, 1856.] The Federal Executive now entered the field. January 24th, 1856, the President, in a Special Message to Congress, endorsed the Pro-Slavery Legislature, and pronounced the attempt to form a Free State government, without the approval of the Federal authorities in the Territory, to be an act of rebellion. He then issued a proclamation, warning all persons engaged in disturbing the peace of Kansas to retire to their homes, and placed United States troops at the orders of Governor Shannon to enforce the (Pro-Slavery) laws of the Territory. The population of Kansas was now so large that very considerable armies were mustered on both sides, and a desultory civil war was kept up until nearly the end of the year. During its progress two Free State towns, Lawrence and Ossawattomie, were sacked. July 4th, 1856, the Free State Legislature attempted to assemble at Topeka, but was at once dispersed by a body of United States troops, under orders from Washington. September 9th, a new Governor, Geary, of Pennsylvania, arrived and succeeded in keeping the peace to some extent by a mixture of temporizing and decided measures. By the end of the year he even claimed to have established order in the Territory. . . . January 6th, 1857, the Free State Legislature again attempted to meet at Topeka, and was again dispersed by Federal interference. Its presiding officer and many of its members were arrested by a United States deputy marshal. The Territorial, or Pro-Slavery, Legislature quarreled with Gov. Geary, who resigned, and Robert J. Walker, of Mississippi, was appointed in his stead [March 26, 1857]. A resolution was passed

by the House [in Congress] declaring the Acts of the Territorial Legislature cruel, oppressive, illegal, and void. It was tabled by the Senate." A new Congress met December 7, 1857, "with a Democratic majority in both branches. In the House, James L. Orr, of South Carolina, a Democrat, was chosen Speaker. The debates of this Session were mainly upon the last scene in the Kansas struggle. Governor Walker had succeeded in persuading the Free State settlers to recognize the Territorial Legislature so far as to take part in the election which it had ordered. The result gave them control of the Legislature. But a previously elected Pro-Slavery Convention, sitting at Lecompton, went on to form a State Constitution. This was to be submitted to the people, but only votes 'For the Constitution with Slavery,' or 'For the Constitution without Slavery,' were to be received. Not being allowed in either event to vote against the Constitution, the Free State settlers refused to vote at all, and the Lecompton Constitution with Slavery received 6,000 majority. The new Territorial Legislature, however, ordered an election at which the people could vote for or against the Lecompton Constitution, and a majority of 10,000 was cast against it. . . . The President's Message argued in favor of receiving Kansas as a State under the Lecompton Constitution with Slavery, on the ground that the delegates had been chosen to form a State Constitution, and were not obligated to submit it to the people at all. This view was supported by the Southern members of Congress, and opposed by the Republicans and by a part of the Democrats, headed by Senator Douglas, of Illinois. The Senate passed a bill admitting Kansas as a State, under the Lecompton Constitution. The House passed the bill, with the proviso that the Constitution should again be submitted to a popular vote. The Senate rejected the proviso. A conference committee recommended that the bill of the House should be adopted, with an additional proviso making large grants of public lands to the new State, if the people of Kansas should vote to adopt the Lecompton Constitution. In this form the bill was passed by both Houses, and became a law. . . . The proffered inducement of public lands was a failure, and in August the Lecompton Constitution was rejected by 10,000 majority. Kansas, therefore, still remained a Territory."—A. Johnston, *History of American politics, ch.* 18-19.—"James W. Denver, who succeeded Frederick P. Stanton (removed for calling the special session of the Territorial Legislature), served as Acting-Governor until the resignation of Governor Walker, in May, 1858, when he became Governor, with Hugh S. Walsh as Secretary. Governor Denver resigned in September, his resignation to take effect October 10, 1858. After his departure, Secretary Walsh acted as Governor until the arrival of Governor Samuel Medary, in December. . . . With Samuel Medary ended the succession of Kansas Territorial Governors. They had nearly all been in a way distinguished men prior to their appearance in Kansas."—N. L. Prentis, *History of Kansas, pp.* 73, 88.—"In 1859, at an election called by the Territorial Legislature, the people decided in favor of another Convention to form a State Constitution. This body met at Wyandot, in July, 1859, and adopted a State Constitution prohibiting Slavery. The Wyandot Constitution was submitted to the people and received a majority of 4,000 in its favor." But Congress refused the admission to Kansas under this constitution, the Senate rejecting, though the House approved.—A. Johnston, *History of American politics, ch.* 19.—See also JAYHAWKERS AND RED LEGS.

ALSO IN: D. W. Wilder, *Annals of Kansas (containing the text of the several constitutions, etc.).*—E. E. Hale, *Kansas and Nebraska, ch.* 8-9.—S. T. L. Robinson, *Kansas.*—F. B. Sanborn, *Life and letters of John Brown, ch.* 7-11.—*Reports of select committee (34th Congress, 1st Session, H. R. Report* 200).—J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States from 1850, v.* 2, *ch.* 7-9.

1855.—Buford expedition.—"In all sections of the country, during the fall and winter of 1855, there was excitement and agitation over the Kansas question. The South was now thoroughly canvassed by agents of the pro-slavery Emigrant Aid Societies. Bands of men were made ready to start for the territory in the early spring. Alabama, South Carolina and Georgia took the lead among the slave states in the work of sending men to Kansas to settle and vote for the interests of the South. In Alabama the first body of pioneers for Kansas was enrolled by Thomas J. Orme, who on November 18, 1855, made this proposition:—'If the people of Alabama will raise $100,000 I will land in Kansas 500 settlers. I have over one hundred volunteers now.' Nothing resulted from Orme's proposition, but on November 26th, 1855, Major Jefferson Buford, a lawyer of Eufaula, who had served with distinction in the Indian War of 1836 published the following call. . . . 'To Kansas Emigrants—Who will go to Kansas? I wish to raise three hundred industrious, sober, discreet, reliable men, capable of bearing arms, not prone to use them wickedly or unnecessarily but willing to protect their sections in every real emergency. I desire to start with them for Kansas by the 20th of February next. To such I will guarantee the donation of a homestead of forty acres of first rate land, a free passage to Kansas and the means of support for one year. To ministers of the gospel, mechanics, and those with good military or agricultural outfits, I will offer greater inducements. . . . J. Buford.' Early in January Major Buford made a speech in Montgomery before the state legislature in which he explained his plans for securing Kansas to the South. A citizen of Worcester, Mass., Wm. T. Merrifield, was in Montgomery at the time and heard of the designs of Buford. He at once returned to Massachusetts, told Eli Thayer, the originator of the Emigrant Aid Societies, about Buford's plans, and arranged with him to send men to oppose this southern force. One hundred and sixty-five men well armed with Sharp's rifles, (Beecher's Bibles) were sent to Kansas for this purpose. It was intended that the Buford party should go armed, but in March Major Buford announced that in deference to the President's proclamation, and in consonance with the true designs of the expedition, it would go unarmed. . . . More clearly than any other man Buford had foreseen the results that must follow the admission of Kansas as a free state. He gave his fortune to the cause, and worked long and faithfully to arouse the South to the impending danger, but his prophetic voice was not fully heeded. His colonization plan was a failure financially and politically. The institutions of the South could not be transplanted to Kansas. The question that he hoped to have settled by votes in Kansas was finally decided by bayonets on a hundred bloody battle fields in the South."—W. L. Fleming, *Buford expedition (American Historical Review, Oct.,* 1900).

1856.—Senator Sumner's speech on "The

Crime against Kansas." See U.S.A.: 1856: Senator Sumner's speech, etc.

1858-1861.—Marais des Cygnes massacre.—Last territorial legislature.—"On May 19, 1858, occurred near Trading Post, in Linn county, the tragedy known in Kansas annals as the Marais des Cygnes massacre. A party of twenty-five men from across the border, headed by Captain Charles Hamilton, collected eleven Free State settlers, stood them up in a line in a ravine and fired upon them. Five fell dead and all the others save one were badly wounded; the five wounded and one unwounded man feigned death and escaped. . . . Governor Medary's position required him to pass in review the acts of the Fourth Territorial Legislature. That body met at Lecompton, and adjourned at once to Lawrence. It repealed the 'Bogus Statutes' of 1855, which were afterwards burned in the streets, . . . and passed an act of amnesty for offenders in certain counties who had been fighting over political differences. . . . The fifth and last Territorial Legislature of Kansas met at Lecompton on the 2d of January, 1860, and in spite of the protests of Governor Medary, adjourned to Lawrence. The Governor and Secretary remaining at Lecompton, the Legislature adjourned *sine die*. The Governor called the Legislature to meet in special session at Lecompton. The Legislature met and passed a bill adjourning to Lawrence; the Governor vetoed the bill and it was passed over his veto, and the Legislature assembled in Lawrence. The Legislature passed a bill abolishing slavery in the Territory. Governor Medary vetoed the bill and wrote a long message. The bill was passed over his veto. This was the last. Governor Medary resigned in December, 1860, . . . George M. Beebe, Secretary of the Territory, became acting Governor, in which capacity he continued until the inauguration of the State Government, February 9, 1861."—N. L. Prentis, *History of Kansas, pp.* 75, 87-88.

1859-1866.—Railroads.—"The history of railroads in Kansas is so closely interwoven with the history of the development of the state in all particulars that it is difficult to treat it independently and determine the exact significance of all the contributing forces. Railroads had passed the experimental stage and their practical value had been firmly established before Kansas was known, except as a part of the 'Great American Desert.' The importance of railroads in the development of a new country was a thorough trial here. In the East the country was already developed and the railroad question was a simple one. Until the beginning of the agitation in Congress for the great Union Pacific Railroad, Chicago was the western terminus of the east-and-west railroads. But the wide discussion of and intense interest in this transcontinental road awakened the people and gave an impetus to railroad building in the western country. However, the settlement of Kansas had begun, and she had been organized as a territory and had a population of between 70,000 and 75,000 people before the first railroad reached her borders. The first road to reach Kansas was the Hannibal & St. Joseph Railroad, extending entirely across the state of Missouri, reaching Kansas at St. Joseph and connecting it with the roads of the East. This road was finished early in the year 1859. The people of the northeastern part of Kansas had become enthusiastic in their faith in the state and in railroads, and had decided to build a road of their own to connect with this new line to the East. Consequently the Marysville or Palmetto & Roseport Railroad, afterward called the St. Joseph & Denver City Railroad, was organized in January, 1857, by local men, and the road from Elwood to Wathena, a distance of five miles, was completed, and the first locomotive in Kansas, the 'Albany,' was placed on the track April 28, 1860. In the meantime the Union Pacific agitation in Congress had aroused the Kansas pioneers, and the Leavenworth, Pawnee & Western Railroad Company, had been organized in 1855, but work was not begun on the line until May, 1857. Nothing was really accomplished, and the road was acquired by the Union Pacific Company in 1863. At the time and following the organization of these companies there was a general demand of the people for railroads, and a series of years followed during which numerous meetings were held, companies were organized, and everything was done except the actual construction of roads. The cost of the construction of a road was so great, while the country was yet too sparsely settled to guarantee profitable operation, that it seemed impossible to accomplish anything. Then the Civil War came on, and railroad building ceased to be the absorbing topic for some time. . . . On July 1, 1862, an act was signed by the President granting five sections per mile on either side of the road to the Leavenworth, Pawnee & Western Railroad Company, for the construction of a road from the mouth of the Kansas river to connect with the Union Pacific in Nebraska, at the 100th meridian. The franchise of the Leavenworth, Pawnee & Western Railroad, together with this land grant, was acquired by the Union Pacific Eastern Division, and construction work was begun at the Missouri river in September, 1863. July 2, 1864, this act was amended, increasing the land grant to ten sections per mile on either side of the track, or 12,800 acres per mile, making a total of about 6,000,000 acres of land for the Union Pacific in Kansas. In addition to this, United States bonds to the extent of $16,000 per mile, payable in thirty years and drawing six per cent interest, were issued, and constituted a first mortgage on the road. In the meantime, by act of March 3, 1863, Congress had granted to the state land amounting to ten sections per mile, to be given to railroad companies which would build roads in certain specified directions. This land was given to the Leavenworth, Lawrence & Galveston, extending from Leavenworth to the south line of the state; to the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe, from Atchison to the western line of the state; and to the Missouri, Kansas & Texas, from Fort Riley to the southern boundary. These roads received, respectively, 450,000, 934,522 and 712,895 acres of land. By act of July 23, 1866, a similar grant was made to the state for the St. Joseph & Denver City Railroad, extending from Elwood to the junction of the Union Pacific. This grant amounted to 64,672 acres in Kansas and about 400,000 acres in Nebraska. This road also received the proceeds from the sale of 125,000 acres of land, a part of 500,000 acres granted to the state for internal improvement. The Kansas City, Fort Scott & Gulf Railroad was given the proceeds from the sale of 125,000 acres of land granted to the state, and by an act of July 25, 1866, was granted the usual amount of ten sections per mile, but all except 17,500 acres was forfeited because of failure to perform the conditions of the grant. The Central Branch of the Union Pacific, or the Atchison & Pike's Peak Railroad, received a grant of 187,608 acres of land, and

government bonds to the amount of $16,000 per mile, similar to the Union Pacific grant, were issued amounting to $1,600,000. This was the end of government aid to the railroads in Kansas. Enough roads were built to connect the country pretty well, and the railroad business became a paying proposition, so that the government ceased its donations."—O. C. Hull, *Railroads in Kansas* (*Kansas State Historical Society Collections,* 1911-1912, *pp.* 37-40).

1860.—**Covode investigation.**—A Congressional committee, John Covode chairman, appointed in the previous year, by order of the House, to investigate alleged charges against the national administration, submitted a report which made a deep impression on the public mind. The object of the committee "was not unpartisan, and they listened readily to whatever scandals, real or imaginary, disappointed applicants or decapitated officials might bring forward who chose to make a clean breast; and yet, amid a crude mass of malicious matter, unassorted for want of time, there were facts disclosed which might well make an administration tremble. . . . Abuses were shown in Kansas: the letter from Buchanan's own pen, whose existence had been denied, which made to Robert J. Walker the treacherous promise that the Lecompton constitution would be submitted to the people; the subsidizing of public presses to support that bogus instrument; the tampering with doubtful men, and the crushing of honest men who could not be seduced. By the admission of the late public printer, over $30,000 had been spent by him to help carry the Lecompton and English bills through the preceding Congress. . . . Executive favoritism, in various instances; the suckling of party profligates; the award of public contracts and patronage as a reward for campaign activity; and the bleeding of clerks and petty subordinates everywhere, by assessments upon their salaries to help carry the elections,—these were among the unfragrant exposures of the Covode committee which adduced its evidence without formally proposing the impeachment or censure of any one."—J. Schouler, *History of the United States of America, ch.* 22, *sect.* 2.

1861.—**Admission to the Union under the Wyandot constitution.**—"As soon as a sufficient number of Southern members of Congress [from the seceding states] had withdrawn to give the Republicans a majority in both Houses, Kansas was admitted as a State [January 29, 1861] under the Wyandot Free State Constitution."—A. Johnston, *History of American politics, p.* 185.

Also in: L. W. Spring, *Kansas, pp.* 264-267.

1861-1865.—**Administration of Governors Robinson and Carney.—Impeachment of Governor Robinson.—In the Civil War.**—"Governor Charles Robinson was sworn into office on the 9th day of February, 1861. As the first Governor, he was confronted by the immense task of inaugurating a State Government for Kansas. . . . While there was much usage for Governor Robinson to be guided by, the new State presented many problems for which there was no precedent. The Constitution had to be construed. Its provisions were general, and it was necessary for the administration to devise legislation to carry them into effect. . . . One of his first official acts was to call a session of the Legislature to meet on the 26th of March. It is doubtful if there has ever been a more able and comprehensive message by any Kansas Governor than that sent to the Legislature by Governor Robinson. . . . The Legislature which met on the 26th of March, 1861, passed an Act authorizing the issue of bonds to the amount of $150,000, which was approved May 1, 1861. It also passed another act, which was approved May 7, 1861, authorizing the State of Kansas to borrow the sum of $20,000 to 'repel invasion, suppress insurrection, and to defend the State in time of War.' . . . The Legislature passed another act, supplementary to the act authorizing the negotiation of $150,000 bonds of the State. This act was approved on the 3rd of June, 1861. . . . The Legislature which met January 14, 1862, appointed a committee to investigate the manner in which the bonds had been disposed of. . . . William Tholen, of Leavenworth, had been elected State Treasurer on the ticket with Governor Robinson. Governor Robinson refused to accept the official bond made by Treasurer Tholen, which had the effect of vacating his office. The Governor then appointed H. R. Dutton, of Brown County, Treasurer, to fill the vacancy. Dutton had signed the report, with S. N. Wood, which practically approved the fraudulent bonds issued on Kansas claims. The removal of Tholen, an honest man, and the appointment of Dutton, were the bad features in the case against Governor Robinson. The resolution of the committee was unanimously adopted. Being authorized and directed by the House to appoint a committee to conduct the impeachment cases in the trial before the Senate, the Speaker named Preston B. Plumb, Azel Spaulding, F. W. Potter, W. R. Wagstaff and Davies Wilson. On the 20th of February, Plumb reported, on behalf of his committee, which was called the Committee of Managers of Impeachment Cases, eight articles of impeachment of John W. Robinson, Secretary of State. On the 26th he reported seven articles of impeachment of George S. Hillyer, Auditor of State. On the same day he reported five articles of impeachment of Charles Robinson, Governor of Kansas. These reports were all adopted. . . . The trial of the impeachment cases began on the second day of June, 1862. . . . The result of the trial of the State Officers on the impeachment charges were that the Secretary of State and State Auditor were found guilty and removed from office. Governor Robinson was acquitted. . . . This bond transaction destroyed Governor Robinson politically. The Republican State Convention met at Topeka September 17th. On the 18th Thomas Carney was nominated for Governor. . . . Hon. Thomas Carney, second governor of Kansas, was intimately identified with the history of this commonwealth during the exciting days prior to and during the Civil war. . . . January 12, 1863, he took his seat as governor, and from that time until the close of his term he gave his undivided attention to public affairs. He found the state in a discouraging condition. It was utterly without credit, and without means to carry on its government or protect its citizens from guerrilas, Indians and the calamities incident to war. Along the eastern and southern borders the Confederates hovered while on the west were murderous bands of Indians."—W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v.* 2, *pp.* 712, 718, 719, 721-723, 765-767.—"The breaking out of the War of the Rebellion placed Kansas in the most critical position of any of the Northern states. With a sparse population scattered over a wide area, and further separated by numerous Indian reservations, with hostile tribes on her frontiers, and the turbulent state of Missouri, with which there was an old score that was sure to be called up, confronting and barring against help, it was the general conviction that assistance would be required rather than given in the struggle for the suppression of the rebellion. But the very des-

peration of the situation inspired the exertion to meet it. . . . On the 15th was issued the call by President Lincoln for 75,000 men to aid in enforcing the laws. . . . [The response from Kansas] was a tender of 100 men by Capt. Sam Walker, of Lawrence. Within three days seven companies were enrolling in Douglas county and nine in Leavenworth, and within a week there was scarcely a county in the state that was not mustering soldiers in response to the call, and those that did not offer their services to the government were organized into home guards. . . . On April 20 they [Southern sympathizers] seized the United States arsenal at Liberty, and with the arms, under command of Jeff Thompson, established a camp at St. Joseph. Rebel ensigns floated defiantly at Independence, Kansas City, Platte City, Weston and Iatan. . . . United States Provost Marshal Fry, in his report of October 6, 1863, . . . shows: White soldiers enlisted in Kansas, 9,613, besides one colored regiment and 2,262 Indians—the white troops alone being at this time 4,440 in excess of all calls. This from a population of only 107,204 returned by the census June 1, 1860."—S. W. Eldridge, *Publications of the Kansas State Historical Society*, 1920, *v.* 2, *pp.* 167-168.—"The general government, immersed in civil war, had no time to devote to the welfare of a remote state. Hence, the welfare of the people devolved entirely upon the governor. . . . He raised a force of 150 men and employed them as a patrol along the border, so that no hostile movement could be made without detection and the people would thus have time to rally to the necessary points for defense. The patrol was hired by the governor and paid out of his private means, . . . the United States Government furnishing the rations. . . . Through his patrol he preserved the border from invasion, but, at a later period, he was notified by the commander of the federal forces to abolish the patrol, as the regular troops would be able to care for the safety of the state. . . . The entire official career of Governor Carney was a stormy one. Occurring, as it did, at a time when the nation was rent asunder by internal strife, when the state itself was a financial and political wreck, the situation called for a man of great discretion, foresight, energy and force of character. That he met the demands of the situation is recognized by all. Through his instrumentality the state was placed upon a firm basis financially. . . . January 9, 1865, Governor Carney retired from the chair of chief executive, in which he was succeeded by Samuel J. Crawford."—W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v.* 2, *pp.* 767-768.

1862.—Homestead law.—"An event having a most important bearing on the life and prosperity of Kansas was the passage of the Homestead Law, on the 20th of May, 1862. . . . It was signed by President Lincoln and took effect on the 1st of January, 1863. . . . The law, in substance, gave a title from the United States to the actual settler who held the 160 acres for five years."—N. L. Prentis, *History of Kansas, pp.* 123-124.

1863.—Quantrell's guerilla raid.—Lawrence sacked and burned. See U. S. A.: 1863 (August: Missouri-Kansas).

1865-1877. — Administration of Governors Crawford, Greene, Harvey, and Osborne.—Indian troubles.—Growth of cattle trade.—"Shortly after the nomination of Colonel Crawford for Governor, General Price invaded Missouri, with the object of entering and devastating Kansas. Colonel Crawford was appointed aide to General Curtis, commanding the Union forces. He participated in the battles of the Blue, Westport, and Mine Creeks, displaying great gallantry. This marked the end of his military career during the Civil War. . . . His administration covered some of the most stirring history of Kansas. . . . During the winter of 1865, Governor Crawford rounded up most of the cattle thieves and outlaws that had been terrorizing the border and turned them over to General Dodge for punishment. The Legislature of 1866 passed acts providing for the erection of the State Capitol, the Penitentiary, Asylums, and other public institutions. Many new homesteaders settled in the State, the Kansas Pacific Railroad was pushed steadily westward toward Denver and the Pacific States. Prosperity seemed beginning to smile on Kansas. . . . In the spring of 1866 hostile Indians appeared on the Santa Fe Trail, the Smoky Hill, Solomon and Republican rivers. Governor Crawford organized a battalion of troops along the Western border. Early in May he sent a company of State troops to the Northwestern border, which defeated a roving band of Cheyennes. . . . Governor Crawford was re-elected in 1867. The Legislature of that year pushed forward the work started by that of 1866, and many state institutions were planned and provided for. . . . In 1868 a Cheyenne Band threatened Council Grove but were turned from their purpose. In August of that year people were murdered in the Solomon and Republican valleys. The climax of the wars with the plains Indians in Kansas, came in the Battle of Beecher Island, on the Aricaree. . . . After this, the Indians still continued to give trouble. Being constantly appealed to for aid, Governor Crawford, on November 4, 1868, resigned the governorship and was appointed Colonel of a newly recruited regiment—the Nineteenth Kansas Volunteers. . . . [Nehemiah] Greene took the oath of office, and became Governor of Kansas. He held the office a few days over two months. Nothing of very great political importance happened in Kansas during the time. . . . After the election of Governor Harvey, Mr. Greene still retained his interest in political affairs. . . . In the fall of 1869, he [Harvey] was elected as the Republican candidate for Governor. He was re-elected to that office in 1873. During his administration the State of Kansas advanced steadily along all lines of progress. . . . The cattle trade grew by leaps and bounds, at this time, and the 'cowboy' and the 'Longhorn,' were thick on the Kansas prairies. Also, at this time, the state received a liberal contribution of the worst elements of the older states—men and women, eager to prey on the rich and reckless cowmen. . . . Sheriffs and vigilance committees were kept busy by the disorder and violence rife in the western towns. . . . The shipments of cattle at Wichita and Dodge City seldom were less than 200,000 head a year. . . . Thomas A. Osborn, the sixth governor of Kansas . . . was nominated [1872] as the Republican candidate for Governor of Kansas. He was elected, and began his term in 1873. The year of 1874 was the dreadful 'Grasshopper Year' of Kansas—the year when these pests destroyed all crops and caused famine and untold suffering. Governor Osborn called a special session of the Legislature, which decided the emergency must be met by the issue of county bonds. Relief committees were organized, and relief sent to the sufferers. . . . Governor Osborn . . . urged on the Legislature the necessity of economy. His administration was noted for careful handling of the State funds. Also, at this time, much was done toward colonizing and settling more land. . . . A huge band of Mennonites from Southern Russia settled in the Arkansas Valley in 1874. Owing to

the increase of population a number of new counties were organized. . . . On January 29, 1873, the two houses of the Legislature met in a joint session, to ballot for a United States Senator to succeed Pomeroy, whose term had expired. Before the vote was taken State Senator Alexander M. York rose and accused Pomeroy of bribing him to vote for him—Pomeroy. Pomeroy was defeated. On the twenty-fourth of March, Senator Caldwell resigned and Governor Osborn appointed Robert Crozier to fill his unexpired term. Also, he appointed John Francis to succeed the State Treasurer, Josiah E. Hayes, who had been impeached and resigned. In 1877, Governor Osborn was defeated for United States Senator by Preston B. Plumb."—W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v. 2, pp.* 769-781.

1866-1877.—National Farmers' Alliance movement. See U. S. A.: 1866-1877.

1874-1880. — Negro migration. — Negroes migrated first from Tennessee, and later the great rush of 1879 came from Texas, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Louisiana.

1876-1890.—Administration of Governors Anthony, St. John, Glick, and Humphrey.—Land "boom."—Liquor problem.—"In 1876 Anthony was nominated as the Republican candidate for Governor of Kansas, and elected. In his message to the Legislature of 1877 he recommended a reformatory for youths, apart from the penitentiary. Several important acts relating to state institutions were passed at this session of the Legislature. During the year 1877 the temperance movement advanced rapidly in Kansas, . . . and a State Temperance Society was organized. Also the 'Woman's Christian Temperance Union.' A temperance wave, forerunner of prohibition, was sweeping the State. . . . Because of political dissensions, Governor Anthony's candidacy for Governor in 1879 was defeated. . . . John Pierce St. John [was] the eighth governor of Kansas. . . . In 1876 he declined the nomination for Governor of Kansas tendered to him by the Prohibition party. However, he was elected to that office two years later by the Republicans, and held the Governorship for two terms. He was defeated for a third term in 1882, by George W. Glick. . . . In 1881 the Legislature passed the Prohibitory Law, an act to enforce the constitutional amendment. . . . George W. Glick . . . entered upon his administration in 1883. . . . Governor Glick, while not favoring promiscuous dealing in intoxicants that had existed before the Prohibitory law passed, considered the act premature, rash, and unwise. So he recommended the re-submission of the Prohibitory amendment. Nothing came of it. On March 31, 1883, the Executive Council of Kansas appointed the first Board of Railroad Commissioners, consisting of three members for the State of Kansas. On the eighteenth of March, 1884, a special session of the Legislature was called to deal with the 'foot and mouth disease,' prevalent to an alarming degree among the cattle. Few bills other than those relating to the cattle situation were passed at this session. In 1884 the Government of the United States established at Lawrence, a school for training and educating the Indians. This school is known as Haskell Institute. During Governor Glick's administration, the State Woman's Suffrage Association was organized. It was at this time, also, that Congress passed an act establishing a National Soldiers Home at Leavenworth. At the election of 1884 Governor Glick was again the Democratic nominee. But the Republican candidate, John A. Martin, was elected. . . . John A. Martin, tenth Governor of Kansas . . . was elected Governor of Kansas [1884] and in 1886 he was re-elected. The beginning of his administration was very difficult, and he was besieged by hordes of office-seekers. . . . During Governor Martin's administration six educational institutions were established in Kansas, and 182 school houses were built in 1887. In March of 1886, a strike and serious disturbances on the Missouri-Pacific Railroad, in Missouri and Kansas, demanded the attention of Governor Martin. Rioting caused the Governor to send the First Kansas Militia to the scene of action. . . . The strike was settled in April. A bill was passed by the Legislature of 1887, conferring on women of Kansas the right to vote at school, bond, and municipal elections. . . . Kansas had steadily progressed in prosperity and her towns and broad farming lands had increased immensely in value. This led to a 'Boom' during which magnificent cities were erected—on paper—real towns increased in size. Many syndicates were organized to deal in Kansas real estate. Long blocks of buildings were erected in unnecessary towns, and the prairie was long after dotted with rusting pipes and hydrants—the only tangible evidences of these useless towns. The end of 1888 saw the great Kansas 'boom' collapse, and, as this year had also had a failure of crops, Kansas experienced a panic. But this check in prosperity was comparatively brief. There was a contest for the county seat between towns in several counties. Bitter rivalries and feuds resulted, the worst being the Stephens County, where several people were killed. On an appeal made to the Governor for help, a regiment of militia was sent to this county. In 1888 Greeley County was organized, thus completing the organization of the 105 Kansas counties. . . . Lyman Underwood Humphrey, eleventh governor of Kansas . . . was elected to the State Senate of 1884, and was chosen President of that body. . . . In 1888, he was elected Governor of Kansas, and began his service in 1889. He was re-elected in 1890. The manufacture of sugar from sorghum was the industry attracting the greatest notice in Kansas in 1889. Several factories had been erected, experiments were conducted by government chemists, and public attention in Kansas centered on sugar. The Legislature of 1889 passed an act increasing the bounty on Kansas sugar from $15,000 to $40,000. But the result of the experiments were discouraging. . . . During this administration, [Humphrey's] the anti-Prohibitionists made much trouble in Kansas. They declared no State had the power to prevent liquors, in their original sealed packages, being brought within its border. Saloons sprang up over the state. Citizens protested, even sending liquor back, and stopping the sale by force. At last Congress was appealed to, and the Wilson Bill, or the 'anti-Original Package law, passed. This bill gave a state the right to exercise police regulations over all packages sent within its borders, whether the packages were in their original form or not."—W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v. 2, pp.* 784-787, 829-837.

1880.—Adoption of prohibition. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1869-1893.

1880-1890.—Rise of the Populist movement.—"The first mention we have of the Farmers' Alliance is in connection with the fight of the settlers on the Osage ceded lands, to hold their homesteads which they had taken from the Government in good faith against the trumped up claims of the railroads who sought to make them pay, not only for the lands they had preempted from the Government, but for their own improvements which they had made. Finding that they were spied upon in their open meetings, the settlers formed secret societies

known as Settlers' Protective Associations, or Settlers' Alliance. . . . It was the New York organization that developed into what was known as the Northern Alliance, which was introduced into this State about 1880, but which never took part in politics. The Populist movement was based on what was known as the Southern Alliance. . . . [This originated in Texas] but did not spread beyond the confines of that state until 1887. . . . This Southern Alliance was a secret organization. It was brought to Kansas by the Vincent Brothers, publishers of the *Non-Conformist* at Winfield. They went to Texas, were initiated, and returned to organize in this state."—E. N. Barr, *Populist uprising* (W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v. 2, p.* 1140).—"The Farmers' Alliance, which had attained prominence, in 1889, as a secret and social organization composed of farmers, and devoted to the interests of all agriculturists, and admitting to its membership men and women, became, in 1890, an actual political force [in many agricultural states]. The impelling and controlling sentiment that led to the organization of the Alliance, was the belief that in the conduct of government, and the making of laws, the farming, and, indeed, the laboring classes, generally, had been neglected or discriminated against. . . . . The Farmers' Alliance urged measures of relief for the debtor class; a stay law for a period of two years; various measures for the benefit of mortgagors, especially an overhauling of the provisions of the chattel mortgage law; for the help of the shipper and the passenger as against the railroad companies, who, it was claimed, were deriving an exorbitant income from their rates, at the expense of the public. The Alliance asked for a law requiring land sold under foreclosure to bring the amount of the judgment and costs; a law that should make the State Railroad Commissioners elective by the people, and various enactments and regulations that should give the people the opportunity to exercise their power directly, rather than by delegated agents. Doubtless many members of the Alliance asked more than this; none, it may be believed, demanded less. The complaint of all might be summed up as too much taxation; too much mortgage; too much reign of the rich; too little consideration of the poor; too much debt. The county indebtedness of Kansas had doubled in the ten years between 1880 and 1890. While there were some disavowals of any intention on the part of the Alliance separately or collectively, to take action after the manner of a political party, it was quite impossible that it should happen otherwise. Many local Alliances declared their intention to act together in support of certain political tenets, and particularly in opposition to certain political leaders of the old parties. A new party seemed inevitable. At a convention assembled at Topeka, June 12, 1890, delegates representing the Farmers' Alliance, the Industrial Union, the Patrons of Husbandry, the Knights of Labor, the Farmers' Mutual Benefit Association, and the Single Tax Clubs, organized the 'People's Party,' as it called itself in the State of Kansas, or the Populist Party, as it came to be popularly designated. Honorable B. H. Clover, President of the Farmers' Alliance, was Chairman of the convention at which the People's Party was organized."—N. L. Prentis, *History of Kansas, pp.* 200-201.

1881-1885.—Creation of the bureau of labor and industrial statistics.—Establishment of the state board of health.—"A 'Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics' was established by the legislature of 1881 which defined its purpose as collecting, systematizing and presenting in annual reports details relating to all departments of labor and industrial pursuits in the State, especially in their relation to the commercial, industrial, social, educational and sanitary condition of the laboring classes, and to the prosperity of the industries of the State. The department was put in charge of a commissioner appointed by the Governor, and he was given power to take and preserve testimony, examine witnesses under oath, enter any public institution of the State and any factory, workshop or mine. The Commissioner also had a right to question employers by printed slips, and a heavy penalty was attached to the failure to answer these questions correctly. One of the first important results achieved by the Bureau was a law to secure the payment of wages at regular intervals in the factories and mines in money instead of trade. In 1898 the legislature authorized the organization of a society of labor and industry to be formed among laborers in small groups over the State. These organizations were allowed to send delegates to an annual State meeting at which a president, vice-president, secretary and assistant secretary should be elected. These officials constituted the State Bureau of Labor and Industry, the secretary acting as the Commissioner of Labor and State Factory Inspector and the assistant secretary, the assistant Commissioner of Labor and assistant Factory Inspector. In this way it came about that the Labor Bureau fell into the hands of the trades unions. Kansas is the only State where such a condition of affairs ever existed. In 1913 the department was taken from the control of the Society of Labor and Industry and the office of Labor Commissioner was again made appointive. A woman was added to the factory inspector's force to have special charge of matters relating to employed women. In . . . thirty years [written in 1918] . . . about seventy-five laws have been passed relating to labor. The most important are: the law governing the arbitration of labor troubles, child labor law, eight hour law, act governing the intimidation of employees in the exercise of the franchise, fire escape law, employer's liability in case of accidents, law against usury, the Sunday labor laws, and certain laws regarding the employment of women. In 1909 a State Free Employment Bureau was established as a branch of the Bureau of Labor."—N. Barr, *Bureau of labor* (W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v. 2, pp.* 1097-1098).—"The State Board of Health was established by the legislature in 1885. The act provided that the governor should appoint a board of nine physicians . . . to supervise the health interests of the people of the state. The Board was to serve without pay. . . . Some of the duties of the board, as enumerated by the law, were: To inquire into the causes of disease, epidemics and mortality; to collect and preserve information on health matters; to advise officers of the government on such things as drainage, water supply, waste material, heating and ventilation; to keep a registration of marriages, births, deaths and diseases."—E. N. Barr, *State board of health* (W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v. 2, pp.* 1089-1091).

1892-1908.—Populists combined with Democrats gain control of government.—Governor Lewelling. — Legislative war. — Republican administration.—In 1892 the People's party elected its entire state ticket, including the governor. In 1894 it lost control of the government, but, in 1896, by combining with the Democratic party, was again successful. This combination lasted until 1898. "Lorenzo D. Lewelling, the twelfth Gover-

nor of Kansas . . . was inaugurated January 9, 1893, and was Governor of Kansas during the stormiest legislative session in her history. The Republicans had a majority in the House, but the Populists claimed that it had been secured by fraud. Both parties claimed the right to organize the House. The Republicans elected George L. Douglas speaker, and the Populists J. M. Dunsmore. Prentis says: 'Both Speakers occupied the same desk, and during the first night slept under the same blanket on the floor in the rear of the Speaker's desk. . . . Governor Lewelling recognized the Dunsmore House as legal, on the third day. The Republicans protested, and both Houses continued to sit.' The situation looking serious, Governor Lewelling called out several companies of State Militia. Guns were brought up and artillerists ordered from Wichita. Sheriff Wilkinson announced himself the only regular guardian of the county peace, and swore in a large force of deputies, acting in the interest of the Republicans. There was much excitement and Topeka was filled with well-armed men. The Republican House was in a state of siege. . . . On the third day a decision was reached that the Republican House should hold the hall, and the Populists meet elsewhere. This ended the Legislative War of 1893. On the twenty-fifth of February, the Supreme Court affirmed the constitutionality of the Republican House, and the two Houses united. So much time was taken up in settling the war that but few laws were passed during this session. However, a constitutional amendment giving women the right of suffrage was submitted to the vote of the people in the election of 1894. . . . Governor Lewelling was renominated in 1894, but the Republicans carried the election. . . . Edmund N. Morrill, thirteenth Governor of Kansas . . . was elected [1894] Governor of Kansas by the Republican party. An Appellate Court was established by the Legislature. . . . An act was passed during Morrill's administration appropriating $30,000 for irrigation experiments, and a Board of Irrigation was appointed. . . . A law was also passed providing a fine and imprisonment for giving or taking a bribe. . . . In 1896 Governor Morrill was unanimously renominated for Governor. But this year, being the famous 'Free Silver' year, when politics were confused and upset, he was defeated. . . . In 1896 . . . [John W. Leedy] was elected Governor, being the second chief executive chosen by the Populist party. The Legislature of 1896 elected William A. Harris, an ex-Confederate soldier, United States Senator from Kansas. This Legislative session was the longest in Kansas history, lasting sixty-seven days. Over 2,000 bills were introduced, but less than three hundred were passed. . . . Governor Leedy was renominated in 1898, but was defeated at the polls. . . . The Republican State Convention which met at Hutchinson in June, 1898, nominated, William Eugene Stanley . . . as the candidate for Governor. He was elected by a large majority. During this administration, marked progress was made in the recovery from the effects of the 'boom' of the eighties. . . . A strike of the convicts at the penitentiary in 1901 resulted in the killing of two of them and the punishment of the ringleaders. There was also a revolt at the United States prison at Fort Leavenworth, in which twenty-seven convicts escaped. Eighteen of these were killed or captured within a few days. . . . Willis J. Bailey . . . was nominated for Governor of Kansas, in 1902. He was elected, and began his term in January, 1903. . . . Acts were passed providing for tuition fees at State Institutions continuing the bounty on sugar beets, prohibiting the use of the slot-machine as a gambling device, placing suburban electric railways under control of the Board of Railroad Commissioners, appropriating $100,000 for the Louisiana Exposition, and other important acts. Heavy floods in the spring of 1903 did much damage to Kansas. The greatest losses were sustained at Topeka, Lawrence, and Kansas City. Much property was destroyed, and many people were drowned. So serious was the situation that Governor Bailey called a special session of the Legislature to deal with it. Attempts to make direct appropriations for the relief of the flood sufferers failed, but means enabling them to help themselves were found. And $33,000 was raised for their relief by Kansas people. In the second year of Governor Bailey's term, Joseph R. Burton, United States Senator from Kansas was tried on a bribery charge and convicted. He was sentenced to a fine $2,500 and six months' imprisonment. Many people believed his prosecution malicious, and that he had not violated any law, either moral or statutory. . . . Edward W. Hoch, seventeenth Governor of Kansas, was . . . nominated and elected [1904] by the Republican party. He was re-elected in 1906. The feature of the Legislature of 1905 was the contest of the State of Kansas with the Standard Oil Company. [See TRUSTS: United States: 1904-1909.] Walter Roscoe Stubbs, the eighteenth governor of Kansas . . . was nominated for Governor by the Republican party in 1908, and was the first Kansas Governor to receive his nomination direct from the people at a state-wide primary."—W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v. 2, pp.* 839-845, 847-848, 850-851, 853, 857.

1898.—Part played in the Spanish-American War.—"Kansas people sympathized from the first with the Cubans in their struggle against the tyranny of Spain, and their knowledge of the situation was increased by the arrival from Cuba, in January, 1898, of Colonel Fred. Funston, a 'Kansas boy,' a former student of the State University, with home and friends in Kansas, after a service of two years in the insurgent army in Cuba, and who spoke in many places on the incidents and the lesson of the Cuban war for freedom. The people of Kansas were deeply moved by the sufferings of the hapless Cuban non-combatants; the starving to death of 150,000 people, and the evident determination of the Spanish to exterminate the Cuban race. . . . The President's call for 125,000 men was issued on the 23rd of April. But Kansas did not wait for the call. On the 18th of April a company of eighty men marched to the office of Governor Leedy, followed by a great crowd, and offered their services for the war, which the Governor promised to accept on the first call. On the 18th of April a tender was made Secretary of War Alger by General Charles McCrum, of the Kansas National Guards, for any needed service at any time. The quota of Kansas when the call came was announced as 2,230 men. Governor Leedy summoned to his aid Colonel Fred. Funston, probably the only man in Kansas who had seen military service in Cuba, and the work of recruiting three regiments of volunteer infantry began at once."—N. L. Prentis, *History of Kansas, pp.* 256-257.

1904-1912.—Administrations of Governors Hoch and Stubbs.—"The reforms accomplished during the administration of Governor Hoch by the two 'boss-buster' Legislatures led by Stubbs were fundamental and institutional—hence they were more largely political than economic. The regulation of the State Printer and the State Treasurer, first of all, looked to taking a big slush fund out of politics. The establishment of a Tax

Commission did away with the State Board of Railway Assessors, which formed a bridge between the railways and the politicians. The Two-Cent Fare and the Anti-Pass Laws were enacted to secure . . . justice. . . . The Anti-Pass Law was the first body blow the machine received. The State Board of Control Law robbed the politicians of the patronage. . . . During the last term of Governor Hoch, under Attorney General Jackson, the prohibitory law was rigorously enforced. The Governor lent every aid of the State to law enforcement; and when Attorney-General Jackson was continued in office under Governor Stubbs, the campaign for law enforcement continued. The Legislature gave the Attorney-General a law prohibiting the sale of liquor even for medicinal purposes. And that law was enforced. Since the election of Governor Stubbs in 1908 the Legislature has given the people a number of strong laws. Notably an ouster law which permits the Attorney-General to proceed in the Supreme Court against county and city officers who are not enforcing State laws, and the ouster proceedings are given immediate hearing; under this law several resignations have been secured and one ouster. It is the Kansas substitute for the recall, and it works quickly and effectively. Kansas also has a law requiring lobbyists to register, stating their legislative business; another law provides for a legislative reference bureau; another provides for a direct advisory vote upon United States Senator in the November election under what is known as the Oregon plan; still another law is a corrupt practices act that prevents the employment of workers or teams at primary elections, and also limits the amount of money that may be spent by a candidate for office. The law providing for the optional adoption of the commission form of government for Kansas cities was secured in 1907 and greatly improved in 1909. . . . Under the Stubbs administration three laws having important economic significance . . . [were] secured. They . . . [were], first, a voluntary Bank Guarantee Law that has passed the scrutiny of all the courts, State and Federal, and under the operation of which not a dollar . . . [was] lost to any Kansas depositor in three years; second, Kansas has a Public Utility Act [1911] which puts all public utilities—electric light and power companies, water companies, telephone and telegraph, railway and express companies—under the control of a commission having powers to make physical valuation of the utilities, oversee the issues of their stocks and bonds, and then to adjust rates; third, an Employers' Liability and Workingmen's Compensatory Law [1911]. Subsidiary to the Bank Guarantee Law is a statute known as 'the Kansas Blue Sky Law'; this law provides that the State Bank Commissioner shall investigate the books of any concern offering stock for sale in the State; and when the mining stock peddler, or the land company's agent, or the cement stock salesman shows up with blue sky for sale in Kansas, he must leave the State. . . . Subsidiary to the Workingmen's Compensatory Law are two laws . . . [one of which] provides for the pensioning of school teachers in certain cities; . . . and the other authorizes the county commissioners in Kansas counties to pension worthy persons rendered helpless from any cause, whom the commissioners feel should not be sent to the poorhouse. This is, in effect, an old age pension, and it is the first one adopted in the United States. . . . The Agricultural College now appoints and controls the State Highway Engineer, the State Dairy Commissioner, the State veterinary expert, and has charge of the work for the prevention of the spread of diseases in live stock."—W. A. White, *Free Kansas* (*Outlook, Feb.* 24, 1912).

ALSO IN: E. N. Barr, *Public utilities commission* (W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v.* 2, *p.* 109).

1905-1915.—Civil service.—"Civil Service in Kansas is of recent origin. The first official mention of it was in 1905, when the legislature passed an act to apply civil service principles to the employees in the State institutions under the Board of Control. In 1908 the fire departments of the cities were placed under civil service, and in 1909 a provision was made for a city Civil Service Commission to be appointed by the Mayor and Commissioners of cities of the first class. The State Civil Service Commission was created in 1915. Three members appointed by the Governor comprise the commission, but the law provides that one member shall be the State Accountant, one a member of the faculty of the State University, and the third a State officer or member of a State board or State commission."—E. N. Barr, *Civil service commission* (W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v.* 2, *p.* 1096).

1907-1913.—Creation of state tax commission. —Federal amendments ratified.—"The State Tax Commission was created in 1907 to take over the duties and authority of both the Board of Railroad Assessors and the Board of Equalization. Extensive powers are in the hands of this body, which consist in the general supervision over the administration of assessment and tax laws, conferring with and advising assessors, boards of commissioners, boards of equalization, and others obligated to make assessments; directing proceedings to punish officers of assessments, or agents of corporations for failure to comply with the laws or carry out the orders of Commission; and to appraise property and organize and put into effect a uniform system of taxation. . . . The Commission, upon taking up the work, found assessment matters in a chaotic condition. Very little attention had been paid to the law that the assessment be made on the basis of actual selling value. . . . The first work was that of equalization. . . . The low valuation placed on property had made it appear to outsiders, especially prospective investors, that taxation in Kansas was very high. . . . Appeals from the county boards of equalization, or County Commissioners, on tax matters are taken to the State Tax Commission. In case the complainant is not satisfied with the decision of that body, recourse may be had to the courts."—E. N. Barr, *State tax commission* (E. W. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v.* 2, *pp.* 1094-1095).—In 1911, the sixteenth federal amendment (income tax) was ratified, and in 1913, the seventeenth federal amendment (direct election of senators).

1913.—Small debtor's courts created. See LEGAL AID: Domestic relations courts.

1913.—Creation of the state school book commission.—"In 1897 a State Commission was created by the legislature to select text books for use in the public schools. The first commission consisted of eight members appointed by the Governor. . . . The principal provisions of the law were, that text books of a certain standard, and not costing more than certain prices, should be adopted for a period of five years. . . . Provision was also made for the optional ownership of books by city or district. . . . As years went by violations were flagrant and numerous. . . . Agitations for various changes had been going on since 1901, and in 1913, the State School Book Commission was created to take over the work of the State Text-Book Commission, with additional powers and duties.

First, to acquire by purchase, or condemnation proceedings if necessary, the ground requisite to build an addition to the State Printing Plant, also to purchase the necessary machinery to print and bind school books. Second, to contract for the right to publish books, either by outright purchase, or on a royalty basis. It was made the duty of the Secretary of the Commission to collect from the school patrons of the State, the actual cost of the books. Supplemental books, if used at all, must be supplied by the district or city. This Secretary is selected by the Commission to attend to the details of the work."—E. N. Barr, *School text-book commission* (W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v. 2, pp.* 1095-1096).

1913-1918. — Administration of Governors Hodges and Capper.—"The administration [1913-1915] of George H. Hodges achieved much for Kansas. . . . He gave the state a genuine, thorough business administration. In the Senate Journal of 1913, at page 847 . . . Governor Hodges [says] . . . 'Of the fourteen platform pledges possible to fulfill, thirteen have been written into the statute books of this state. . . . We believed, and the public in general thought, that this state was upon a cash basis. We found one-fourth of the 1913 taxes, amounting to $832,000, drawn in advance, and practically all spent, in the liquidation of bills contracted in 1912. A penitentiary burned to the ground, was committed to our keeping—encumbered with an indebtedness of $19,000. We leave it rebuilded. . . . The obnoxious direct inheritance tax laws were repealed and in lieu thereof a corporation tax law was passed, which has netted the state almost $200,000 the first year of its activity. The women of Kansas have been recognized by this administration for the first time in the history of the state. . . . The expense of conducting the department directly under my charge—the executive office and resident—has been $18,000 less during my tenure of office than the amount spent the last two years by my predecessor.' "—W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v. 2, pp.* 860-863.—"Arthur Capper was the first native Kansan to be elevated to the highest office in the gift of the people of his State. He came into office [1915]. . . . He proved to the voters of the State that he meant what he said when he made his campaign speeches promising certain things. He regarded these promises as notes, to be paid, 'according to the bond.' . . . He was re-elected [1916] by a plurality of 162,000, the largest ever given a candidate for a State office in Kansas. The Governor had promised an economical administration. The attempt of the opposition to load down the appropriation bills, was broken up by the Governor himself; he vetoed bills and parts of bills that carried appropriations he believed unnecessary. During the entire two years he has been in office, the Governor has kept close watch of all the financial affairs of the State. . . . As the result of the Governor's efforts, the Legislature named an Efficiency and Economy Commission, which spent nearly two years investigating all the State institutions and departments. It has urged a radical change in the administrative affairs of the State, consolidating boards, reducing the number of administrative officers and providing for the hiring of experts in different lines to handle the business of the different departments outside of those of the constitutional officers. . . . The first term of Governor Capper really put several milestones in the path of Kansas achievement. . . . [Among these was the following:] provision for pensions for mothers . . . who must break up their homes unless they can have help from the counties where they live. . . . A bureau for the education of mothers in the care of the babies . . . was established. The activities of this bureau can be easily followed by the reduction in the death rate of babies wherever the bureau opened its campaigns. The most crooked election ring in the State was broken up. . . . The worst political and judicial scandal in the history of the State, the natural gas litigation and receivership, with its thousands of dollars in fees to political lawyers, was given an airing that is certain to bring remedial legislation which will prevent a recurrence of such bold and shameless looting."—C. Howes, *Arthur Capper* (W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v. 2, ch.* 66, *pp.* 865-867).

1915.—Case of Coppage vs. Kansas. See COPPAGE VS. KANSAS.

1915.—Creation of industrial welfare commission.—"The Industrial Welfare Commission created in 1915 has for its purpose the establishing of 'such standard of wages, hours and condition of labor for women earners, apprentices and learners, apprentices and minors as shall be held to be reasonable and not detrimental to health and welfare.' The law provides that the Governor shall appoint three commissioners from a different Congressional District, one of whom shall be the Commissioner of Labor, and at least one of the remaining two shall be a woman. The same act that created the Commission makes it unlawful to employ women, learners, apprentices and minors in any occupation detrimental to health or welfare, or to employ these classes at wages not adequate for their maintenance or for hours detrimental to health. . . . The Welfare Commission was empowered to investigate conditions, . . . and to establish boards to regulate wages, hours, conditions and standards in the various industries employing the class of labor covered by the act. . . . The employers have recourse to the courts in case the findings are objectionable to them. The Commission has appointed a Laundry Board and a Mercantile Board. The Laundry Board so far has accomplished nothing. The Mercantile Board has made findings to the effect that no woman or girl shall be employed more than nine hours per day in a mercantile establishment nor later than nine o'clock at night, and requiring employers to fix the hours of beginning and quitting work and the meal hours. These findings have been accepted by the Welfare Commission."—E. N. Barr, *Industrial welfare commission* (W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans, v. 2, pp.* 1098-1099).

1916.—Suffrage granted to women. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1851-1920.

1917.—Commission-manager plan law.—State-manager law.—"One of the most important and beneficial acts passed at the recent (1917) session of the Kansas legislature, was an optional commission-manager plan of government law for cities. This act provides for the election of members of the board of city commissioners, in any given city, and for their appointment of a city manager—serving at their pleasure—who organizes and supervises the services of the administrative departments of the city. The measure provides for the same Initiative and Referendum powers as are already provided by law in the commission government acts applicable to cities of the first, second and third classes, respectively. The Recall provisions, applicable to members of the city commission, are left exactly as at present in the several commission government acts for the cities of our

state. The commission-manager plan act was urged by Governor Capper, in his message to the legislature and was vigorously supported by leading men of both parties, in the Senate and the House. The *Topeka Capital*, the *Kansas City Star*, the *Wichita Beacon* and the *Wichita Eagle* were among the leading newspapers vigorously supporting the passage of the bill. The League of Kansas Municipalities, numbering one hundred and fifty-two Kansas cities and towns as members, and Rotary and other civic and commercial organizations over the state, worked hard for the success of the measure. . . . Wichita and El Dorado have already adopted the commission-manager plan, by vote of their citizens. The act itself provides for its adoption at an election called by Initiative petition signed by twenty-five per cent of the qualified electors voting for mayor at the last preceding city election. . . . Another measure urged by Governor Capper, and passed in an amended form, was the so-called 'state-manager' bill, providing for the consolidation of several state boards, and the appointment of a business manager for the same, under one board."—H. A. Talbot, *League of Kansas municipalities* (*Equity, Apr.*, 1917).—"A state manager (limited) at last! And Kansas has the distinction of being the first state to try this interesting experiment, the idea of which was first given currency by a former Governor of Kansas, Hon. George H. Hodges. But the present executive, Governor Capper, has the distinction and the privilege of having induced the 1917 legislature to take this step, and to him falls the duty of executing the state-manager law. . . . The three members of the board were to be appointed by the Governor, who is the *ex-officio* chairman thereof. Each appointed member holds office four years and two are to be retired every fourth year beginning 1921. Since the Governor holds office for two years, there will always be a 2-year member on the board. After every other election, the Governor will name two members of the board, who, with himself, will constitute a majority. And between times he and his single appointee will make up half the board. In addition to this, the governor is given the power to remove members of the board. Thus the Governor becomes the real head of the state institutions and through this board, which may make its own rules of procedure, he can fix salaries and supervise the operation of all those institutions. The state-manager is the 'hired man' of this board and his salary is left to be determined by the board. In the House bill the man selected for this job need not have been a resident of Kansas before appointment, but the Senate insisted on residence in the state as a qualification. This officer is to be the active fiscal and purchasing agent for all the educational, benevolent and penal institutions, which he is 'to manage and control' by and with the advice of the board. But he does not have power to appoint or remove institution officials, that power being held by the board. The manager is the budget maker for these institutions. Altogether 18 institutions are thus co-ordinated."—*Equity, Oct.*, 1917, *pp.* 197-198.

1917-1923.—Part in the World War.—Governor Allen elected. — Federal amendments passed.—Industrial court established (1920).—During the World War the state furnished 63,428 men, or 1.69 per cent of the whole expeditionary force. At the close of the war, Henry J. Allen was elected governor, to serve for the term, 1919-1921. In this period the eighteenth and nineteenth federal amendments were passed, the eighteenth (prohibition) on January 14, 1919, and the nineteenth (woman suffrage) on June 16, 1919. "Governor Allen determined to deal with the problem of strikes and other labor troubles by legislation. At the special session of the legislature in January [1920] the Industrial Court bill was worked out, passed, and became a law at once. . . . It provides for the establishment of an industrial court of three judges appointed by the Governor, with three-year terms. The court is given full power and authority to supervise all public utilities and all public carriers in the state. . . . Every restriction of the measure on capital and on labor alike is merely incidental to the protection of the people."—E. O. Whitcomb, *Governor Allen's solution* (*American Review of Reviews, Mar.*, 1920).—See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1920-1921: Kansas court, etc.—In 1920, Governor Allen was reëlected for the term of 1921-1923.

ALSO IN: C. Becker, *Kansas* (*Essays in American history, pp.* 85-111).—J. H. Beach, *Notes on Kansas history*.—W. E. Connelley, ed., *Standard history of Kansas and Kansans*.—C. B. Green, *Along the Santa Fé trail* (*Green's Historical Series, v.* 1).—C. Robinson, *Kansas conflict*.—L. W. Spring, *Career of a Kansas politician* (*American Historical Review, Oct.*, 1898, *pp.* 80-104).—*Cyclopedia of state history*, 3 *vols*.—L. W. Spring, *Prelude to the War for the Union*.—T. D. Smith, *Kansas industrial court* (*Central Law Journal, Nov.* 17, 1922).

KANSAS CITY, largest city in Kansas, situated on both sides of the Kansas river at its joining with the Missouri. In 1920, the estimated population was 101,177.

City plan. See CITY PLANNING: United States: Progress in city planning.

1918.—General strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1917-1918: General strikes.

KANSAS-NEBRASKA BILL (1854). See U. S. A.: 1853-1854; OREGON: 1846-1855; 1856-1859.

KANT, Immanuel (1724-1804), German philosopher. Professor of logic and metaphysics, at Königsberg, 1770-1797. "During his earlier years Kant followed the Leibniz-Wolffian philosophy. . . . From 1760 to 1770 he came under the influence of English empiricism. . . . By the year 1770 he had reached the philosophical standpoint for which he is noted, and presented it in a Latin dissertation, *De mundi sensibilis atque intelligibilis forma et principiis;* the next ten years he spent in working it out. His master-work, *Kritik der reinen Vernunft* [Critique of Pure Reason], appeared in 1781. [Kant] . . . sought to do justice to the various currents of his age, to the Enlightenment, empiricism, skepticism, and mysticism; his problem was, as one of his contemporaries put it, 'to limit Hume's skepticism on the one hand, and the old dogmatism on the other, and to refute and destroy materialism, fatalism, atheism, as well as sentimentalism and superstition.' . . . He sees the pressing need of an examination or criticism of human reason, of a tribunal, as it were, that shall secure the just claims of treason and dismiss all its groundless claims,—of a theory of knowledge, in other words, that shall investigate the possibility or impossibility of universal and necessary knowledge, its sources, extent, and boundaries. Philosophy, he thinks, has been dogmatic thus far: it has proceeded without previous criticism of its own powers. It must now become criticism, or enter upon an impartial examination of the faculty of reason in general; with this end in view Kant writes his three *Critiques:* the *Critique of Pure Reason,* an examination of theoretical reason or science; the *Critique of Practical Reason,* an ex-

amination of practical reason or morality; the *Critique of Judgment*, an examination of our æsthetic and teleological judgments, or purposiveness in art and in nature. Genuine knowledge Kant defines as universal and necessary knowledge. He agrees with the rationalists that there is such knowledge,—in physics and mathematics,—with the empiricists that it is ideal knowledge, not knowledge of things as they are in themselves but knowledge of phenomena, knowledge of things as they appear to our senses; hence a rational metaphysics (cosmology, theology, psychology) is impossible. With the empiricists he also agrees that we can know only what we experience, that sensation forms the matter of our knowledge, . . . with the rationalists that universal and necessary truth cannot be derived from experience. The senses furnish the materials of our knowledge, and the mind arranges them in ways made necessary by its own nature."—F. Thilly, *History of philosophy, pp.* 395, 393-394.—See also Ethics: 18th-19th centuries; Deism: Germany; Evolution: Historical development of the idea; History: 27.

Also in: F. Paulsen, *Immanuel Kant.*

KANTARA, El, town in Egypt on the Suez canal. It was attacked by the Turks during the World War. See World War: 1915: VI. Turkey: b, 1.

KANVAYANA DYNASTY, India. See India: B.C. 231-A.D. 480.

KAPILAVASTU, town in northeastern India, the birthplace of Buddha. See Buddha: Discovery of the birthplace.

KAPOHN, Indian trible. See Caribs.

KAPOLNA, Battle of (1849). See Austria: 1848-1849.

KAPP, Wolfgang (1868-), German politician. With General von Lüttwitz and others, organized a conspiracy to overthrow the German republic, March 13, 1920; overcome by the Republican forces, he fled to Sweden, March 17. See Germany: 1920 (March-April).

KAPPEL, Battles of (1529, 1531). See Switzerland: 1528-1531.

KARA MUSTAPHA (d. 1683), grand vizier of Turkey. See Hungary: 1668-1683.

KARAGEORGE (c. 1766-1817), Serbian patriot. See Serbia: 1804-1817.

KARAGEORGE CROSS, military decoration of Serbia. See World War: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VIII. War medals: a.

KARAISM, KARAITES.—The Jewish sect of the Karaites originated in the teaching of one Anan ben David, in the 8th century, whose radical doctrine was the rejection of the Talmud and a return to the Bible, "for the ordering of religious life." Hence "the system of religion which Anan founded received the name of the Religion of the Text, or Karaism."—H. Graetz, *History of the Jews, v.* 3, *ch.* 5.

Also in: H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews, bk.* 23.

KARAKORUM, early capital of the Mongol empire of Jingis Khan and his successors. See Mongolia: 1153-1227.

KARAMZIN, Nicholas Mikhailovitch (1766-1826), Russian writer. See Russian literature: 1800-1852.

KARANKAWAN FAMILY.—"The Karankawa formerly dwelt upon the Texan coast, according to Sibley, upon an island or peninsula in the Bay of St. Bernard (Matagorda Bay). . . . In 1884 Mr. Gatschet found a Tonkawe at Fort Griffin, Texas, who claimed to have formerly lived among the Karankawa. From him a vocabulary of twenty-five terms was obtained, which was all of the language he remembered. The vocabulary . . . such as it is, represents all of the language that is extant. Judged by this vocabulary the language seems to be distinct not only from the Attakapa but from all others."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh annual report, Bureau of Ethnology, p.* 82.—See also Indians, American: Cultural areas in North America: Southeastern area.

KARAUNA, or TUGHLAQ, DYNASTY, India. See India: 1290-1398.

KARELIA, district partly in northwestern Russia and partly in eastern Finland. In 1920, Russia retained eastern Karelia, and guaranteed its autonomy. In 1921 there was an uprising in Finnish Karelia. See Finland: Ethnology; 1920 (October-December); 1921-1922.

KARENS, hill people of Burma. They number more than a million, and nearly a quarter of them have accepted Christianity through the labors of American missionaries.

KARIBIB, town in South West Africa, previously belonging to Germany. The British captured it during the World War. See World War: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1.

KARIGAUM, Defense of (1817). See India: 1816-1819.

KARKAR, Battle of (854 B.C.). Fought by Shalmaneser of Assyria with the kings of Damascus, Israel, and their Syrian neighbors.

KARKYRA. See Corcyra.

KARL. See Charles.

KARLINGS, or Carlings, dynasty of Frankish kings. See Franks: 814-962; Italy: 961-1039.

KARLOMAN. See Carloman.

KARLOWITZ, or Carlowitz, Peace of (1699). See Hungary: 1683-1699.

KARLSBAD, or Carlsbad, Congress of (1819). See Germany: 1817-1820.

KARLSEFNE, Thorfinn. See Thorfinn Karlsefne.

KARLSRUHE, or Carlsruhe, city in the republic of Baden, Germany. It was bombed by the Allies during the World War. See World War: 1915: X. War in the air; 1918: VIII. Aviation.

KARLSRUHE, German cruiser, used as raider during the early part of the World War; was wrecked in the West Indies, 1914.

KARMA. See Buddhism: Law of Karma; Theosophy.

KARMATHIANS. See Carmathians.

KARNAK, village in upper Egypt. It includes the northern half of the ruins of ancient Thebes. Among its remains of extreme antiquity is the temple of Ammon, which is the largest of known temples. See Temples: Ancient examples.

KARNATIC.—"Bishop Caldwell says: 'When the Muhammadans arrived in Southern India, they found that part of it with which they first became acquainted—the country above the Ghâts, including Mysore and part of Telingána—called the Karnataka country. In course of time, by a misapplication of terms, they applied the same name Karnatak, or Carnatic, to designate the country below the Ghâts, as well as that which was above. The English have carried the misapplication a step further, and restricted the name to the country below the Ghâts, which never had any right to it whatever. Hence the Mysore country, which is properly the true Karnatic, is no longer called by that name; and what is now geographically termed "the Karnatic" is exclusively the country below the Ghâts, on the Coromandel coast.'"—W. W. Hunter, *Imperial Gazetteer of India.*—See also Bombay: Presidency.

KARNATTAH, Moorish name of Granada, signifying "the cream of the West." See SPAIN: 1238-1273.

KAROKS, North American Indian tribe. See MODOCS.

KAROLINGIANS, name of Frankish dynasty. See FRANKS: 768-814.

KAROLYI, Alexander (1668-1743), Hungarian general. See HUNGARY: 1699-1718.

KAROLYI, Michael, Count (1875-), Hungarian statesman. Prime minister, 1918; elected president of the Hungarian People's Republic and the National council, Jan. 11, 1919; handed over the government to the Soviet, March, 1919, and after its fall fled to Czecho-Slovakia, then to Italy, but was expelled from there Feb. 1, 1921. See HUNGARY: 1916; 1918: End of the World War; 1918: Proclamation of the republic; 1918-1919 (December-March); 1919 (March).

KARS, fortified town of Transcaucasia and capital of the province of the same name. In 1913 it had 27,500 inhabitants. The town has an ancient history. It was the capital of an Armenian principality during the ninth and tenth centuries and was captured by the Turks in 1546, and fortified in 1579.

1877.—Siege and capture by the Russians. See TURKEY: 1877-1878.

1878. — Cession to Russia. See TURKEY: 1878.

KARTHADA, early name for Carthage. See CARTHAGE: Founding of.

KASAN. See KAZAN.

KASHAN, capital of a province of the same name in Persia. It was taken by the Russians during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915. VII. Persia and Germany.

KASHGAR, city of great antiquity in Chinese Turkestan. It consists of two towns about five miles apart. See TURKESTAN; YAKUB BEG.

KASHGARIA, Chinese Turkestan. See TURKESTAN.

KASHMIR.—The native state of Kashmir and Jamu, in political connection with the Punjab government of British India, constituting the territories of the Maharaja of Kashmir, comprises, "in addition to the districts of Kashmir Proper, Jamu, and Punch, the governorships of Ladakh and Gilghit, including the districts of Dardistan, Baltistan, Leh, Tilail, Suru, Zauskar, Rupshu, and others. The State is bounded on the north by some petty semi-independent hill chiefships, mostly subordinate to Kashmir, and by the Karakorum mountains; on the east by Chinese Thibet; on the south and west by the Punjab districts and the Hazara country. [See INDIA: Map; TIBET: Name.] The provinces of Kashmir and Jamu form the most important part of the State."—W. W. Hunter, *Imperial gazetteer of India, v.* 5.—The "Vale of Kashmir," the "happy valley," whose beauties have been the theme of many poets, is traversed by the river Jhelum and has a length of about ninety miles. "Nowhere in Asia, nor even perhaps in the remaining quarters of the globe, can the parallel be found of such an earthly paradise; a paradise in itself as formed by Nature, but made doubly beautiful by its surroundings. For these are bare, rugged, and frowning rocks, a wilderness of crags and mountains, . . . a solitary and uninhabitable waste. Yet in the midst of this scene of unutterable desolation there lies spread out a wide expanse of verdant plain, a smiling valley, a veritable jewel in Nature's own setting of frightful precipices, everlasting snows, vast glaciers, which, while adding to its beauty by the contrast, serve also as its protection. Shielded from the cold and piercing blasts of the higher regions that surround it on the north, . . . its elevation places it beyond the reach of the fiery heat of India's sunny plains; and thus it exhibits, in the midst of a wide waste of desolation, a scene of almost constant verdure and perpetual spring. . . . The country of Kashmir . . . appears from all accounts to have been ruled from a very remote period in the world's history by a long succession of native princes, sometimes Hindu, and sometimes, perhaps, of Tartar origin. In Professor Wilson's essay on 'The Hindu History of Kashmir' . . . a list of kings is given who are said to have ruled after a line of 35 princes whose names have been forgotten. . . . About the year 1015 . . . [Mahmud of Ghazni (see TURKEY: 999-1183)] took possession of the Valley, holding it and the surrounding mountains for some considerable time. The Mohammedans do not appear to have established at that time a permanent footing in the country, which reverted again to its Hindu kings." These, in turn, were overcome, in the 14th century, by invaders from Tibet, who ruled the country for a season, but were finally expelled by the tribe of the Chakk, the ancient warriors of Kashmir. The throne was then held by Chakk princes until the year 1587, when the last of the line, Yakub Khan, after a brave and protracted resistance, was finally defeated by the armies of the great Akbar [see INDIA: 1399-1605], who annexed it. From that time to the present day the Valley has always continued under a foreign yoke. For over a period of a century and a half Kashmir remained a portion of the Mogul Empire, its affairs being administered by a resident 'Subadar,' or governor. Frequent were the visits of the members of the House of Delhi to this, their fairest province. . . . With the exception of the ruins that denote its earlier history, all the remains of gardens, groves, baths, fountains, and palaces, that are still to be observed in the Valley, owe their origin to the lavish and magnificent tastes of the different members of that truly Oriental regal family. The decline of the Mogul Empire, hastened by the capture of Delhi by Nadir Shah, in 1739, occasioned changes in the Valley; and after several abortive attempts on the part of its governors to establish an independent rule, it was annexed in the year 1753 by Ahmed Shah Abdali, the successor of the conqueror of Delhi, and included in the Dourani Empire, which extended in those days as far as the capital of the Punjab [see INDIA: 1662-1748; 1747-1761]. From 1753 to 1819 it remained a portion of this empire, being governed by Pathan governors, whose rule was neither mild nor beneficial. It was with a feeling of satisfaction that the inhabitants of the country welcomed the change of masters which occurred in the month of July of the latter year, when the forces of Ranjit Singh defeated the Pathans, and it became a part of the Sikh dominions [see SIKHS], remaining so until their downfall, when, falling into the hands of the British by right of conquest, it was by them transferred to the family of its present ruler. . . . Relinquishing all the advantages that accrued to us from its possession, the supreme government sold this fair province to the Rajah Gulab Singh for the paltry and insignificant sum of 75 lacs of rupees, £750,000 in our money."—W. Wakefield, *Happy valley, ch.* 1, 3.—Kashmir is still ruled by a prince of the family of Gulab Singh, but as a feudatory state, under British suzerainty, with a resident at the capital Srinigar. The present Maharaja of Kashmir (1921) is General Sir Pratap Singh, who enthusiastically supported the Allied cause during the World War.

KASHUBES, Slavonic people inhabiting west-

ern Prussia and Pomerania. Their language is peculiar to them. See PHILOLOGY: 21.

KASIKUMUKS, a Lesghian people inhabiting eastern Caucasus. They have a distinctive language. See PHILOLOGY: 23.

KASKASKIA, village in Illinois, early settled by the French.

1751.—French settlement. See ILLINOIS: 1751.

1778.—Taken by George Rogers Clark. See U. S. A.: 1778-1779: Clark's conquest.

1812-1820.—Temporary capital of Illinois. See ILLINOIS: 1809-1839.

KASKASKIAS, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY: ILLINOIS: 1765.

KASSALA, town in Italian North Africa. It was threatened by the Dervishes in 1896. See EGYPT: 1885-1896.

KASSEL. See CASSEL.

KASSITES.—"The Kassites gave a dynasty to Babylonia which lasted for 576 years (B.C. 1806-1230). The fact that the rulers of the country were Kassites by race, and that their army largely consisted of Kassite troops, caused the neighbouring populations to identify the Babylonians with their conquerors and lords. Hence it is that in the tablets of Tel el-Amarna, the Canaanite writers invariably term the Babylonians the 'Kasi.' The 'Kasi' or Cush, we are told, had overrun Palestine in former years and were again threatening the Egyptian province. In calling Nimrod, therefore, a son of Cush the Book of Genesis merely means that he was a Babylonian. But the designation takes us back to the age of the Tel el-Amarna tablets. It was not a designation which could have belonged to that later age, when the Babylonians were known to the Israelites as the 'Kasdim' only. Indeed there is a passage in the Book of Micah (v. 6) which proves plainly that in that later age 'the land of Nimrod' was synonymous not with Babylonia but with Assyria. The Nimrod of Genesis must have come down to us from the time when the Kassite dynasty still reigned over Babylonia. . . . Nimrod was not satisfied with his Babylonian dominions. 'Out of that land he went forth into Assyria, and builded Nineveh, and Rehoboth 'Ir (the city boulevards), and Calah and Resen.' . . . The city of Asshur had been long in existence when Nimrod led his Kassite followers to it, and so made its 'high-priests' tributary to Babylon. It stood on the high-road to the west, and it is not surprising, therefore, that the Kassite kings, after making themselves masters of the future kingdom of Assyria, should have continued their victorious career as far as the shores of the Mediterranean. We may conjecture that Nimrod was the first of them who planted his power so firmly in Palestine as to be remembered in the proverbial lore of the country, and to have introduced that Babylonian culture of which the Tel el-Amarna tablets have given us such abundant evidence."—A. H. Sayce, *Higher criticism, and the verdict of the monuments, ch.* 3.—See also BABYLONIA: Hammurabi, etc.—It was during the Kasshite domination in Babylonia that Ahmes, founder of the eighteenth dynasty in Egypt, expelled the Hyksos intruders from that country; and "his successors, returning upon Asia the attack which they had thence received, subjugating, or rather putting to ransom, all the Canaanites of Judea, Phœnicia, and Syria, crossed the Euphrates and the Tigris."—A. Lefévre, *Race and language, p.* 205.

KASSOPIANS, tribe in ancient Greece. See EPIRUS.

KASTRIOT, George. See CASTRIOT, GEORGE.

KASUR, town in the Lahore district of British India. It was the scene of an outbreak in 1918. See INDIA: 1919.

KATA KANA, table of 47 Japanese ideographs. See JAPAN: Language.

KATABAS, or Catawbas, North American Indian tribe. See TIMUQUANAN FAMILY; SIOUAN FAMILY.

KATANA, town of Syria, twelve miles south of Damascus. It was taken by the British during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 21.

KATANA, Naval battle of. See SYRACUSE: B.C. 397-396.

KATANGA, district in the Belgian Congo, Africa. It is famous for its mineral development. See AFRICA: Map; Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Lack of railway and industrial development; BELGIAN CONGO: 1909; 1914-1916.

KATAPAN, name for Byzantine governor. See ITALY (Southern): 1000-1090.

KATIPUNAN, revolutionary society in the Philippines. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1896-1898.

KATKOV, Michael Nikoforovich (1818-1887), Russian journalist. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1855.

KATO, Sadakichi (1861-), Japanese admiral. Prominent in the blockade of Kiao-Chau. See WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: d, 1.

KATO, Takaaki (Komei), Viscount (1859-), Japanese statesman. See WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: c.

KATO, Tomosaburo, Admiral Baron (1859-), Japanese naval officer and statesman; minister of marine, 1915-1922; prime minister and minister of marine, 1922-1923; delegate to Washington Arms Conference. See JAPAN: 1921-1922.

KATSURA, Taro, Prince (1847-1913), Japanese statesman. Fought for the emperor in the War of the Restoration; served in the Chino-Japanese War, 1894-1895; governor-general of Formosa, 1896; war minister, 1898-1900; prime minister, 1901-1906, 1908-1911; great leader of conservative thought in the country. See JAPAN: 1894-1912; FORMOSA: 1874-1910.

KATZBACH, Battle of (1813). See GERMANY: 1813 (August-October).

KAUAI, island in the Hawaiian group. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Map, Geographical description.

KAULBARS, Alexander, Baron (1844-), Russian general and explorer. Participated in the Russo-Turkish, 1877-1878, and Russo-Japanese Wars, 1904-1905; in the latter he commanded the Russian right in the battle of Mukden. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

KAUS, or Kwokwoos, Indian tribe in North America. See KUSAN FAMILY.

KAUTSKY, Karl Johann (1854-), Austrian socialist. Associated with the socialist press since 1883; founder and editor of *Die Neue-Zeit:* appointed, after the close of the World War, to edit the diplomatic documents bearing upon the outbreak of the war for Germany. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 3; 40.

KAVALA, or Cavalla, seaport of the Ægean. Originally Turkish, became Bulgarian in 1885, and was ceded to Greece after the Second Balkan War by the Treaty of Bucharest, 1913. See GREECE: 1913: Second Balkan War.

1916.—Occupied by Bulgarians. See GREECE: 1916: Transport of Serbs across Greece.

KAVANAGH, Sir Charles Toler McMurrough (1864-), British general. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: w, 17.

KAWAMURA, Kageaki, Viscount (1850-), Japanese soldier. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

KAWS, North American Indian tribe. See SIOUAN FAMILY.

KAY, John (1704-c. 1764), English inventor. See INVENTIONS: 18th century: Industry.

KAZAN, or Kasan, capital of a government of the same name in Russia. (See RUSSIA: Map.) It is located about 253 miles east of Nizhni Novgorod. The original town dates back to the 13th century, and was located about thirty miles from the present city. Destroyed by the Russians in 1399 it was rebuilt on the present site in 1437 by the khan of the Golden Horde. In 1522 the Russians captured the town and put an end to the khanate. The kremlin is situated at the north end of the city. In 1913 the population aggregated 195,300, of whom a large number was Tatar. The city is known for its large number of churches, and its university. The university library has in its possession many Mongol and Tatar manuscripts.

Khanate of. See MONGOLIA: 1238-1391; RUSSIA: 1569-1571.

K-BOATS. See SUBMARINES: 1914-1920.

KEANE, John Baron (1781-1844), British soldier. See AFGHANISTAN: 1838-1842.

KEARNEY, Denis (1847-1907), American labor agitator. See CALIFORNIA: 1877-1880.

KEARNEY, Stephen Watts (1794-1848), American soldier. See CALIFORNIA: 1846-1847; NEW MEXICO: 1846.

KEARNEYITES, name for followers of Denis Kearney. See CALIFORNIA: 1887-1880.

KEARSARGE, United States steamer. Fought with the *Alabama* at Cherbourg, France, and was wrecked on Roncador Reef in the Caribbean sea, February 2, 1894. See ALABAMA CLAIMS: 1862-1864.

KEARY, Sir Henry D'Urban (1857-), British soldier. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1.

KEATING-OWEN CHILD LABOR BILL. See U. S. A.: 1916 (August).

KEATS, John (1795-1821), English poet. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1780-1830.

KEBLE, John (1792-1866), English divine and poet. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1833-1909.

KEDAR, Tribe of.—The Arabs of the tribe of Kedar inhabited the southern portion of Yemamma, on the borders of the desert.

KEECHIES, North American Indian tribe. See PAWNEE FAMILY.

KEELING ISLANDS. See COCOS, OR KEELING ISLANDS.

KEEPER OF THE GREAT SEAL, Lord. See EQUITY LAW: 1538.

KEETMANSHOOP, town in South West Africa, formerly belonging to Germany. During the World War it was taken by the British. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1.

KEEWATIN, formerly a district of Canada lying on the western side of Hudson bay and extending northward to the Arctic ocean. In 1876 an act was passed by the Dominion Parliament (Canada) erecting into a separate government under this name the portion of the North-West Territory lying to the north of Manitoba. (See also NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES.) Early in the 20th century the area was distributed among the provinces of Ontario and Manitoba on the south and the northwestern territories on the north.

KEFT, ancient Egyptian name for Phoenicia. See CAPHTOR.

KEFTIU, name for Minoans at Egyptian court. See GREECE: Ægean or Minoan civilization: B.C. 4000-1200.

KEGS, Battle of the (1778). See PHILADELPHIA: 1777-1778.

KEHILLAH, Jewish community. See JEWS: United States: 1908-1918.

KEHL, city on the right bank of the Rhine, in the republic of Baden, Germany.

1703.—Taken by the French. See NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704.

1733.—Taken by the French. See FRANCE: 1733-1735.

KEIKI. See HITOTSUBASHI.

KEILHAU, Balthasar Matthias (1797-1858), Norwegian explorer. See SPITSBERGEN: 1827-1898.

KEIO UNIVERSITY, Japan. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1871-1913.

KEISER, Reinhard (1674-1739), German operatic composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1630-1800.

KEITH, George (c. 1639-1716), Church of England divine. Became a Quaker, 1662. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1692-1696.

KEKULE, Friedrich August (1829-1896), German chemist. See CHEMISTRY: Organic: Defined; General: Modern: Lavoisier.

KELANTAN, or Kilantan, native state in Siam. Ceded to Great Britain, 1909. See SIAM: 1909.

KELAT. See KALAT.

KELLER, Gottfried (1819-1890), German poet and novelist. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1798-1896.

KELLERMANN, François Christophe, Duke of Valmy (1735-1820), French marshal. Espoused the cause of the revolution, and received the command of the Army of the Centre, 1792; delivered France in the famous cannonade of Valmy, September 20, 1792.

KELLERMANN, François Etienne, Duke of Valmy (1770-1835), French general, son of François Christophe Kellerman. Distinguished himself at Marengo, 1800; at Austerlitz, 1805; and at Waterloo, 1815. Like his father he was a Liberal, and sat in the Chamber of Peers after his father's death. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (June-February).

KELLETT, Sir Henry (1806-1875), British admiral. Aided in the search for Sir John Franklin. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1852-1854.

KELLOGG, William Pitt (b. 1830), governor of Louisiana, 1873-1877. See LOUISIANA: 1868-1874; 1874-1877.

KELLS, Battle at (1314). See IRELAND: 1314-1318.

KELLS, Book of. See BOOKS: Books in medieval times.

KELLY'S FORD, Battle of (1863). See U. S. A.: 1863 (July-November: Virginia).

KELTS. See CELTS.

KELT'S REBELLION (1549). See ENGLAND: 1547-1553.

KELVIN, William Thomson, Baron (1824-1907), British physicist. Made important contributions to mathematical theories of elasticity, heat, electricity, vortex motion and magnetism; electrical engineer for the company which laid the Atlantic cable, 1857-1858 and 1865-1866; among his inventions are the mirror galvanometer, the siphon recorder, an improved form of mariner's compass, and a deep sea sounding apparatus. He also made very valuable contributions to thermodynamics. Some of his books, reprinted from articles in scientific journals, are: "Reprint of Papers on Electricity and Magnetism," 1872; and "Mathematical and Physical Papers," 16 vols., 1882-1911.—See also ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Measuring instruments: 1833-1921; INVENTIONS: 19th century: Instruments.

KEM, ancient name for Egypt. See EGYPT: Names.

KEMAL, Mustapha Pasha. See MUSTAPHA KEMAL PASHA.

KEMAL BOLSHEVIST PACT (1920). See TURKEY: 1920 (November-December).

KEMBALL, Sir George Vero (1859-), British general. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1; a, 1, iii.

KEMMEL, Mount, five miles southwest of Ypres, Belgium. During April 24-27, 1918 of the World War, it was the scene of desperate fighting, the British losing the hill to the Germans. On August 31, 1918, it was recaptured by the British. See World War: 1918: II. Western front: d, 15; d, 17; k, 5.

KEMPEN, Battle of (1642). See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

KEMPIS, Thomas à. See THOMAS À KEMPIS.

KENAI, North American Indian tribe. See ATHAPASCAN FAMILY; BLACKFEET.

KENDALL, Amos (1789-1869), American cabinet member. In President Andrew Jackson's "Kitchen cabinet" (q.v.); postmaster-general, 1835-1840. See U. S. A.: 1835; CENSORSHIP: United States.

KENESHAW MOUNTAIN, Battle of (1864). See U. S. A.: 1864 (May-September: Georgia).

KENIA COLONY. See KENYA COLONY.

KENISTENOS, North American Indian tribe. See ATHAPASCAN FAMILY.

KENITES, caste of Semitic origin. See AMALEKITES.

KENNAYANS, Indian tribe in Alaska. See ESKIMO FAMILY.

KENNEDY, John Alexander (1803-1873), superintendent of police in New York. See NEW YORK CITY: 1863.

KENNEDY, John Stewart (1830-1909), American capitalist and philanthropist. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

KENSICO RESERVOIR. See NEW YORK CITY: 1905-1910.

KENSINGTON, Royal College of Art. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern: England, Ireland, Scotland.

KENT, Jacob Ford (1835-1918), American soldier. See U. S. A.: 1898 (June-July).

KENT, James (1763-1847), American jurist. Member of New York legislature, 1791, 1792-1793, 1796-1797; recorder of New York City, 1797; justice of state supreme court, 1798-1814; chancellor of the state, 1814-1823. His great work, "Commentaries on American law," formed the basis of a system of equity jurisdiction in the United States. See EQUITY LAW: 1811-1845.

KENT, Kingdom of, formed by the Jutes in the southeast corner of Britain. See ENGLAND: 449-473.

KENT, Lathes of, name for the divisions of the county of Kent, England. See LATHES OF KENT.

KENT, Weald of, name of tract of country in Kent. See ANDERIDA.

KENT ISLAND, Chesapeake bay. It was yielded to Maryland by Virginia, 1638. See VIRGINIA: 1630-1652; MARYLAND: 1635-1638; 1643-1649.

KENT'S HOLE.—One of the most noted of the caves which have been carefully explored for relics of early man, coeval with extinct animals. It is in Devonshire, England, near Torquay.—W. B. Dawkins, *Cavè hunting*.

KENTUCKY: Geographic description.—Resources.—South central state of the United States lying between the Mississippi river and the Appalachian mountain system. It is bounded on the north by Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio; on the northeast and southeast by West Virginia and Virginia; on the south by Tennessee; and on the west and northwest by Missouri and Illinois. It has an area of 40,598 square miles, and in 1920, a population of 2,416,630. Kentucky is largely given over to agriculture and stock raising. In 1920 21,612,772 acres were given over to farm lands of which 13,975,746 acres were improved land. The crops raised are maize, wheat, hay, potatoes, fruit, hemp, cotton, sorghum, and tobacco the chief crop. Stock raising is an important industry in the state, which has long been famous for its horses; the live stock industry has an estimated total of 4,264,000 head. The principal mineral products are coal, petroleum, iron, lead, lime, asphalt, natural gas, and mineral waters. See U. S. A.: Economic map.

1748.—First English exploration from Virginia. See OHIO: 1748-1754.

1765-1778.—Absence of Indian inhabitants.—Early exploration and settlement by whites.—Colony of Transylvania.—In the wars that were waged between the Indian tribes of the South, before the advent of white settlers, Kentucky became "a sort of borderland such as separated the Scots and English in their days of combat. . . . The Chickasaws alone held their ground, being the most northern of the sedentary Southern Indians. Their strongholds on the bluffs of the Mississippi and the inaccessibility of this country on account of its deep, sluggish, mud-bordered streams, seem to have given them a sufficient measure of protection against their enemies, but elsewhere in the State the Indians were rooted out by their wars. The last tenants of the State, east of the Tennessee River, were the Shawnees,—that combative folk who ravaged this country with their ceaseless wars from the head-waters of the Tennessee to the Mississippi, and from the Lakes to Alabama. It was no small advantage to the early settlers of Kentucky that they found this region without a resident Indian population, for, bitter as was the struggle with the claimants of the soil, it never had the danger that would have come from a contest with the natives in closer proximity to their homes. . . . As Kentucky was unoccupied by the Indians, it was neglected by the French. . . . Thus the first settlers found themselves, in the main, free from these dangers due to the savages and their Gallic allies. The land lay more open to their occupancy than any other part of this country ever did to its first European comers. . . . In 1765 Colonel George Croghan, who had previously visited the Ohio with Gist, made a surveying journey down that stream from Pittsburg to the Mississippi. . . . In 1766 a party of five persons, including a mulatto slave, under the command of Captain James Smith, explored a large part of what is now Tennessee, and probably extended their journey through Southern Kentucky. Journeys to Kentucky now became frequent. Every year sent one or more parties of pioneers to one part or another of the country. In 1769 Daniel Boone and five companions, all from the Yadkin settlements in North Carolina, came to Eastern Kentucky. One of the party was killed, but Boone remained, while his companions returned to their homes. Thus it will be seen that Boone's first visit was relatively late in the history of Kentucky explorations. Almost every part of its surface had been traversed by other explorers before this man, who passes in history as the typical pioneer, set foot upon its ground. In the time between 1770 and 1772 George Washington, then a land-surveyor, made two surveys in the region which is now the northeast corner of Kentucky. . . . The first distinct effort to found a colony was made by James Harrod and about forty companions, who found their way down the Ohio near to where Louisville

now stands, and thence by land to what is now Mercer County, in Central Kentucky, where they established, on June 16, 1774, a village which they called, in honor of their leader, Harrodsburg. Earlier attempts at settlement were made at Louisville, but the fear of Indians caused the speedy abandonment of this post. . . . In 1775 other and stronger footholds were gained. Boone built a fort in what is now Madison County, and Logan, another at St. Asaphs, in Lincoln County. The settlement of Kentucky was greatly favored by the decisive victory gained by Lord Dunmore's troops over the Indians from the north of the Ohio, at the mouth of the Kanawha [see OHIO: 1774]. . . . That the process of possessing the land was going on with speed may be seen from the fact that Henderson and Company, land-agents at Boonesborough, issued from their office in the new-built fort entry certificates of surveys for 560,000 acres of land. The process of survey was of the rudest kind, but it served the purpose of momentary definition of the areas, made it possible to deal with the land as a commodity, and left the tribulations concerning boundaries to the next generation. These land deeds were given as of the 'colony of Transylvania,' which was in fact the first appellation of Kentucky, a name by which it was known for several years before it received its present appellation. At this time, the last year that the work of settling Kentucky was done under the authority of his majesty King George III., there were probably about 150 men who had placed themselves in settlements that were intended to be permanent within the bounds of what is now the Commonwealth of Kentucky. There may have been as many more doing the endless exploring work which preceded the choice of a site for their future homes. The men at Boone's Station claimed, and seem to have been awarded, a sort of hegemony among the settlements. On the 23d of May, at the call of Colonel Henderson, the land-agent of the proprietors, delegates from these settlements met at Boonesborough, and drew up a brief code of nine laws for the government of the young Commonwealth. . . . The Boonesborough parliament adjourned to meet in September, but it never reassembled. The venture which led to its institution fell altogether to ruin, and the name of Transylvania has been almost entirely forgotten. . . . The colony of Transylvania rested on a purchase of about 17,000,000 acres, or about one half the present area of Kentucky, which was made by some people of North Carolina from the Overhill Cherokee Indians, a part of the great tribe that dwelt on the Holston River. For this land the unfortunate adventurers paid the sum of £10,000 of English money. . . . Immediately after the Boonesborough parliament the position of the Transylvania company became very insecure; its own people began to doubt the validity of the titles they had obtained from the company, because, after a time, they learned from various sources that the lands of this region of Kentucky had been previously ceded to the English government by the Six Nations, and were included in the Virginia charter. In the latter part of 1775, eighty men of the Transylvania settlement signed a memorial asking to be taken under the protection of Virginia; or, if that colony thought it best, that their petition might be referred to the General Congress. . . . The proprietors of the colony made their answer to this rebellion by sending a delegate to the Federal Congress at Philadelphia, who was to request that the colony of Transylvania be added to the number of the American colonies. . . . Nothing came of this protest. Congress refused to seat their delegate, Patrick Henry and Jefferson, then representing Virginia, opposing the efforts of the proprietors. The Governor of North Carolina issued a proclamation declaring their purchase illegal. The colony gradually fell to pieces, though the State of Virginia took no decided action with reference to it until, in 1778, that Commonwealth declared the acts of the

DANIEL BOONE LEADING COLONISTS FOR KENTUCKY, 1773
(From an old lithograph in the North Carolina Hall of History)

company void, but, in a generous spirit, offered compensation to Colonel Henderson and the other adventurers. The Transylvania company received 200,000 acres of valuable lands, and their sales to actual settlers were confirmed by an act of the Virginia Assembly. Thus the strongest, though not the first, colony of Kentucky, was a misadventure and quickly fell to pieces."—N. S. Shaler, *Kentucky, ch.* 5-7.

Also in: T. Roosevelt, *Winning of the west, v.* 1, *ch.* 6, 8-12.

1768.—Treaty with the Six Nations at Fort Stanwix.—Pretended cession of the country south of the Ohio. See U. S. A.: 1765-1768.

1769-1797.—Type of settlers.—Character of early settlements.—Progress in education.—"At the time when Henry Clay left Richmond to seek his fortune in Kentucky, the valley of the Ohio was the 'Far West' of the country, attracting two distinct classes of adventurous and enterprising spirits. . . . The settlement of Kentucky was of an older date [than Ohio], and its population of a different character. . . . Hardy and intrepid spirits soon followed him [Daniel Boone], to dispute the possession of the land with the Indians. They were hunters and pioneer farmers, not intent upon founding large industrial communities, but fond of the wild, adventurous, lonesome, unrestrained life of the frontiersman. Ten years after Daniel Boone's first settlement, Kentucky was said to contain less than two hundred white inhabitants. But then immigration began to flow in rapidly, so that in 1790, when the first federal census was taken, Kentucky had a population of 73,600,—of whom 61,000 were white. About one half of the whites and three fourths of the slaves had come from Virginia, the rest mostly from North Carolina and Maryland, with a sprinkling of Pennsylvanians. At the period when Henry Clay arrived in Kentucky, in 1797, the population exceeded 180,000, about one fifth of whom were slaves,—the later immigrants having come from the same quarter as the earlier. The original stock consisted of the hardiest race of backwoodsmen. The forests of Kentucky were literally wrested from the Indians by constant fighting. The question whether the aborigines had any right to the soil seems to have been utterly foreign to the pioneer's mind. He wanted the land, and to him it was a matter of course that the Indian must leave it. The first settlements planted in the virgin forest were fortified with stockades and block-houses, which the inmates, not seldom for months at a time, could not leave without danger of falling into an Indian ambush and being scalped. No party of the country has therefore more stories and traditions of perilous adventures, bloody fights, and hairbreadth escapes. . . . They were an uncommonly sturdy race of men, most of them fully as fond of hunting, and perhaps also of fighting, as of farming; brave and generous, rough and reckless, hospitable and much given to boisterous carousals, full of a fierce love of independence, and of a keen taste for the confused and turbulent contests of frontier politics. Slavery exercised its peculiar despotic influence there as elsewhere, although the number of slaves in Kentucky was comparatively small. But among freemen a strongly democratic spirit prevailed. There was as yet little of that relation of superior and inferior between the large planter and the small tenant or farmer which had existed, and was still to some extent existing, in Virginia. As to the white population, society started on the plane of practical equality. Where the city of Lexington now stands, the first block-house was built in April, 1775, by Robert Patterson, 'an early and meritorious adventurer, much engaged in the defense of the country.' A settlement soon formed under its protection, which was called Lexington, in honor of the Revolutionary battle then just fought in Massachusetts. The first settlers had to maintain themselves in many an Indian fight on that 'finest garden spot in all Kentucky,' as the Blue Grass region was justly called. In an early day it attracted 'some people of culture' from Virginia, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania. In 1780 the first school was built in the fort, and the same year the Virginia legislature—for Kentucky was at that time still a part of Virginia—chartered the Transylvania Seminary to be established there. In 1787 Mr. Isaac Wilson, of the Philadelphia College, opened the 'Lexington Grammar School,' for the teaching of Latin, Greek, 'and the different branches of science.' The same year saw the organization of a 'society for promoting useful knowledge,' and the establishment of the first newspaper. A year later, in 1788, the ambition of social refinement wanted and got a dancing-school, and also the Transylvania Seminary was fairly ready to receive students: 'Tuition five pounds a year, one half in cash, the other in property; boarding nine pounds a year, in property, pork, corn, tobacco, etc.' In ten years more the seminary, having absorbed the Kentucky Academy established by the Presbyterians, expanded into the 'Transylvania University,' with first an academical department, and the following year adding one of medicine and another of law. Thus Lexington, although still a small town, became what was then called 'the literary and intellectual centre west of the Alleghanies,' and a point of great attraction to people of means and of social wants and pretensions. . . . When the Lexington of 1797, the year of Clay's arrival there, is spoken of as a 'literary and intellectual centre,' the meaning is that it was an outpost of civilization still surrounded, and to a great extent permeated, by the spirit of border life. The hunter in his fringed buckskin suit, with long rifle and powder-horn, was still a familiar figure on the streets of the town. The boisterous hilarity of the bar-room and the excitement of the card table accorded with the prevailing taste better than a lecture on ancient history; and a racing horse was to a large majority of Lexingtonians an object of far greater interest than a professor of Greek. But compared with other Western towns of the time, Lexington did possess an uncommon proportion of educated people; and there were circles wherein the social life displayed, together with the freedom of tone characteristic of a new country, a liberal dash of culture."—C. Schurz, *Kentucky lawyer: Life of Henry Clay, pp.* 13-18.

1774.—Western territorial claims of Virginia. —Lord Dunmore's war with the Indians. See Ohio: 1774.

1775-1779.—Early land laws.—"The few settlers in Kentucky had not been able to secure from Virginia a title to their lands until the Revolutionary War came on. . . . It was the War which brought the western settlers and the government of Virginia together, through mutual need of one another, the former for money and riflemen and the latter for settled titles to land. Thus the first land act in behalf of the trans-Alleghany settlers was passed by Virginia in response to . . . petitions, in the latter part of 1776, and curiously enough, is entitled 'An act for raising a supply of money for public exigencies.' This law referred to the fact that 'great numbers of people had settled in the waste and ungranted lands on the western waters to which they have not been able to secure titles.' It resolved that all such settlers upon

unappropriated lands, to which there was no just prior claim, should have the 'preemption or preference to the grant of such lands' and it gave to all bona fide settlers, previous to June 24, 1776, a right to 'four hundred acres for each family.' The land thus located was to bear a tax to the colony of Virginia according to the 'pound rate.' The Transylvania Company, under the lead of Richard Henderson and by the aid of Daniel Boone, had anticipated Virginia by the purchase of the land between the Cumberland and Kentucky Rivers from the Cherokees and had started a colony of a proprietary type with quit rents to the land and features not in accordance with the idea which had been shaping in Virginia during the period between the close of the French Wars in 1763 and the opening of the Revolution. . . . The Land Act of 1776 was in accord with the popular views on the subject and had it remained the law there would not have been the grounds for complaint which many of the petitions so strongly voice. An act of the Assembly in 1779 confirmed the grants as given in the previous law and extended it to all settlers before January 1, 1778. It departed, however, from the first in granting the right to preempt one thousand acres on the condition of erecting a cabin. Another act of the same year established a land office and gave to any person the right 'to acquire title to so much waste and unappropriated land as he or she shall desire on paying the consideration of forty pounds for every hundred acres."—J. R. Robertson, *Petitions of the early inhabitants of Kentucky* (*Filson Club Publication, no. 27, pp. 7-8*).

1775-1784—County of Virginia.—Indian warfare of the revolution.—Aspirations towards state independence.—"In the winter of 1775 Kentucky was formed into a county of Virginia. . . . About this time Harrodsburg, Boonesborough and Logan's Fort were successively assailed by the Indians. They withstood the furious attacks made upon them; not, however, without great loss. During the succeeding summer they were considerably reinforced by a number of men from North Carolina, and about 100 under Col. Bowman from Virginia. In 1778 Kentucky was invaded by an army of Indians and Canadians under the command of Captain Duquesne; and the expedition of Col. George Rogers Clark against the English post of Vincennes and Kaskaskia took place this year. In February of this year Boone, with about 30 men was engaged in making salt at the Lower Blue Licks, when he was surprised by about 200 Indians. The whole party surrendered upon terms of capitulation. The Indians carried them to Detroit, and delivered them all up to the commandant, except Boone, whom they carried to Chilicothe. Boone soon effected his escape. . . . After . . . some weeks . . . Captain Duquesne, with about 500 Indians and Canadians, made his appearance before Boonesborough, and besieged the fort for the space of nine days, but finally decamped with the loss of 30 men killed, and a much greater number wounded. . . . About the first of April, 1779, Robert Patterson erected a block house, with some adjacent defenses, where the city of Lexington now stands. This year, the celebrated land law of Kentucky was passed by the Legislature of Virginia, usually called the Occupying Claimant Law. The great defect of this law was, that Virginia, by this act, did not provide for the survey of the country at the expense of the State. . . . Each one holding a warrant could locate it where he pleased, and survey it at his own cost. . . . The consequence of this law was . . . a flood of emigration during the years 1780 and 1781. During this period the emigrants were greatly annoyed by the frequent incursions of the Indians, and their entire destruction sometimes seemed almost inevitable. This law was a great feast for the lawyers of that day. . . . In November 1780, Kentucky was divided into three counties, bearing the names of Fayette, Lincoln, and Jefferson. . . . In 1782, Indian hostility was earlier, more active and shocking than it had ever been in the country before; a great battle was fought upon Hinkston's Fork of the Licking, near where Mt. Sterling now stands, in which the Indians were victorious. In this battle, Estill, who commanded the whites, and nearly all of his officers, were killed. Near the Blue Licks another battle was soon afterwards fought with Captain Holder, in which the whites were again defeated; in both these last mentioned battles the contending foe were Wyandottes. . . . Peace was made with Great Britain in 1783, and hostilities ceased; hostilities with the Indians also for a time seemed suspended, but were soon renewed with greater violence than ever. During the cessation of hostilities with the Indians, settlements in Kentucky advanced rapidly. . . . As early as 1784 the people of Kentucky became strongly impressed with the necessity of the organization of a regular government, and gaining admission into the Union as a separate and independent State; but their efforts were continually perplexed and baffled for the space of eight years before their desire was fully accomplished. And though they were often tempted by Spain with the richest gifts of fortune if she would declare herself an independent State, and although the Congress of the Confederated States continually turned a deaf ear to her reiterated complaints and grievances, and repulsed her in every effort to obtain constitutional independence, she maintained to the last the highest respect for law and order, and the most unswerving affection for the Government. . . . With the view to admission into the Union as an independent State, there were elected and held nine Conventions in Kentucky within the space of eight years."—W. B. Allen, *History of Kentucky, ch. 2-3.*

Also in: J. M. Brown, *Political beginnings of Kentucky.*

1778-1779.—Conquest of the northwest by George Rogers Clark, and its annexation to the Kentucky district. See U. S. A.: 1778-1779: Clark's conquest.

1781-1784.—Conflicting territorial claims of Virginia and New York.—Their cession to the United States. See U. S. A.: 1781-1786.

1785-1800.—Question of free navigation of the Mississippi.—Discontent of settlers.—Intrigues of Wilkinson. See Louisiana: 1785-1800.

1787-1797.—Manhood suffrage qualifications. See Suffrage, Manhood: United States: 1787-1800.

1789-1792.—Separation from Virginia and admission to the Union as a state.—"In the last days of the Continental Congress, Virginia, after some struggles, having reluctantly consented to her organization on that condition as an independent state, Kentucky had applied to that body for admission into the confederacy. That application had been referred to the new federal government about to be organized, a delay which had made it necessary to recommence proceedings anew; for the Virginia Assembly had fixed a limitation of time, which, being over-past, drove back the separatists to the original starting-point. On a new application to the Virginia Legislature, a new act had authorized a new Convention, being the third held on that subject, to take the question of separating into consideration. But this act had

imposed some new terms not at all agreeable to the Kentuckians, of which the principal was the assumption by the new state of a portion of the Virginia debt, on the ground of expenses incurred by recent expeditions against the Indians. The Convention which met under this act proceeded no further than to vote a memorial to the Virginia Legislature requesting the same terms formerly offered. That request was granted, and a fourth Convention was authorized again to consider the question of separation, and, should that measure be still persisted in, to fix the day when it should take place. Having met during the last summer [1790], this Convention had voted unanimously in favor of separation; had fixed the first day of June, 1792, as the time; and had authorized the meeting of a fifth Convention to frame a state Constitution. In anticipation of these results, an act of Congress was now passed [Feb. 4, 1791] admitting Kentucky into the Union from and after the day above mentioned, not only without any inspection of the state Constitution, but before any such Constitution had been actually formed." In the constitution subsequently framed for the new state of Kentucky, by the convention appointed as above, an article on the subject of slavery "provided that the Legislature should have no power to pass laws for the emancipation of slaves without the consent of their owners, nor without paying therefor, previous to such emancipation, a full equivalent in money; nor laws to prevent immigrants from bringing with them persons deemed slaves by the laws of any one of the United States, so long as any persons of like age and description should be continued in slavery by the laws of Kentucky. But laws might be passed prohibiting the introduction of slaves for the purpose of sale, and also laws to oblige the owners of slaves, to treat them with humanity."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States, v.* 4, *ch.* 3-4.

Also in: J. M. Brown, *Political beginnings of Kentucky.*

1790-1795.—War with Indian tribes of the Northwest.—Disastrous expeditions of Harmar and St. Clair.—Wayne's decisive victory. See Northwest Territory of the United States: 1790-1795.

1790-1800.—River transportation.—Mountain immigration.—Land laws.—"In the mountains the river transportation of all products except timber has practically ceased; but until the railroad era, for at least six months of the year, the Kentucky was the only feasible trade route since the roads were almost impassable during the season of rain and snow. Accordingly for a century enterprising mountaineers, in spite of constant risk and heavy loss, annually floated out their products on the spring and winter tides and relied upon the river also for return freights. Since the beginning of settlement therefore, the stream valleys have been the centers of economic life, and it is the mountaineers inhabiting them rather than the dwellers in the lowlands who have been most affected by river improvements. Here as in the Bluegrass the early settlers were primarily farmers. Unfortunately for them the steep and narrow water sheds separated by the V-shaped valleys are essentially mineral and timber lands but little adapted to agriculture. That the mountains contained arable tracts, however, was long known to the residents of the lowlands. At an early date settlers from the east doubtless entered the upper valley through Pound Gap and other passes following trails from the Wilderness Road and the highway in the Kanawha gorge. Nevertheless, immigration in general, as shown by the Census reports, has been by way of central Kentucky. Thence, as values and rents increased, the population extended up the river bottoms. The advance began during the decade, 1790-1800. Shortly before this, investment in mountain land had become a popular form of speculation. In 1779 the famous Virginia land law was passed. A commission was appointed to settle existing claims and arrangements were made to sell the remaining public territory in unrestricted quantities at forty cents an acre. For money paid into the treasury land warrants were issued. In 1781, certificates issued by the State were made legal tender for the purchase of public land, the rate of exchange being a thousand in paper for one in silver. The result was to flood the Treasury with the discredited currency. Merchants at home and at a distance would receive land and treasury warrants in payment for goods and after collecting a large quantity would enter extensive tracts for survey. All of central Kentucky was soon under patent so that many of the investments were made in the mountains."—M. Vercheff, *Kentucky river navigation* (*Filson Club Publications, no.* 28, *p.* 129).

1792.—Agriculture.—Road-building.—"In 1792 the three leading crops in Kentucky were corn, hemp and tobacco. As was natural, Indian corn was always the first crop to be planted by the new settler, since for the first few years his family, as well as his cattle, depended on it for subsistence. . . . In early Kentucky, hemp was considered superior to tobacco as a staple crop. It was first raised near Danville by Archibald McNeill in 1775, and continued until the Civil war to be a principal product of Kentucky. In early times hemp served as the standard of exchange in Kentucky. . . . Tobacco did not become an important crop in Kentucky till after 1787. Since it is a crop that can not be largely consumed by the producers and it was practically impossible to get it to market because of distance and poor transportation, the necessary result was that little was raised and that for very low price—two cents per pound. . . . After the opening of the New Orleans market . . . the growing of tobacco took on new life, and it soon became the principal crop of export in the State. . . . The present road system of Kentucky is founded on the traces of pioneer times, and those, in turn, were based on the Indian and buffalo trails. There was an essential difference between the two, since the Indian paths were narrow, while the buffalo trails were many rods wide. Lewis Evans' map of 1755 indicates the most important of the Indian roads in Kentucky. These have already been described. There were, however, numerous offshoots and branches of these roads and many of them were afterwards adopted as routes for county highways. The buffalo trails led from all directions to the 'Licks'; they were more numerous by far than the Indian roads, and like them were often adopted as highways. Filson's map of 1793 shows the road system of Kentucky in pioneer times. Lexington was the converging point of nine roads, Danville, of four. The four most important roads were the Wilderness Road, the Nashville Road, the Lexington-Limestone Road, and the Louisville roads. All these were made of the same material, viz., dirt. They were of unequal width along their course and had no grading. A road in pioneer Kentucky was simply a strip of land over which the trail passed. The Virginia Assembly, in 1779, appointed Calloway and Shelby to mark out a way for pack horses over the Wilderness trail. This did not mean that before this time the trail was not in use for pack horses, but merely that the trail was to be improved and the

best branches indicated. Though little was done at this time in the way of improvement, the road continued to be used in increasing measure for immigration and trade. It was the custom for people going from Kentucky to Virginia to travel in companies under guard, and these trips were advertised long ahead so that all travelers might take advantage of them. The Lexington-Limestone road was never a subject for State action before 1792. Its origin lay in the Indian-buffalo trail that connected both places with the Lower Blue Licks. It came into prominence first as an immigrant road to central Kentucky for those coming down the Ohio, and later as a trade route by which the Pennsylvania merchandise reached the Bluegrass. The first wagon was taken over it in 1783. The course of the road was the present Maysville and Lexington pike. At Lexington began the road to Nashville; it made with the Limestone Road a continuous highway across the land and was a famous route for travelers, and, later, for trade. Its course is shown on the Filson map; it passed through the 'Barrens' of Kentucky, where a traveler in 1792 might go forty miles without seeing a house. Because of the nature of the ground over which it passed, it formed an easier road than the two already mention. It was not improved before 1792. The Louisville roads were also modified trails connecting that town with Lexington and Danville. At these towns they connected with the roads already mentioned. The Louisville roads were free from obstruction, for most of their course, and could be traveled by wagons from the first. All the Kentucky roads, however, had to cross numerous rivers and these were seldom fordable. Due to this fact the Virginia government early authorized the establishment of ferries at the necessary places. The Boonesborough ferry in 1779 was the first of these and was followed by many others. In 1787 the authority to establish ferries was given to the County Courts of Kentucky. In 1786 Virginia authorized the building by private subscriptions of a 'New Road' from Lexington to the Kanawha. It was unfinished in 1792. The settlement of Kentucky crept out from the central Bluegrass along these four great roads. Indeed, pioneer Kentucky may well be likened to a wheel of which the Bluegrass was the hub and these roads the spokes. Washington, Mayslick, the Lower Blue Lick, Millersburg and Paris grew up along the Limestone Road, while Frankfort, Shelbyville, Midway, and many others were founded on the roads to Louisville. The road through the 'Barrens' did not at first induce settlement, but after 1792 settlers began to take up farms along the road and towns came into existence at the usual halting places of the travelers."—R. S. Cotterill, *History of pioneer Kentucky, pp.* 234-238.

1792-1799. — Administration of Governors Shelby and Garrard.—"Kentucky Resolutions." —Constitutional convention assembled.—"The newly-elected governor, Isaac Shelby, and the first legislature of Kentucky met at Lexington, June 4, 1792. . . . Governor Shelby had been a brave officer in the Revolution and had served with signal honor. He was twice elected governor of Kentucky. . . . The very first enactment of the first general assembly of the state created an office, by a bill entitled: 'An act establishing an Auditor of Public Accounts.' This act was approved by the Governor June 22, 1792, and became a law upon that date. . . . The session of the general assembly began . . . on June 4, and ended on June 22, 1792, the shortest legislative session on record. . . . [At] the close [1796] of the term of Isaac Shelby as governor . . . Gen. Benjamin Logan and James Garrard, both of the Republican or Democratic party, were candidates to succeed him, the Federalists appearing not to have offered a candidate. Garrard was successful by a small majority. . . . Governor Garrard assumed the duties of the office in 1796 [and closed them 1804]. . . . Of all the resolutions which have been enacted by the law-making powers of the different states of the Union none have been so famous and enduring as those adopted by the legislature of Kentucky in 1798 and 1799. [See also U.S.A.: 1798.] . . . The resolutions of 1798 were adopted by the Kentucky legislature without amendment. . . . On the 10th of November, 1798, the house came to a vote on the resolutions and adopted them without amendment. . . . On the 13th of November, the resolutions were unanimously adopted by the senate, and on the 16th of the same month, were approved by Governor Garrard. . . . The legislature of 1799 assembled at Frankfort on the 4th of November and by an overwhelming majority John Breckinridge, the mover of the resolutions of 1798, was elected speaker of the house. . . . Under the provisions of an act of the legislature, the people in 1797 voted upon the question of calling a convention for the enactment of a new constitution. . . . The vote in favor of a new constitution was 9,814 for, and 440 against it; but as five counties made no returns, the requisite constitutional majority was not apparent and the proposition therefore failed. At the succeeding session of the legislature a bill providing for a second vote passed the house but was defeated in the senate. The people resented this action and demanded that at the next election they be given the right to express their views as to the calling of a convention. . . . Under the first constitution, a body of electors, not the voters at large, chose the governor and also the members of the senate. . . . The vote in favor of a new constitution again failed to receive the necessary majority, through ten counties failing to report the vote cast therein. The sentiment in favor of a convention, however, was so strong that when the general assembly met, the necessary two-thirds majority was received and authority was given for the assembling of a constitutional convention which assembled July 22, 1799, with Alexander C. Bullitt, of Jefferson, as president and Thomas Todd as secretary."—E. P. Johnson, *History of Kentucky and Kentuckians, v.* 1, *pp.* 121-123, 142, 145, 159, 165-166.

1799-1803.—New constitution.—Slavery question.—Rise of Henry Clay.—The people of Kentucky were dissatisfied with those clauses in their Constitution which provided for the election of the governor and of the state senators through the medium of electors. "The new organic law provided that the governor should be chosen for a term of four years by a majority of the electorate at the polls, instead of by a small body of electors who also chose the senate. This latter body, it was provided, should be chosen by the people in twenty-four senatorial districts, an additional senator to be chosen for the three representatives who should be chosen above fifty-eight. After the first three years, the senators held their offices for four years as now. The governor's disapproval of an enactment of the general assembly, instead of being absolute, as under the first constitution, could be overruled by a majority of each house. . . . These changes were the most important made in the first instrument and and after being in session but twenty-seven days, the Convention adjourned, declaring that the former Constitution should remain in full force and effect until June 1, 1800, on which date the second instrument was to

become effective."—E. P. Johnson, *History of Kentucky and Kentuckians, v.* 1, *p.* 166.—"Some public-spirited men thought this a favorable opportunity for an attempt to rid the state of slavery. An amendment to the Constitution was prepared providing for general emancipation, and among its advocates in the popular discussions which preceded the meeting of the convention, [Henry] Clay was one of the most ardent. It was to this cause that he devoted his first essays as a writer for the press, and his first political speeches in popular assemblies. But the support which that cause found among the farmers and traders of Kentucky was discouragingly slender. . . . At the period of the elections for the convention called to revise the Constitution of Kentucky, the philosophical anti-slavery spirit of the Revolution survived in that state only in a comparatively feeble flicker among the educated men who had come there from Virginia and Pennsylvania. It had never touched the rough pioneers of Kentucky with any force. The number of slaves held in the state was, indeed, small enough to render easy the gradual abolition of the system. But the Kentucky farmer could not understand why, if he had money to buy negroes, he should not have them to work for him in raising his crops of corn, and hemp, and tobacco, and in watching his cattle and swine in the forest. His opposition to emancipation in any form was, therefore, vehement and over-whelming. The cause so fervently advocated by Clay, following his own generous impulses, as well as the teachings of his noble mentor, Chancellor Wythe, and by a small band of men of the same way of thinking, was, therefore, desperate from the beginning. But they deserve the more credit for their courageous fidelity to their convictions. Clay was then a promising young man just attracting public attention. At the very start he boldly took the unpopular side, thus exposing himself to the displeasure of a power, which, in the South, was then already very strong, and threatened to become unforgiving and merciless. Nor did he ever express regret at this first venture in his public career. On the contrary, all his life he continued to look back upon it with pride. . . . His early advocacy of that cause no doubt displeased the people of Kentucky; but what helped him promptly to overcome that displeasure was the excitement caused by another topic of great public interest, on which he was in thorough accord with them,—the alien and sedition laws, that tremendous blunder of the Federalists in the last days of their power. The conduct of the French government toward the United States, and especially the corrupt attempts of its agents, revealed by the famous X Y Z Correspondence, had greatly weakened that sympathy with the French Revolution which was one of the most efficacious means of agitation in the hands of the American Democrats. The tide of popular sentiment turned so strongly in favor of the Federalists that they might easily, by prudent conduct, have attracted to themselves a large portion of the Republican rank and file, thus severely crippling the opposition to the administration of John Adams. But to push an advantage too far is one of the most dangerous errors a political party can commit; and this is what the Federalists did in giving themselves the appearance of trying to silence their opponents by the force of law. Nothing could have been better calculated not only to alarm the masses, but also to repel thinking men not blinded by party spirit, than an attempt upon the freedom of speech and of the press, wholly unwarranted by any urgency of public danger. The result was as might have been foreseen. The leaders of the opposition, with Jefferson at their head, were not slow in taking advantage of this stupendous folly. Their appeals to the democratic instincts of the people, who felt themselves threatened in their dearest rights, could not fail to meet with an overwhelming response. That response was especially strong west of the Alleghanies, where Federalism had never grown as an indigenous plant, but existed only as an exotic. In the young communities of Kentucky, the excitement was intense, and Clay, fresh from the Virginia school of democracy, threw himself into the current with all the fiery spirit of youth. Of the speeches he then delivered in popular gatherings, none are preserved even in outline. But it is known that his resonant declamation produced a prodigious impression upon his hearers, and that after one of the large field meetings held in the neighborhood of Lexington, where he had spoken after George Nicholas, a man noted for his eloquence, he and Nicholas were put in a carriage and drawn by the people through the streets of the town amid great shouting and huzzaing. It was not, however, until four years afterward, in 1803, that he was elected to a seat in the legislature of the state, having been brought forward as a candidate without his own solicitation. The sessions in which he participated were not marked by any discussions or enactments of great importance; but Clay, who had so far been only the remarkable man of Lexington and vicinity, soon was recognized as the remarkable man of the state. In such debates as occurred, he measured swords with the 'big men' of the legislature who thus far had been considered unsurpassed; and the attention attracted by his eloquence was such that the benches of the Senate became empty when he spoke in the House."—C. Schurz, *Life of Henry Clay, pp.* 27, 29-33.

1804-1818.—Bank chartered.—Legislation.—Purchase of Indian lands.—In 1804 Christopher Greenup was elected governor. An important act of this period was the charter of the Bank of Kentucky in 1807, with a capital of one million dollars. In 1808, General Charles Scott was elected governor for the term ending 1812. "In the legislation of 1811-12, among others, bills were passed granting lands, at ten cents per acre, to aid in building iron and salt-works in Wayne and Pulaski counties; assenting on the part of Kentucky to the proposed amendment of the United States Constitution, depriving of citizenship any one accepting title of nobility or honor, or receiving presents or office from foreign emperor, king, or prince; requiring all State and judicial officers and attorneys at law to take an oath against duelling, or participating in a duel, or negotiating a challenge. . . . In August [1812], the favorite son of Kentucky, Isaac Shelby, was elected governor for the second time. . . . In 1816, George Madison was elected governor and Gabriel Slaughter lieutenant-governor of Kentucky. In October [1816], Madison having died, Slaughter succeeded him, and was duly installed, after an excited controversy as to whether he should become governor by succession, or the Legislature should order a new election. Among the topics of interest in his message, [he] . . . advocates aid and encouragement, both to higher institutions of learning and to a system of popular schools over the State. He recommends a revision of the laws of escheat, under the belief that a large quantity of the lands of the Commonwealth is held by individuals or unsettled; . . . [that] steps . . . should promptly be taken, in co-operation with the Federal Government, to extinguish the Indian title to that part of Kentucky Territory lying west of the Tennessee river.

This last was a question of importance; and now that the frontiersmen had extended the white settlements westward to, or within, the borders of this country, the last eastward of the Mississippi and southward of the Ohio of the original Virginia grant, now transferred to Kentucky, to which the aboriginal tribes had not forfeited their claim by treaty stipulations, the demand for negotiation and purchase of the same had become imperative. The Chickasaw nation owned the territory in both Kentucky and Tennessee between the Mississippi and Tennessee rivers, embracing some seven million acres of fertile lands. In October, 1818, the General Government effected a purchase of all this country. . . . The portion that fell to the jurisdiction of Kentucky now embraces, in solid body, the counties of McCracken, Marshall, Hickman, Ballard, Fulton, Graves, and Calloway, a section yet designated as 'The Purchase.' "—Z. F. Smith, *History of Kentucky, pp.* 462, 464, 507-508.

1812-1814.—Part played in War of 1812.—"When the express, which was then sent through the wilderness from Detroit to Cincinnati, brought an account of the surrender of Detroit by General Hull, August 15, 1812, there seemed to be a universal outburst of patriotic sentiment among the people of Kentucky. Their continued conflict with Indians from the cessation of hostilities through the peace which followed the Revolutionary War had kept alive a military spirit as well as military organizations. Their sufferings and their services in behalf of their country had given them the highest order of patriotism. In the hearts of all the people of Kentucky burned an intense desire to wipe out in some great victory the stain which had been placed upon national courage by the base surrender of General Hull. General Harrison, then Governor of the territory of Indiana, had been authorized to take command of the troops in the Indiana and Illinois territories to carry on the war in that section against the Indians, and also to call on the Governor of Kentucky for any portion of its contingent of volunteers which was not in service. In May, 1812, the Governor of Kentucky had organized ten regiments, amounting to five thousand five hundred, as the quota of Kentucky under the one hundred thousand militia call made by the United States. More than enough volunteers had promptly come forward to meet the demands of the Governor, and, under requisition, made by the War Department, the regiments of John M. Scott, William Lewis, and John Allen were ordered into the service. They were required to rendezvous at Georgetown, in Scott County, on the 15th of August, 1812, and were placed under command of Brigadier-General John Payne, of Scott County. The best men in the State promptly offered their services to their country. Members of Congress, county officers, majors, colonels, and captains of militia, all hastened, if required, to take the place of privates in the ranks. Men who had fought in the War of the Revolution, or later under Wayne, Harrison, St. Clair, and Clark, esteemed it a privilege to again assert their country's honor, and rushed to its defense. Rank was unhesitatingly waived, and the impulse to volunteer was almost universal. While these troops were assembled at Georgetown and were listening to an address from Henry Clay, Hull, at Detroit, was surrendering the soldiers of his country and his post in the most cowardly manner to their British foes. Who should command these troops was a question of much moment to the Kentucky soldiers. Governor Scott would shortly turn over his office to Shelby, who was for the second time to be Governor of the Commonwealth. It had been suggested that General William Henry Harrison be made Major-General by the Governor of Kentucky, but the difficulty was, Harrison was not a citizen of Kentucky, and the laws did not sanction the appointment of a non-resident as a militia officer of the state, and besides a Major-General had already been appointed for the detached militia which was all that was allowed under the law. At this juncture a caucus was called, composed of Governor Shelby, Henry Clay, Thomas Todd, judge of the Federal Court, and other distinguished Kentuckians, and they unanimously resolved to advise Governor Scott to appoint General Harrison as Major-General of the Kentucky Militia, and authorize him to take command of the troops now about to march for Detroit. Governor Scott made the appointment, and in a very short time Kentucky sent seven thousand of her citizens into the field."—B. H. Young, *Battle of the Thames* (*Filson Club Publications, no.* 18, *pp.* 14-15).

1818-1829.—Money and banking problems.—Conflict between the judicial and legislative power in the state.—States rights versus federal courts.—"A great abuse of paper money and banking took place in the Mississippi Valley between 1818 and 1828. It was an outcome of the application of political forces to the relations of debtor and creditor. It necessarily followed that political measures were brought into collision with constitutional provisions, and with judicial institutions as the interpreters and administrators of the same, in such points as the public credit, the security of contracts, the sanctity of vested rights, the independence of the judiciary, and its power to pass on the constitutionality of laws. Kentucky was the scene of the strongest and longest conflict between the constitutional guarantees of vested rights and the legislative measures for relieving persons from contract obligations, when the hopes under which those obligations were undertaken had been disappointed by actual experience. . . . In 1816 great popular hostility was manifested to the practice of quoting English decisions in the courts. . . . A law was passed in Kentucky forbidding the citation of any English cases since July 4, 1776. The negative was left out of this law. The cases were cited in the reports, but were not read in court. The law fell into disuse. During the period of inflation east of the Alleghanies (1812-18), the States west of the Alleghanies had plenty of silver, and were free from financial disturbance. At the session of 1817-18, the Legislature of Kentucky plunged that State into the inflation system by chartering forty banks, which were to issue notes redeemable in Bank of Kentucky notes. The popular party was now under the dominion of a mania for banks, as the institutions for making the poor rich. . . . In 1817 the circulation of the Bank of Kentucky was $417,000. The forty banks and the two branches of the national bank went into operation in that year. The Bank of Kentucky could not therefore sustain its former circulation. It imported $240,000 in silver, and reduced its circulation, November, 1818, to $195,000. Nevertheless, it fell heavily in debt during 1818 and 1819 to the branches of the Bank of the United States. In November, 1819, the latter bank ordered the debt to be collected. . . . Intense rage was excited against the Bank of the United States, but if the facts are as alleged the Bank of Kentucky must have been extending its loans, and if the Bank of the United States had not called for payment it would have been forced to stand back, and see the Bank of Kentucky use the capital of the Bank of the United States as a means of profit. Kentucky had laid a tax of $60,000 on each of the branches

of the national bank, in January, 1819. At the same time the Supreme Court of the United States declared the bank constitutional. In December the Kentucky Court of Appeals unanimously sustained the state tax, on the ground that the bank was unconstitutional. Two judges thought they must yield to the Supreme Court of the United States. The third, Rowan, thought they ought to stand out and force further trial in the interest of state rights. The Bank of the Commonwealth of Kentucky was established November 29, 1820, as a further 'relief' measure for the benefit of the debtors, victims of the forty banks of 1818. As a further measure of relief a replevin law was passed, December 25, 1820, according to which the debtor was to have two years in which to redeem, under an execution, unless the creditor should endorse on the note that he would take notes of the Bank of the Commonwealth, if the debtor could pay them. [In the meanwhile John Adair had been elected governor for the term 1820-1824; and he had concurred with the legislature in the act passed.] Another act was passed, December 21, 1821, which forbade the sale of land on execution, unless it should bring three fourths of its value as appraised by a jury of neighbors. The Bank of the Commonwealth was authorized to issue notes for three millions of dollars. . . . The profits of the bank were to go to the State. Stripped of all pretence . . . the bank was the state treasury, put into the hands of a commission elected by the Legislature, and incorporated. Its funds were the current receipts of the treasury from land, and its current balance, if it had one; also the capital already invested in the old bank, whenever that should be released, which never was done. The notes of the bank were legal tender to and from the State. The Legislature appropriated $7,000 to buy books, paper, and plates for printing the notes. This is all the real capital the bank ever had. It was, therefore, just one of the grand swindling concerns common at that period, so many of which are described in the pages of Niles and Gouge. In 1822, Judge Clark, of the Circuit Court of Kentucky, declared the replevin law of that State unconstitutional. . . . An effort was made to have him removed by the Governor on the resolution of the Legislature. . . . A Kentucky correspondent writes, February, 1823: The Bank of the Commonwealth 'has nearly destroyed all commerce or trade, extinguished personal credit, and broken down confidence between man and man, as well as damped and depressed the industry of the State; but the people are beginning to get tired of its blessings, and its paper-mill will soon cease working, leaving a debt, however, due to it from the poorest of the people to the amount of two and a half or three millions of dollars.' In 1823 the notes of the Bank of the Commonwealth began to be withdrawn and burned. . . .

"In 1823 the Court of Appeals of Kentucky declared the relief laws unconstitutional. The Legislature, in January, 1824, affirmed the constitutionality of said laws, and an issue was made up on the right and power of courts to annul, on the ground of unconstitutionality, laws passed by the representatives of the people. The relief system thus brought directly to the test the power of a system of constitutional guarantees, administered by an independent judiciary, to protect rights against an interested and corrupt majority of debtors, which was using its power, under democratic-republican self-government, to rob the minority of creditors. The state election of 1824 was fought on the effort to elect a Legislature two-thirds of which would memorialize the Governor [Joseph Desha, 1824-1828] for the removal of the judges who had decided the relief laws unconstitutional. A majority was obtained, but not two-thirds. Another course was then taken. The legislative act by which the state judiciary was organized and the Court of Appeals created was repealed. Reference was made, in defence of this action, to the repeal of the federal judiciary act, at the beginning of Jefferson's administration. A new Court of Appeals was constituted by a new act. William T. Barry was appointed chief justice. The old court denied the constitutionality of the repeal and of the new court, and continued its existence, so that there were two courts. In 1825 the parties in the State were 'Old Court' and 'New Court.' . . . By this time the contest had developed a whole school of ambitious, rising politicians, who appealed with demagogical address to the passions and distress of the embarrassed debtors. In November, 1825, Niles quotes a Kentucky paper that more persons had left that State than had come to it for many years. It is plain that two classes of persons were driven away by the relief system: (1) those who wanted, by steady industry and accumulation without borrowing, to acquire capital and to be secure in the possession of it; and (2) those who could not, under the prevailing depression, work off the mortgages which they had eagerly given to the Bank of the Commonwealth for its notes, in the hope of thus escaping from all embarrassments. After five years their condition was hopeless, and if they had any energy they started westward to begin again. . . . The message of Governor Desha of Kentucky, November 7, 1825, deserves attentive reading from any one who seeks to trace the movement of decisive forces in American political history. The Governor denounces all banks, and especially the Bank of the United States, because they are all hostile to the power and rights of the States. . . . He complains of the State Court of Appeals, which had declared the law taxing the Bank of the United States to be constitutional. . . . He denounces the federal courts for not recognizing the state relief laws, . . . and he regards the State as robbed of self-government by this intrusion of foreign courts. . . . In 1826 the state election was again a contest between old court and new court. The old court carried both Houses. The replevin laws were appealed. The acts of the new court were treated as null. The new court seized the records, and held them by military force. Civil war was avoided only by the moderation of the old court party. The Legislature repealed the law constituting the new court, but the Governor vetoed the repeal. It was passed over his veto December 30, 1826. By resignations and new appointments among the judges, the court was reconstituted as a single anti-relief body in the years 1828-9."—W. G. Sumner, *American statesmen, pp.* 119-134.

1828-1859.—**Repeal of replevin laws.—Call for troops, 1846.—Constitutional convention and slavery question.—"Bloody Monday."—Nomination of Magoffin for governor.**—"The gubernatorial election came off in August [1828], and the National Republican, or old-court party, selected General Thomas Metcalfe as their candidate for governor, and the opposition, under the popular name of Democratic Republican, put forward William T. Barry as their leader. . . . Metcalfe was elected, but by a small majority, while the opposition carried their lieutenant-governor and a majority of eight thousand. . . . During the conflicts of 1829 and 1830, the Jackson supremacy was maintained in the Legislature and in the delegates

to Congress, but in the fall of 1831, the Clay party, as it was called by many, obtained a majority in the Legislature, and this was strikingly made manifest to the Union by the election of Clay to the Senate of the United States. . . . The great contest of 1832 came on. Jackson and Clay were the competitors for the presidency, and Kentucky had to choose a successor to Metcalfe in the gubernatorial chair. Judge Buckner was the candidate selected by the Nationals, and Breathitt by the Democrats or Jackson party. Great efforts were made by both parties, and Breathitt was elected [August, 1832] by more than one thousand votes. Immense rejoicings upon one side and bitter mortification upon the other were occasioned by this result. But the Nationals instantly called a convention, . . . and organized for a decisive struggle in November. . . . The Democrats also held a convention, and it became obvious that the preliminary trial of strength in August was only a prelude to the decisive conflict which was to come off in November. . . . The result was a signal and overwhelming triumph of the National Republicans. . . . The fate of the Commonwealth's Bank, and the replevin laws connected with it, was sealed by the triumph of the old-court party. The latter were repealed, and the former was gradually extinguished by successive acts of the Legislature, which directed that its paper should be gradually burned, instead of being reissued. . . . [When Governor Breathitt died in 1834, Lieutenant Governor James T. Moorehead succeeded to the office and served for more than two years.] In 1836, James Clark became governor, and Charles A. Wickliffe, lieutenant-governor, and James M. Bullock was appointed secretary of state. Clark dying in September, 1839, Wickliffe succeeded him. During this term, the bubbles of speculation which had been blown began to explode over the country, and the pall of financial distress to spread in Kentucky, as elsewhere. But the most hopeless and desolate period the people of the Commonwealth have ever known was in 1840 and 1841, when, upon the Whig ticket, Robert P. Letcher was made governor, Manlius V. Thomson lieutenant-governor, and James Harlan secretary of state. . . . We quote the passages from Shaler's Kentucky on this interesting period: 'This episode closed the remarkable events in the history of the financial development of the State. From this time on the Commonwealth's banks were singularly sound and efficient institutions. . . . Their strength is so great that although their currency has been destroyed by the laws of the United States, they remain the mainstays of the business of the Kentucky people outside of one or two of the larger cities.' . . . In 1846 Kentucky was called on for a quota of twenty-four hundred men. . . . Governor Owsley, [1844-1848] on the 17th of May, had issued his proclamation to Kentuckians, 'to form themselves into volunteer companies,' and report to him forthwith. In anticipation, the Louisville Legion, commanded by Colonel Ormsby, had organized with nine full companies, and tendered its services to the governor on the 18th, the day following the proclamation. . . . In the . . . year 1848, John J. Crittenden and John L. Helm were elected governor and lieutenant-governor of Kentucky, upon the Whig ticket, over Lazarus W. Powell and John P. Martin, democrats, by an average majority of about eight thousand. In August, 1848, the poll for calling a convention to change the Constitution of Kentucky, resulted in 101,828 votes for, and 39,792 against; and on January 13, 1849, the Legislature passed an act 'To call a convention, at Frankfort, October 1, 1849, to change the Constitution of the State.' On the opening of the campaign for the choice of delegates to this convention, the sentiment for the gradual emancipation of the slaves was called into intense activity. . . . On April 25th, [1849], a State convention . . . was held at Frankfort. It was there resolved that candidates be brought out, in favor: First, of the absolute prohibition of the importation of any more slaves in Kentucky; and, second, of the complete power to enforce and effect, under the new constitution, whenever the people desire it, a system of gradual prospective emancipation of slaves. . . . The result showed practically almost a solid delegation for the pro-slavery party in the convention. . . . Besides, the provisions for changing the new constitution, before very difficult, were now made so complicated that, though repeated efforts have been made, it has been found so far practically impossible to assemble a convention for the purpose. The apprehensions of the possible and dangerous agitations on the questions of the emancipation of the slaves, had much to do with the erection of the barriers to a change. By shaping the law so that the people should be required to continue favorable to a change for a number of years, and finally arrive at a conclusion through a series of legislative acts, and popular elections, in which a majority of both bodies should approve, they secured the instrument from the jeopardy of impulsive public sentiment or hasty action. . . . [In 1850, Governor Crittenden resigned to become attorney-general in the cabinet of President Fillmore and was succeeded by Lieutenant-Governor John LaRue Helm who filled out the term till 1851.] On May 12, 1851, the first election of officers under the new constitution was held. The returns showed that James Simpson, of the First district; Thomas A. Marshall, of the Second; B. Mills Crenshaw, of the Third; and Elijah Hise, of the Fourth, were the successful candidates for the appellate bench, and Philip Swigert clerk of that court. Twelve circuit judges, twelve Commonwealth attorneys, and in each county, a county judge, clerk, attorney, sheriff, jailor, assessor, coroner, surveyor, justices of the peace, and constables were, for the first time in Kentucky history, elected by the people. . . . In the first political State campaign under the new constitution, in 1851, the Emancipation party placed a ticket before the people, with Cassius M. Clay for governor and George N. Blakey for lieutenant-governor. The result of the election was: For governor, Lazarus W. Powell, democrat, 54,613; for Archibold Dixon, whig, 53,763; for Cassius M. Clay, emancipationist, 3,621; for lieutenant-governor, Robert N. Wickliffe, 47,454; John B. Thompson, 53,599; George D. Blakey, 1,670. . . . For governor, in August, 1855, Charles S. Morehead, American, received 69,816 votes, against 65,417 for Beverly L. Clarke, democrat. . . . The entire American, or Know Nothing, State ticket was elected. The Legislature was of like complexion. So intensely bitter were the feelings of the contending parties, that a terrible riot broke out in Louisville on the day of the election, which, for the violence of the mob-spirit and the sanguinary results, caused that day to be known in our history as 'Bloody Monday.' . . . In 1859, one of the most interesting contests which terminated the power and organization of the Whig party in Kentucky was witnessed in the gubernatorial campaign. Beriah Magoffin and Linn Boyd were the chosen nominees of the Democratic party, and Joshua F. Bell and Alfred Allen, of the Whig. The State was thoroughly and ably canvassed, and the candidates were favorites with the respective parties. The sentiment was pervading that the

Democratic party was sound and stable on the slavery question, and that too many elements in the Whig party were in sympathy with the opposition. Nor had the latter party recovered the full confidence of the public, after the demoralizing experience with Know Nothingism, notwithstanding the selection of a candidate for governor, who was possessed of great prestige and popularity, and who was one of the most gifted and brilliant orators of the State. Magoffin and Boyd were elected by majorities approximating nine thousand votes."—Z. F. Smith, *History of Kentucky, pp.* 515-516, 519, 555, 563-564, 577-580, 587-588.

1859-1861.—Change in party names.—Union cause in the state.—"In 1859 Beriah Magoffin was elected Governor by the Democrats over Joshua F. Bell, Opposition. At the same time a Legislature was elected in harmony with the Governor. This Governor and this Legislature were in office when the troubles of 1861 came upon the State and country. . . . In that year, the 'Opposition' party came to be called the 'Union' party, and the Democratic party was known as the 'Southern Rights' party. The latter party maintained its old organization, but on the part of the Unionists there was no organization, and in this respect they were at a disadvantage. The general direction and management of the Union party naturally fell into the hands of those who came to be termed 'Union leaders.' . . . It may be here said of them, that at no time in the history of Kentucky was there within her borders a more illustrious galaxy of patriots and statesmen than those who espoused the Union cause in 1861. They were men of high character, wide reputation, ability, and true worth. They were the thoughtful, calm, and judicial-minded men of the State. Some were old line Whigs, some had been identified with the Democratic party, but at this time all stood together as Unionists, and they were worthy of the position that was accorded to them of 'Union Leaders.' Some eminent men espoused the Southern cause, but if anything can be true in history, it is true that the greater portion of Kentucky's chief citizens in 1861 were Unionists precisely as the great majority of the voters of the State were Unionists. Among the interesting studies sometimes made is that of selecting the names of the twelve greatest Kentuckians. In the lists so prepared the names of the great Unionists of 1861 liberally appear. If an effort should be made to determine who were the twelve most distinguished citizens of Kentucky in 1861, it would not be possible to find any who would be named before John J. Crittenden, James Guthrie, S. S. Nicholas, Chief Justice George Robertson, Robert J. Breckinridge, Charles A. Wickliffe, James Speed, James F. Robinson, Joshua F. Bell, Archibold Dixon, James Harlan, and William H. Wadsworth. Yet when they are named, another twelve appear, of like prominence: Garrett Davis, Joseph Holt, George D. Prentice, John H. Harney, Charles S. Todd, Francis M. Bristow, Joshua F. Speed, Joseph R. Underwood, Thomas L. Crittenden, Judge Henry Pirtle, Curtis F. Burnam, and John B. Huston. Such lists might be repeated many times over, all being Unionists. . . . The work of the Union leaders was beset with difficulties. Opposition to the plans and purposes of the Southern Rights party, which strove to carry Kentucky into secession, had to be made without party organization. The leaders had behind them, as they believed, a majority of the people, but it was not until the voting of 1861 came that they could be assured of that fact. They were on new and untried ground, all through the early months of 1861, and they came upon many uncertainties and many surprises. The struggle, on their part, to save the Union from destruction was unlike anything ever before experienced. Suddenly they found old lines broken up, and from both of the old political parties men were joining hands in a contest that was all new."—T. Speed, *Union cause in Kentucky, pp.* 1-4.

1861 (January-September). — Struggle with secession and its defeat.—"Neutrality" ended.—"In the days when personal leadership was more than it can ever be again, while South Carolina was listening to the teachings of John C. Calhoun, which led her to try the experiment of secession, Kentucky was following Henry Clay, who, though a slave-holder, was a strong Unionist. The practical effect was seen when the crisis came, after he had been in his grave nine years. Governor Beriah Magoffin convened the Legislature in January, 1861, and asked it to organize the militia and buy muskets, and put the State in a condition of armed neutrality; all of which it refused to do. After the fall of Fort Sumter he called the Legislature together again, evidently hoping that the popular excitement would bring them over to his scheme. But the utmost that could be accomplished was the passage of a resolution by the lower house (May 16) declaring that Kentucky should occupy 'a position of strict neutrality,' and approving his refusal to furnish troops for the National army. Thereupon he issued a proclamation (May 20) in which he 'notified and warned all other States, separate or united, especially the United and Confederate States, that I solemnly forbid any movement upon Kentucky soil.' But two days later the Legislature repudiated this interpretation of neutrality, and passed a series of acts intended to prevent any scheme of secession that might be formed. It appropriated $1,000,000 for arms and ammunition, but placed the disbursement of the money and control of the arms in the hands of Commissioners that were all Union men. It amended the militia law so as to require the State Guards to take an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, and finally the Senate passed a resolution declaring that 'Kentucky will not sever connection with the National Government, nor take up arms with either belligerent party.' Lovell H. Rousseau (afterward a gallant General in the National service), speaking in his place in the Senate, said: 'The politicians are having their day; the people will yet have theirs. I have an abiding confidence in the right, and I know that this secession movement is all wrong. There is not a single substantial reason for it; our Government had never oppressed us with a feather's weight.' The Rev. Robert J. Breckinridge and other prominent citzens took a similar stand, and a new Legislature, chosen in August, presented a Union majority of three to one. As a last resort, Governor Magoffin addressed a letter to President Lincoln, requesting that Kentucky's neutrality be respected and the National forces removed from the State. Mr. Lincoln, in refusing his request, courteously reminded him that the force consisted exclusively of Kentuckians, and told him that he had not met any Kentuckian except himself and the messengers that brought his letter who wanted it removed. To strengthen the first argument, Robert Anderson, of Fort Sumter fame, who was a citizen of Kentucky, was made a General and given the command in the State in September. Two months later, a secession convention met at Russellville, in the southern part of the State, organized a provisional government, [with George W. Johnson as governor] and sent a full delegation to the Confederate Congress at Richmond, who found no difficulty in being admitted to seats in that body.

[Kentucky was admitted into the Confederate States, December 10, 1861. Being now firmly supported by the new Legislature, the National Government began to arrest prominent Kentuckians who still advocated secession, whereupon others, including ex-Vice-President John C. Breckinridge, fled southward and entered the service of the Confederacy. Kentucky as a State was saved to the Union, but the line of separation was drawn between her citizens, and she contributed to the ranks of both the great contending armies."—R. Johnson, *Short history of the War of Secession, ch.* 5.

Also in: N. S. Shaler, *Kentucky, ch.* 15.—E. P. Thompson, *History of first Kentucky brigade, ch.* 2.

1861 (April).—Governor Magoffin's reply to President Lincoln's call for troops. See U. S. A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call to arms.

1862.—Division on slavery and secession question. See Border states.

1862 (January-February).—Expulsion of Confederate armies along the whole line. See U. S. A.: 1862 (January-February: Kentucky-Tennessee).

1862 (August-October).—Bragg's invasion.—Buell's pursuit.—Battle of Perryville. See U. S. A.: 1862 (June-October: Tennessee-Kentucky).

1862-1863.—Resignation of Governor Magoffin.—Union sympathy.—"Governor Magoffin, since his refusal to comply with the requisition of the Federal government to furnish troops to be used against the south, had found himself so out of accord with those in authority in the general government as to render his further continuance at the head of the government of Kentucky, intolerable. On August 10, 1862, the governor sent to the general assembly a message tendering his resignation, to take effect on the succeeding 18th of August. In this message the governor said: 'At any time within the last eighteen months, I have been willing to resign my office, could I have done so consistently with my self-respect. But the storms of undeserved abuse which have been heaped upon me, and the threats of impeachment, arrest and even assassination, repeatedly made against me, have compelled me to continue in the quiet discharge of my duties. As yet no one has dared, before any tribunal of authority, to prefer charges against me. My political friends—and by this term, I mean the Southern Rights party, a great many of whom are not and have never been, secessionists—have been subjected to what seems to me, in modern times, an unexampled persecution. It became impossible for me to relieve them, and yet I could not appear to desert them in their need. Could I be assured that my successor would be a conservative, just man, of high position and character, and that his policy would be conciliatory and impartial towards all law-abiding citizens, however they may differ in opinion; that the constitutional rights of the people would be regarded and the subordination of the military to the civil power be insisted on and maintained, I would not hesitate to put aside the cares of office and to tender my best wishes to such an executive. Without a satisfactory assurance to that effect you must admit that, in justice to my friends, I cannot and ought not to resign.' This message from Governor Magoffin brought a new alignment in the senate. Lieutenant Governor Linn Boyd, the president of the senate, chosen at the time of the election of Governor Magoffin, had died and had been succeeded in the presidency of the senate by Senator John F. Fisk. This gentleman, though possessed of many high qualities, was objectionable to many as the successor of Governor Magoffin, should the resignation of the latter be accepted as there was no doubt that it would be. By concert of action between the friends of the governor and those representing opposing opinions Mr. Fisk resigned as president of the senate and was succeeded by Senator James F. Robinson. . . . Governor Magoffin retired as governor and, under the operation of law, Senator Robinson succeeded him. Governor Robinson was in full accord with the Federal government in relation to the war. . . . At the election held in August, 1863, Thomas E. Bramlette was elected governor of Kentucky and Richard T. Jacob, lieutenant governor, each of these gentlemen being the colonel of a volunteer regiment in the Union army."—E. P. Johnson, *History of Kentucky and Kentuckians, v.* 1, *pp.* 337-338, 351.

1863 (July).—John Morgan's raid. See U. S. A.: 1863 (July: Kentucky).

1864-1865.—Enrollment of colored troops.—Thirteenth federal amendment rejected.—"On February the 29th [1864], Provost-Marshal General James B. Fry ordered the enrollment without delay of all colored males of military age, in Kentucky. The enrollment of colored troops was denounced by some of the most active and leading Federal officers in Kentucky. . . . Governor Bramlette, by proclamation, recommended the people to submit quietly to the negro enrollment; and General Burbridge, now in military command, issued a general order for their enlistment, to be sent to camps of instruction and drill outside of the State. On February the 5th, the Legislature passed a resolution of protest against the enlistment of Kentucky negroes. . . . In February [1865], the Thirteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution was presented to the Legislature for action. This amendment provided for the unconditional abolition of slavery within the United States. . . . [It was rejected] both in the Senate and House; in the former, by a vote of twenty-one to thirteen; in the latter, by fifty-six to twenty-eight. . . . On the 11th of March, 1862, the Legislature had passed the expatriation act, requiring that every person who came to the polls to vote should state on oath *'that he has not entered into the service of the Confederate States, nor of the so-called provisional government of Kentucky, in either a civil or a military capacity,'* etc. This law had not been repealed; therefore, Governor Bramlette, on the 22d of July, 1865, preceding the election in August, issued his proclamation to the officers of elections and citizens that it must be enforced. Though it was offered in apology that this would leave the soldiery without any excuse for interfering with this election, the governor was severely censured for his proclamation. The act had been declared unconstitutional by Judges Joseph Doniphan and Richard Apperson, in their respective circuits."—Z. F. Smith, *History of Kentucky, pp.* 651-652, 664, 752.

1865.—Reconciliation of Federal and Confederate soldiers.—"When the war ended, the parties in Kentucky were reorganized on new lines. The conduct of the Republicans in regard to the civil rights of the State during the active period of the struggle, the disgust arising from the emancipation of the slaves without compensation to loyal owners, the acts of the Freedman's Bureau, and other proceedings hostile to the governmental integrity of the State, arrayed an overwhelming majority of the people on the Democratic, which was then the Conservative, side. Perhaps the most satisfactory feature in the close of the Civil War was the really quick restoration of the civil order in the State and the perfect reunion of the divided people. The prompt and complete abrogation of

the severe penalties laid upon the Confederate soldiers and sympathizers greatly contributed to this speedy return to the conditions of peace. In this course the people of Kentucky set an excellent example to the Federal government. By this action they avoided all risks of having a large part of their citizens parted in spirit from the life and work of the Commonwealth. This reconciliation was helped by the fact that both Federals and Confederates had played a manly part in the struggle. Not only had the soldiers on both sides done all in their power to make war decent and honorable, and to lighten its burdens on non-combatants, they could wear their laurels and live their lives together without shame. What was left of the forty thousand who went away into the Southern service came back to their place in the State sadder and wiser men, yet the better citizens for their dearly bought experience. We search in vain for any device of hatred or even dislike among these men who were so lately in arms against each other. In all the walks of life, in the courts and in the legislature, as well as in the relations of kindred, we find these old enemies going together to their work of repairing the ruin that war had brought on the State, fighting at times their battles over again in good natured talk, but each dearer to the other for the fearful parting of the war. The historian will always admire this episode of reconciliation. Something of it is now seen in the wiping out of enmity that came to the whole country after the deplorable reconstruction troubles of the South. In Kentucky, however, it came at once; there was no period of doubt, no hesitation in the return of peace. The spring of 1865 did not quicken the seed in the fields more speedily than it did the affection of these once parted children of Kentucky."—N. S. Shaler, *Pioneer commonwealth, pp.* 386-387).

1867-1895.—Reconstruction.—Fourteenth and fifteenth federal amendments ratified.—Financial condition of the state.—Governors of the period.—"At the opening of the year 1867, it was very obvious that the conservative men of the Union party, forming, perhaps, a majority of the same, had become alienated and intensely hostile to the Republican administration. . . . The attempt, after the war ceased, to dismantle the State government, and to force on the people the odious carpet-bag rule; the establishment in the State of the Freedmen's Bureau, etc., were interrupted by these Union men, who had largely led the Federal cause through the darkest days of its perils and despair, as the wanton infliction of indignities, injuries, and insults, which were not only needless and inexcusable, but cruel and ungrateful. So intense were the feelings of resentment in the loyal masses of Kentucky that an irreconcilable division occurred at the termination of the war, within the ranks of these masses themselves, the Radical element supporting the main policy of the Federal administration, and the Conservative opposing. . . . In 1867, the first elections for congressmen and State officers were to be held since the close of hostilities. For the first time, general disabilities and difficulties were removed from citizens who had returned from Confederate service, and these were permitted the full exercise of the right of suffrage, and of holding offices of state. . . . On the 5th of August [1867], at the regular election for State officers, John L. Helm, Democrat, for governor, received 90,225 votes. . . . These elections determined the status of political parties from 1867 to the present day. . . . On the 3d of September, John L. Helm was inaugurated governor while lying dangerously ill at home, and on the 8th breathed his last. On the 13th John W. Stevenson, lieutenant-governor, was inaugurated governor, at Frankfort, by order of succession. . . . Governor Stevenson, though ever a pronounced friend and advocate of States' rights, limited only by the rights of the Federal Government as defined and expressed in the Constitution, was as firmly oppose to the doctrine of secession and nullification. . . . The fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, defining and conferring citizenship, including the colored race. though rejected by the Legislature of Kentucky, had in 1867 received the requisite vote of the majority of States for its adoption, and in 1869 the fifteenth amendment proposed was also rejected by our Legislature, though it was shortly after ratified by a sufficient number of States to make it the law. . . . On the assembling of the Democratic State Convention, May 3d [1871], P. H. Leslie was nominated for governor and John G. Carlisle for lieutenant-governor, for the regular term of four years. . . . The Democratic ticket was elected by the reduced majorities of about thirty-eight thousand, in consequence of the accession of the colored vote to the Republican ranks, following the adoption of the fifteenth amendment. It was an important episode in the suffrage rights of Kentucky. . . . In the State election for 1875, the Democratic ticket was elected by majorities approximating forty thousand votes: James B. McCreary, for governor, over John M. Harlan, Republican. . . . In the message of Governor McCreary, in December following his inaugural, he made his financial summary showing the entire bonded debt of the State to be only $184,394, all having been redeemed but these. To meet the outstanding indebtedness, the State held $145,559 in the sinking fund, government bonds valued at $246,000, and stocks of the bank of Louisville, the Louisville & Frankfort Railroad Company, and turnpike stocks, together amounting to $350,032, besides a balance in the treasury. The State also owned two hundred and sixty shares of the preferred stock of the Louisville, Cincinnati & Lexington railroad, and 2,178 common shares in the Frankfort & Lexington railroad. There remained unpaid of the war claim against the United States, $248,863. At the beginning of the fiscal year, October 11, 1874, there was a surplus in the treasury of $241,741. The receipts of the year were $1,378,788, and the expenditures, $1,258,925, leaving a balance in the treasury of $361,604. Thus it will be seen that in any year since the close of the war the State has been in a financial condition, with assets abundant to pay off her entire indebtedness, and hold a handsome balance in the treasury; to abolish the sinking-fund machinery, and in future to have all revenues and receipts directed to the payment of the current expenses, a consummation which will await the tardy processes by which the people of the Commonwealth favored themselves with a new and modern State constitution. During this year, 1875, the Appellate Court finally confirmed the sale of the State's large interest in certain turnpike stocks to Baldwin & Co., which was made under an act of the Legislature in 1871, empowering the sinking fund commissioners to so sell and convey. The bids of Baldwin & Co. had been accepted, and other terms complied with by them, but the contract had not been signed nor bond executed. The commissioners, finding the sale too great a sacrifice, refused to complete the contract; hence, the suit, and the result. The Legislature of 1875-76 established a bureau of agriculture, horticulture, and statistics, providing for a commissioner, 'whose duty it shall be to gather information and sta-

tistics upon agriculture, horticulture, and other industrial interests, and to assist and encourage the formation of associations to promote the same, and to make annual reports thereon.' . . . In the State election for 1879, the Democratic ticket was successful by majorities approximating forty-four thousand over the Republican. The National party ticket polled over eighteen thousand votes. Luke P. Blackburn, for governor, was elected over Walter Evans, Republican, and C. W. Cook, National."—Z. F. Smith, *History of Kentucky, pp.* 759-761, 765-767, 773-776.—"Dr. Luke P. Blackburn . . . was swept into office by a sympathetic wave, on account of his professional services to victims of yellow fever, he having bravely gone into the towns in the western part of the state where that dread disease raged most fiercely and given his best services to the sufferers, regardless of himself or the danger which he faced. He was succeeded by Hon. J. Proctor Knott [1883]. . . . He, in turn, was succeeded by Gen. Simon Bolivar Buckner [1887], who, during his term as governor, was honored by his native county of Hart by being elected a delegate to the constitutional convention. . . . He was succeeded as governor by Hon. John Young Brown [1891], who had served in congress and established a reputation for oratory in keeping with his Kentucky birth and training. When the time approached to choose a successor to Governor Brown, the leading Democratic candidate was Hon. P. W. Hardin, who had been the contending candidate against Governor Brown. Mr. Hardin had served for twelve years as attorney general, was a successful political orator in much demand during the campaigns of his party, and had a wide acquaintance in the state. He easily secured the Democratic nomination over Cassius M. Clay, Jr., who had been president of the constitutional convention. The free silver idea was just coming into prominence in 1895, and Mr. Hardin was one of its forceful advocates. Strangely enough, the convention which nominated Mr. Hardin, a strong free-silver man, for governor, gave him as a platform on which to make the contest, a pronounced sound money, or 'Gold Bug' plank. Mr. Hardin accepted the nomination and presumably the platform, but, in the opening address of his campaign, he left no one in doubt as to his opinions—he was in favor of 'the free coinage of silver at a ratio of sixteen to one' and did not care who knew it. There was consternation in the Democratic ranks, and a defeat of the ticket was confidently predicted by all in whose views the virus of free silver had not found lodgement. The Republicans nominated Hon. William O. Bradley, who was easily the most prominent man in the party in the state. . . . After a spirited contest, Mr. Bradley and the entire Republican state ticket were elected."—E. P. Johnson, *History of Kentucky and Kentuckians, v.* 1, *pp.* 508-509.

1895-1900.—Political conflicts.—Election of Taylor as governor.—Assassination of Goebel.—"During the Bradley administration there came strongly to the front in Kentucky a young man of German parentage, a native of Pennsylvania, but reared principally in Kentucky—William Goebel of Covington. . . . Serving in the senate while Mr. Bradley was governor, Mr. Goebel secured the passage by the general assembly of an election bill which met the disapproval of the governor, but was passed over his veto. This bill was objectionable to many Democrats. . . . As the Bradley administration drew to a close, Mr. Goebel announced his candidacy for governor, the principle plank in his personal platform being intense opposition to corporations, the Louisville and Nashville Railroad being one of the chief objects of his denunciation. Opposing Mr. Goebel, were Hon. P. Nat Hardin, who, for the third time, was seeking the nomination, and Hon. W. J. Stone, a one-legged Confederate veteran who had acceptably served several terms in congress. These three came to the Louisville convention with Hardin in the lead in instructed votes, Stone second and Goebel third. The convention which ensued lasted for several days and has passed into unpleasant history as the 'Music Hall Convention' of most unsavory memory. . . . Mr. Goebel, the third man in the contest, was the superior in political shrewdness of his two opponents combined. The chairman was his subservient supporter; he had the committee on credentials under his guidance and swept aside with a wave of his powerful hand, delegations which had been instructed for Hardin or Stone, supplying their places with men of his own choosing. . . . Goebel was nominated. . . . The Republicans nominated for governor, W. S. Taylor, attorney general of the state, who had been elected to that position when Mr. Bradley was chosen as governor. When the thought came to Taylor that he might be nominated for and elected Governor of Kentucky, it is probable that he enjoyed a complete monopoly in that belief. But he had a certain degree of political shrewdness, which was later to utterly fail him in a time of stress and storm. He had been in office for nearly four years and had met at Frankfort during that time the leading men of his party from all sections of the state, and before the real leaders of the party were fully aware of what was going on he had built up a political machine which ultimately led to his nomination for governor, a most unfortunate selection as after events proved. The contest was a close one, and in doubt until the official count was made; and the count showed that Taylor was elected and with him, the entire Republican ticket."—E. P. Johnson, *History of Kentucky and Kentuckians, v.* 1, *pp.* 509-510.—He was inaugurated governor, Dec. 12, 1899. Goebel and his partisans, refusing to accept the decision, determined to unseat Governor Taylor, by authority of the legislature, in which they controlled a considerable majority of votes. The legislature met and organized on the 1st of January, 1900. The governor prepared to defend his possession of the office by summoning troops of the state guard from the strong republican districts of the mountain region, and 1,000 or more armed men arrived in Frankfort on the 25th. As Senator Goebel was walking to the state house, on January 30th, he was shot from one of its windows, by a hidden assassin, receiving a wound from which he died February 3d. The Legislature at once closed its investigation of the election, and voted to recognize the dying William E. Gobel as governor, with J. C. W. Beckham as his lieutenant and the successor to the office in the event of his death. Governor Taylor issued an address to the people of the State, denouncing the murder and enjoining the preservation of order. At the same time he proclaimed an adjournment of the legislature, closed the State House against it, and summoned its members to reassemble on February 6th, not at Frankfort, but at the distant small mountain town of London. Goebel, on his death-bed, took the oath of office, and issued orders dismissing Governor Taylor's adjutant-general, appointing another in his place, and commanding the force at Frankfort to return to their homes. The president of the United States was applied to by Governor Taylor for recognition and support, but decided that he had no authority to interfere. The supporters of Goebel

applied with more effect to the circuit court of Kentucky, which issued a writ enjoining Governor Taylor from the use of armed force to prevent the legislature from meeting. To save the state from actual anarchy and civil war, a conference of leaders in both parties was held at Louisville, February 5, and an agreement reached to withdraw troops from the capital, allow the legislature to meet there, and abide by its action, with promise to repeal the obnoxious election law. Governor Taylor refused acceptance of the agreement. He dismissed the troops, however, on the 12th, and called the legislature to meet at the capital. On the 21st, republican and democratic leaders came to another agreement, that the gubernatorial question should be settled in the courts. This agreement prevailed, and the case, as between Governor Taylor and Governor Beckham (declared to be governor by a majority of the members of the legislature after Governor Goebel's death) was peacefully adjudicated in favor of the latter. The circuit court of the state recognized the legislature's decision of the election as final; the court of appeals, with only one of three republican judges dissenting, did the same, April 6. On April 30 the case was argued, on appeal, before the Supreme Court of the United States, and on May 21st that tribunal decided that it had no jurisdiction. This ended attempts to dispute the authority of Governor Beckham, whose term of office lasted until 1907. Strenuous efforts were being made to implicate Mr. Taylor, as accessory to the murder of Goebel. Several persons had been arrested and put on trial for that crime, including Caleb Powers, the secretary of state in Governor Taylor's fallen government, from the window of whose office it was claimed that the cowardly shot had been fired. The trials were scandalized by confessions of perjury and charges and countercharges of subornation on the part of witnesses. In August, Powers was found guilty and sentenced to imprisonment for life. Subsequently, Henry E. Youtsey received the same sentence, while James Howard was condemned to death. Mr. Taylor, under indictment as an accomplice, had left the state, and a requisition for his rendition was refused by the governor of Indiana, where he sojourned. In October, a new election law was passed by the legislature and signed by the governor. It provides that, of the three state election commissioners, one should be taken from each of the dominant parties, upon the recommendation of the state central committee, and the clerk of the court of appeals, an elective officer, should act as umpire. The commissioners should be appointed by the governor. They appoint the county boards, one from each party, with the sheriff as umpire. All the boards have only ministerial powers, and the law gives the right of appeal in all cases of contests to the courts except in the case of governor and lieutenant-governor, which must be tried by the legislature, as the constitution prescribes. The Goebel law made the boards supreme. The new law also provided for an equitable division of election officers.

1905-1909.—Tobacco farmers' union and its night riders.—"Kentucky has been having an experience unique, costly, tragic, and probably to some extent valuable, with the farmers engaged in the chief agricultural industry of the state—growing tobacco. Some 80,000 of them, representing probably 400,000 of the population of the state, . . . engaged in a union demonstration for the purpose of securing higher pay. The result has been in some sections anarchy, in all great distress. . . . A trust having arisen in New York which was able to control the output, and therefore to make prices to suit itself, the farmers . . . answered this trust by forming under the equity society a union of their own, and going on a strike for higher prices. . . . The union to which I refer is the Burley Tobacco Society, in Kentucky. It is organized to oppose the exactions of the American Tobacco Company of New Jersey. Tobacco is grown in several distinct districts in Kentucky, and there, as elsewhere, each district has, by reason of soil or climate, a virtual monopoly of its own type. Down in the southwestern corner, in the so-called Black Patch, embracing several counties of Tennessee, a dark and heavy leaf is grown and fire-cured for the foreign trade. This is bought by government, or so-styled 'regie' buyers. North of this is a heavy leaf stemmed for the British trade. North and east of this is the region in which a dark air-cured leaf is grown for domestic uses. East of this, embracing all Blue Grass and extending to Maysville, is the Burley district, in which is grown the famous red and white Burley tobacco. . . . Pooling tobacco in Kentucky started down in the Black Patch, or received its greatest impetus there. The regie buyers combined or were formed into a combination by their superiors, and the Patch was districted, each man being given an exclusive territory, and no farmer being allowed to sell to any one but his own buyer. In this way a set price as low as four cents was made, and the farmer had no option but to take it; no option, at least, that was open to the farmer not rich enough to ship his crop to Bremen and seek European competition. In this situation a group of canny planters formed a tight little corporation of $200 capital, for the avowed purpose of holding, handling, buying, and selling tobacco. They induced about a thousand of their neighbors—there are forty thousand dark-tobacco growers in the Patch—to pledge their crops with them, and they planned to hold this much off the market and compel the regie buyers to pay a higher price for it. This proving popular, they soon had five thousand pledges. Then they—or interests closely allied with them—organized a band of Ku-Klux, called Night Riders, who, first by so-called 'peace armies,' and then by raiding at night all who resisted, frightened or forced—during the next three years—all the forty thousand to sign. The tight little corporation thus had a monopoly of the dark tobacco. It forced the regie buyers to pay a price raised by slow degrees to 11 cents round, exacted large commissions and profits,—as much as 1500 per cent a year on the capital,—and . . . [controlled] the Black Patch absolutely. All its pledges expired January, 1909. . . . The success of this Black Patch plan was entirely due to the employment of Night Riders, who correspond to the professional 'sluggers' of a labor union, or the hired assassins of a Black-Hand league."—J. L. Mathews, *Farmers' union and the tobacco pool* (*Atlantic Monthly, Oct.*, 1908).

1907-1917.—Governors and legislation.—In 1907, Augustus E. Willson, was elected governor and was succeeded in 1911 by James B. McCreary, who in turn was followed, 1915, by A. O. Stanley. In 1910, the Sixteenth Amendment (Income tax) was ratified.—"A fairly creditable proportion of the bills introduced into the Kentucky legislature this year [1912] were enacted into laws. Among other things, they embrace bills touching the public health, education, prison and industrial reform. In the matter of public health, probably the most important bill is one creating a tuberculosis commission. . . . The use of the public drinking

cup is forbidden for the first time in the state. Another act regulates the sale of opium, and another forbids the entrance of a person under twenty-one years of age into a saloon, unless accompanied by a parent or guardian. The Vital Statistic Law of the state has been strengthened by provisions providing for such registrars charged with the duty to make complete returns of births and deaths, and report the same to the State Board of Health. Another bill forbids the 'sweating' of prisoners, and prevents the admission as evidence of any statement obtained by such process. Certain labor reforms are made possible by the passage of an act regulating the employment of women. No woman may be employed at any occupation, except domestic service, for more than ten hours a day or sixty hours a week. The work of the labor inspector is made more efficient by an increase in his force. Two inspectors under the law shall be women. After a long struggle, the Legislature has again granted school suffrage to women. The Compulsory Education Law of the state has been strengthened, and provision is made for the use of district school houses out of school hours, making it possible to hold vacation classes, club meetings and other civic and educational assemblies in the buildings. The white slave traffic agitation bore fruit in an act making it a felony for any person to admit to a house of ill fame any female under the age of sixteen years."—H. Flexner, *Social legislation in Kentucky* (*Survey, Sept.* 7, 1912).—During the same year a department of public roads and a board of forestry were created. These were followed in 1916 by an insurance board, an anti-trust law and an act allowing prisoners to work on roads. In 1917 a tax commission was created to frame a new revenue and tax law.

1916.—Illiteracy.—Education.—"The governor of Kentucky, seeing the determined warfare which was being waged against illiteracy, urged in his message to the legislature that an Illiteracy Commission be created to drive illiteracy from the state. The measure creating this commission passed the legislature of 1914 without a dissenting vote, and the seat of the war against illiteracy in Kentucky was transferred from the Court House in the county seat of Rowan to the state capitol at Frankfort. The commission is directing the statewide campaign to remove illiteracy from Kentucky by the time the census of 1920 is taken. One of the first activities of the Illiteracy Commission was to enlist the various organizations in the state to aid the teachers in their warfare on illiteracy. . . . Governor James B. McCreary of Kentucky issued, in September, 1914, the first proclamation against illiteracy in the history of the world, urging all classes to join in the fight. Again, in 1915, he issued a similar proclamation. . . . A galaxy of one hundred and twenty speakers covered the state during the summer of 1915, condemning the evils of illiteracy and advocating moonlight schools as a remedy. These speakers consisted of the governor, state officials, United States senators, congressmen, judges of the court of appeals, circuit judges, prominent educators and club women. Moonlight school graduates have been asked to volunteer to teach at least one to read and write. Individuals and organizations have offered prizes to stimulate teachers in their moonlight school work. . . . The moonlight school curriculum embraces more than reading and writing. It includes arithmetic, history, geography, civics, agriculture, horticulture, home economics and road building."—C. W. Stewart, *Moonlight schools* (*Survey, Jan.* 8, 1916).

1917.—Supreme court decision.—Segregation law invalid.—"Compulsory separation of the negro and white races in residential districts is a violation of the Constitution, the Supreme Court held to-day [Nov. 6, 1917] in an unanimous opinion declaring invalid the Louisville segregation ordinance. The measure, which prohibited persons of either race moving into blocks in which a majority of residents were of the opposite color, is similar to ordinances now in effect in St. Louis, Baltimore, Richmond and many other Southern cities. . . . The court's action was a reversal of the lower court, which held the ordinance to be a reasonable exercise of the State police powers. The ordinance was enacted in 1914 and the case was argued twice in the Supreme Court. Due to the broad questions of social adjustment and its vital relation to future settlements of the race problem throughout the nation, the Louisville case attracted national interest. The case was officially styled Charles H. Buchanan vs. William Warley. Warley was a negro who purchased property from Buchanan, a real estate agent, and then refused to pay for it because he could not live on the property, the majority of residents in the block, being white. Buchanan then attacked the constitutionality of the ordinance."—*Louisville Courier Journal, Nov.* 6, 1917.

1917.—Effects of war-time prohibition.—The passage of the War-time Prohibition Act necessitated radical economic readjustment in Kentucky. "For many years Kentucky has been famous as a whisky-producing State, and the distilling industry was perhaps the most important manufacturing industry within its bounds. In the past few years, however, several distilleries have been forced to suspend operations because of the growth of the prohibition movement. . . . Considerable money is tied up in the liquor business in Kentucky. The brewery interests represent $10,000,000; distilleries are valued at $50,000,000; wholesale liquor firms, $4,000,000; and retail dealers, $1,236,000. This makes a total of $65,736,000. Based on the annual consumption the distillers make on an average 30,000,000 gallons of whisky a year, and obtain four and three-fourths gallons of whisky from a bushel of grain. . . . Millions of bushels of grain which would otherwise be ground up for whisky, will be released for food. How many millions, no one knows, for the manufacture of alcohol for beverage purposes is so closely blended with the production of alcohol for industrial and medicinal purposes that there is no way of determining the exact amount."—*Lexington Herald, Sept.* 7, 1917.

1918-1920.—Part played in the World War.—Legislation.—During the World War the state furnished 75,043 men or 2.02 per cent of the entire expeditionary force. A national army camp, Camp Taylor, was located near Louisville, and an artillery camp at Stithoton.

In 1918, a step was taken in the direction of a budget system by creating an *ex officio* commission on appropriations to consist of the governor and state auditor. The federal prohibition amendment was ratified the same year. In May, 1919, Governor Stanley resigned to take his seat as U. S. Senator and was succeeded as governor by lieutenant-governor J. B. Black, who was defeated in November, by Edwin P. Morrow with a plurality of 40,176. In this year (1919) an amendment was adopted authorizing the legislature to provide for the removal of peace officers for neglect of duty in case of lynching. "The Kentucky legislature at its 1920 session passed an important housing act providing for stringent re-

quirements in regard to fire protection, improvements and sanitation. It was proposed to apply the act to cities of the first four classes, but because of the opposition of the smaller cities, where little educational work had been done, it was made to apply only to first-class cities."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly, 1920, Supplement, pp.* 77, 79.

1919.—**Child welfare legislation.** See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1919.

1920.—**Workmen's compensation law.** See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: United States: 1920.

1921.—**Relations with West Virginia in coal miners' strike.** See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1920-1922: Warfare in West Virginia.

ALSO IN: J. Filson, *Discovery, settlement and present state of Kentucky.*—N. S. Shaler, *Kentucky (American Commonwealth Series).*—J. M. Brown, *Political beginnings of Kentucky.*—H. Marshall, *History of Kentucky.*—M. Butler, *History of Kentucky.*—L. Collins, *History of Kentucky.*—F N. Thorpe, *Federal and state constitutions,* III: 1263-1358.—R. M. McElroy, *Kentucky in the nation's history.*—A. Henderson, *Conquest of the southwest.*—W. A. Pusey, *Wilderness road.*—C. G. Mutzenberg, *Kentucky's famous feuds and tragedies.*

KENTUCKY RESOLUTIONS. See U. S. A.: 1798; KENTUCKY: 1792-1799.

KENYA COLONY, new official title applied by an Order in Council, June, 1920, to the territory formerly known as the East Africa Protectorate. The Colony extends about 400 miles along the coast northwards from Vanga, at the mouth of the Umba, to the Juba river, and inland to the borders of Uganda. It adjoins the Italian and Abyssinian spheres of influence on the north, and former German East Africa on the south. "The Imperial British East Africa Company opened up the country, having in 1887 obtained a concession of territory from the Sultan of Zanzibar, and in 1888 a charter from the British government. An arrangement for buying them out was, however, come to in 1895, and the direct administration of the country was undertaken by his majesty's government; in 1920 the country was annexed as a Crown colony [see BRITISH EAST AFRICA: 1920] and named 'Kenya.' It has an area of 248,000 square miles, with a population estimated at 2,785,000, including 5,362 Europeans. On the coast Arabs and Swahilis predominate; further inland are races speaking Bantu languages, and non-Bantu tribes, such as the Masai, the Somalis, and the Gallas. The prevailing religious beliefs are Pagan, but on the coast Mohammedanism has made great strides."—*New Hazell Annual and Almanack,* 1921, *p.* 479.—"The new name chosen, Kenia or Kenya—is that of the great volcanic, glacier-clad mountain—one of the wonder mountains of Africa—which rises to a height of 17,000 feet midway between the Indian ocean and the Uganda Protectorate."—*New York Times Current History, Oct.,* 1920, *p.* 25.—The sultan of Zanzibar's coast dominions retain the political status of a protectorate, under the style of the Kenya Protectorate. The so-called Uganda railway runs through the colony and connects Mombasa on the coast with Port Florence on Lake Victoria Nyanza. The territory is administered by a governor and commander-in-chief, who has the advice of legislative and executive councils. The capital is Nairobi. The imperial government in 1911 granted a loan to the colony of £250,000 for the construction of small light railways between Nairobi and the Thika river, the improvement of harbor facilities at Kilindini, and the Mombasa water supply. In 1912 another loan of £375,000 was made for the development of the Uganda railway, and a further loan of £1,868,000 in 1915 for the general improvement and development of the country. In 1922, the colonial office issued a loan for £5,000,000 to be used mainly for construction of the Vasin Gishu railway, and a deep water pier at Kilindini Harbor, Mombasa.

"For a long time back there had been close and intimate communication between India and East Africa, and Sir H. Johnston, in his memorable report, had called the latter 'the America of the Hindu.' It is possible that, had Indian political consciousness been as fully developed twenty years ago as it is to-day, an attempt might have been made to make British East Africa an Indian province. But, afterwards, the Uganda Railway opened the way for white colonization, and the settlers, amongst whom were many South Africans, were unwilling to stand on an equality with Indian fellow-subjects. In 1907 the Governor suggested that the Highlands should receive different treatment, and that, outside them, Indian immigration should be encouraged. The home Government expressed its agreement, though the exclusion of Indians from the Highlands must be a matter of administration and not a restriction imposed by law. But the Indians are by no means content with this compromise. There is, it would seem, a certain note of exaggeration in arguments, such as that of the Aga Khan, when he insists that Indians 'constructed the railway from the coast to the Lake Victoria Nyanza.' . . . The part played by the Indian was merely that of the unskilled day labourer. However natural is the indignation aroused in the minds of patriotic Indians by the determination, acquiesced in by the British Government, not to tolerate the presence of Indians amongst the landowners of the Highlands, still we must recognize that the existence of the two races side by side would inevitably lead to results such as have written such a gloomy page in the history of South Africa."—H. E. Egerton, *British colonial policy in the 20th century, pp.* 207-208.—See also SOMALILAND; ZANZIBAR; WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a; 1917: VII. East African campaign: a.

KENYER-MESO, Battle of (1479). See HUNGARY: 1471-1487.

KENYON, Charles Arthur (1880-), American dramatist. See DRAMA: 1865-1913.

KENYON COLLEGE, Episcopal college in Gambier, Ohio, founded in 1824. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1769-1884.

KEOWA INDIANS. See OKLAHOMA: 1824-1837.

KEPLER, Johann (1571-1630), German astronomer. See ASTRONOMY: A.D. 130-1609; EUROPE: Modern: Revolutionary period; INVENTIONS: 16th-17th centuries: Instruments.

KEPPEL FAMILY. See ALBEMARLE, EARLS AND DUKES OF.

KERAI, Japanese term for vassal. See JAPAN: 1159-1199.

KERAIT, tribe in central Asia. See PRESTER JOHN, KINGDOM OF.

KERALA, region in southern India. See INDIA: 647-1310.

KERAMEIKOS. See CERAMICUS OF ATHENS.

KERBELA, city of Asiatic Turkey about fifty-five miles northwest of Bagdad. It is the trade-center for northeast Arabia, and the starting point of the Meccan pilgrimage. It is occupied chiefly by Persian Mohammedans of the Shiite branch, and is held especially sacred by them, for it contains a large shrine with the tomb of Hosein the martyr, son of Ali and grandson of Mohammed,

who was slain here while defending his right to the caliphate.—See also CALIPHATE: 680.

KERENSKY, Alexander Feodorovich (b. 1881), Russian statesman. Elected to the fourth Duma, 1912; minister of justice and premier in the first revolutionary government, July-November, 1917; but forced out of office by the Bolsheviki in November of the same year.—See also RUSSIA: 1914 (August): Declaration of war; 1917 (July); (August-September); (October-November); WORLD WAR: 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: i, 1; n; p.

KERESAN FAMILY.—"The . . . pueblos of Keresan stock . . . are situated in New Mexico on the upper Rio Grande, on several of its small western affluents, and on the Jemez and San José, which also are tributaries of the Rio Grande."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology, p.* 83. See PUEBLO.

KERESTES, or Cerestes, Battle of (1596). See HUNGARY: 1595-1606.

KERIND, village in northwestern Persia, occupied by the Russians in 1916 of the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 5.

KERMADEC, small group of islands in the Pacific. See NEW ZEALAND: Geographical description.

KERMANSHAH, city of Persia, captured by the Russians in the World War, 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VII. Persia and Germany; 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 4; d, 7.

KERMENT, Battle of (1664). See HUNGARY: 1660-1664.

KERNE, disinherited family of Ireland. See RAPPAREES.

KERNSTOWN, Battles of. See U.S.A.: 1861-1862 (December-April: Virginia); 1864 (July: Virginia-Maryland).

KERYKES, Greek family. See PHYLÆ.

KESSELSDORF, Battle of (1745). See AUSTRIA: 1744-1745.

KET, or Kett, Robert (d. 1549), English rebel. See CAMBRIDGE: Later history.

KETANS, early Manchurian tribe. See MANCHURIA: Early history.

KETZER, German word for heretic, derived from Cathari. See CATHARI.

KEY, Ellen (Karolina Sophia) (1849-), Swedish social and ethical writer. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1867-1921; SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: Germany: 1870-1914.

KEY WEST, city, port of entry and naval station in Florida on Key West island. It is the most southern part of eastern United States and connected with the mainland by a railroad. See RAILROADS: 1912-1915.

KEYES, Sir Roger (John Bronlow) (b. 1872), British admiral. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: a, 1.

KEYNTON, or Edgehill, Battle of. See ENGLAND: 1642 (October-December).

KEYSERWERTH, Siege and storming of (1702). See NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704.

KHABAROVSK, capital of the province of Amur, Siberia. During the World War it was occupied by the Allies. See WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: e, 1.

KHAGAN. See KHAN.

KHAHREZMIAN. See KHUAREZM.

KHAIREDDIN BARBAROSSA. See KHIZR BARBAROSSA.

KHAJAR DYNASTY. See PERSIA: 1499-1887.

KHAKAN. See KHAN.

KHAKI, heavy cotton cloth, usually tan-colored, used for summer uniforms by the American and British armies. The word is from the Persian, meaning dust. The term is not correctly applied to the olive-drab uniforms worn in cold weather, during time of war. These are called "O. D." from their color.

KHALDUN. See IBN KHALDUN.

KHALIF. See CALIPH.

KHALIFA, THE (Abdullah et Taaisha) (1846-1899), Arab commander of the Dervishes, who succeeded the Mahdi and practically ruled in the Egyptian Sudan, 1885-1898. See EGYPT: 1885-1896; 1897-1898; 1899-1900.

KHALIFAT AGITATION, India (1921). See INDIA: 1921-1922.

KHALIFAT ASSOCIATION, India. See INDIA: 1907-1921.

KHALIFATE. See CALIPHATE.

KHALSA, religious brotherhood of warriors in India. See SIKHS; INDIA: 1836-1845; 1845-1849.

KHAMMURABI. See HAMMURABI.

KHAN, KHAGAN.—"'Khan' is the modern contracted form of the word which is found in the middle ages as 'Khagan,' or 'Chagan,' and in the Persian and Arabic writers as 'Khakan' or 'Khacan.' Its original root is probably the 'Khak,' which meant 'King' in ancient Susianian, in Ethiopic ('Tirhakah'), and in Egyptian ('Hyk-sos')."—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy, ch.* 14, *foot-note.*

KHAN DIKERIN, village in Syria, taken by the British during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 4.

KHANIKIN, town of Mesopotamia on the Persian border. During the World War it was the scene of frequent fighting between the Turks and a force of Russian cavalry. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 5; d, 7; 1917: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1, v.

KHAR, or Kharu.—"The term Khar in Egyptian texts appears to apply to the inhabitants of that part of Syria generally known as Phœnicia, and seems to be derived from the Semitic Akharu, 'the back' or 'west.'"—C. R. Conder, *Syrian stone lore, ch.* 1.

KHARBIN. See HARBIN.

KHAREJITES.—A democratic party among the Mahometans which first took form during the Caliphate of Ali, 657. The name given to the party, Kharejites, signified those who "go forth"—that is, in secession and rebellion. It was their political creed that, "believers being absolutely equal, there should be no Caliph, nor oath of allegiance sworn to any man; but that the government should be in the hands of a Council of State elected by the people." Ali attacked and dispersed the Kharejites, in a battle at Nehrwan, 658; but they continued for a long period to give trouble to succeeding Caliphs.—W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate, ch.* 40, 42, *with foot-note.*

KHARKOV, capital of a province of the same name in Russia about 250 miles east of Kiev. It was captured by the Bolsheviki in 1919. See RUSSIA: 1918-1920.

Agricultural school. See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Russia.

KHARTUM, Africa, one of the thirteen provinces, and capital of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, situated on the left bank of the Blue Nile, just before it joins the White Nile, 134 miles south of Cairo. (See AFRICA: Map.) The city is admirably situated for a commercial and political center, and is the great entrepôt of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. In it are the Gordon Memorial College and the affiliated Wellcome Tropical Research Laboratories, the most important educational institutions in the Sudan. The population,

1917, of about 23,000, is heterogeneous; the officials are British and Egyptian, the traders chiefly Greeks, Syrians, and Copts; and the Arabs and negroes include members of all the Sudanese tribes. In 1885 the city was largely destroyed by the Mahdists, who besieged and captured it while occupied by General Gordon and an Egyptian army. The Mahdists then abandoned the city and made Omdurman (opposite Khartum on the left bank of the White Nile), their headquarters, until the reconquest of the Sudan by General (afterward Lord) Kitchener with an Anglo-Egyptian army on September 2, 1898, when the government moved back to Khartum. The river front is unusually beautiful; no commercial buildings are allowed to encroach upon it.—See also Egypt: 1870-1883; 1884-1885; 1885-1896; 1897-1898; Sudan: 1907.

KHATTA, or Khita. See Hittites.

KHAYYAM, OMAR. See Omar Khayyam.

KHAZARS, Chazars, or Khozars.—"This important people, now heard of for the first time in Persian history [late in the fifth century of the Christian era], appears to have occupied, in the reign of Kobad, the steppe country between the Wolga and the Don, whence they made raids through the passes of the Caucasus into the fertile provinces of Iberia, Albania, and Armenia. Whether they were Turks, as is generally believed, or Circassians, as has been ingeniously argued by a living writer [H. H. Howorth], is doubtful; but we cannot be mistaken in regarding them as at this time a race of fierce and terrible barbarians."—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy, ch.* 18.—"After the fall of the Persian empire [see Caliphate: 632-651], they [the Khazars, or Chazars] crossed the Caucasus, invaded Armenia, and conquered the Crimean peninsula, which bore the name of Chazaria for some time. The Byzantine emperors trembled at the name of the Chazars, and flattered them, and paid them a tribute, in order to restrain their lust after the booty of Constantinople. The Bulgarians, and other tribes, were the vassals of the Chazars, and the people of Kiev (Russians) on the Dnieper were obliged to furnish them every year with a sword, and fine skins from every fur-hunt. With the Arabs, whose near neighbours they gradually became, they carried on terrible wars. Like their neighbours, the Bulgarians and the Russians, the Chazars professed a coarse religion, which was combined with sensuality and lewdness. The Chazars became acquainted with Islamism and Christianity through the Arabs and Greeks. . . . There were also Jews in the land of the Chazars; they were some of the fugitives who had escaped (723) the mania for conversion which possessed the Byzantine Emperor Leo. . . . As interpreters or merchants, physicians or counsellors, the Jews were known and beloved by the Chazarian court, and they inspired the warlike Bulan with a love of Judaism. . . . It is possible that the circumstances under which the Chazars embraced Judaism have been embellished by legend, but the fact itself is too definitely proved on all sides to allow of there being any doubt as to its reality. Besides Bulan, the nobles of his kingdom, numbering nearly 4,000, adopted the Jewish religion. Little by little it made its way among the people, so that most of the inhabitants of the towns of the Chazarian kingdom were Jews. . . . A successor of Bulan, who bore the Hebrew name of Obadiah, was the first to occupy himself earnestly with the Jewish religion. He . . . founded synagogues and schools. . . . After Obadiah came a long series of Jewish Chagans, for according to a fundamental law of the state only Jewish rulers were permitted to ascend the throne."—H. Graetz, *History of the Jews, v.* 3, *ch.* 5.

KHEDIVE, Persian word implying sovereignty. The title was granted in 1867 by the sultan to Ismail Pasha, the viceroy of Egypt, and his successors. It was abolished by the British government at the entrance of Turkey into the World War.—See also Egypt: 1840-1869; 1914: World War.

KHELAT. See Kalat.

KHEMI, ancient name for Egypt. See Egypt: Names.

KHEPER, Egyptian god. See Mythology: Egyptian.

KHEVENHÜLLER, Ludwig Andreas (1683-1744), Austrian field-marshal. See Austria: 1741 (October); 1742 (January-May).

KHITAI, ancient name for China. See China: Names of the country; Cathay.

KHIVA. See Khuarezm.

KHIZR BARBAROSSA (Khair-ed-Din, or Hayradin) (d. 1546), Turkish admiral and sea rover. See Barbary states: 1516-1535.

KHMELNITSKI, or Chmielnicki, Bogdan (c. 1593-1657), hetman of the Cossacks. See Poland: 1648-1654; Ukraine: 1340-1654.

KHOCHIM. See Khotin.

KHODYA, name for the tutor to the sultan. See Sublime Porte.

KHODYNSKA FIELD, Tragedy of (1896). See Russia: 1896 (May-June).

KHOKAND, former khanate of Turkestan, Asiatic Russia. See Russia: 1859-1881; Yakub Beg.

KHOMYAKOV, Aleksey Stepanovitch (1804-1860), Russian poet. See Russian literature: 1836-1859; 1855-1889.

KHONDS, Asiatic tribe. See Turanian races and languages.

KHORASAN, or Khorassan, northeastern province of Persia, bordering on the Russian Transcaspian territory on the northeast, and Afghanistan on the east. See Afghanistan: Name.

1220-1221.—Conquest and destruction by Mongols.—In the autumn of 1220, one division of the armies of Jingis Khan, commanded by his son Tului, poured into Khorassan. "Khorassan was then one of the richest and most prosperous regions on the earth's surface; its towns were very thickly inhabited, and it was the first and most powerful province of Persia. The Mongol invasion altered all this, and the fearful ravage and destruction then committed is almost incredible." On the capture of the city of Nessa the inhabitants were tied together with cords and then massacred in a body—70,000 men, women and children together—by shooting them with arrows. At Meru (modern Merv) the wholesale massacre was repeated on a vastly larger scale, the corpses numbering 700,000, according to one account, 1,300,000 according to another. Even this was exceeded at Nishapoor ("city of Sapor"), the ancient capital of Khorassan. "To prevent the living hiding beneath the dead, Tului ordered every head to be cut off, and separate heaps to be made of men's, women's, and children's heads. The destruction of the city occupied fifteen days; it was razed to the ground, and its site was sown with barley; only 400 artisans escaped, and they were transported into the north. According to Mirkhond 1,747,000 men lost their lives in this massacre." The destroying army of demons and savages moved on to Herat, then a beautiful city surrounded by villages and gardens. It surrendered, and only 12,000 of its soldiers were slain at that time; but a few months later, upon news of a defeat suf-

fered by the Mongols, Herat rebelled, and brought down upon itself a most terrible doom. Captured once more, after a siege of six months, the city experienced no mercy. "For a whole week the Mongols ceased not to kill, burn, and destroy, and it is said that 1,600,000 people were killed; the place was entirely depopulated and made desert." At Bamian, in the Hindu Kush, "every living creature, including animals and plants as well as human beings, was destroyed; a heap of slain was piled up like a mountain."—H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols, pt.* 1, *pp.* 86-91.

1380.—**Conquest by Timur.** See TIMUR.

KHORSABAD, Turkish village, twenty miles north of ancient Nineveh. It is built on the site of "Dur-Sharrukin," the city of Sargon. See ASSYRIA: Art and archæological remains.

KHOSRU II (d. 628), king of Persia, 590-628. See EGYPT: 616-628.

KHOTAN, town in the southern part of East Turkestan, China. In medieval times it was of great commercial importance. See COMMERCE: Medieval: 5th-8th centuries.

KHOTIN, Khochim or Chotin, city in Bessarabia, Rumania.

1621.—**Defeat of Turks by Poles.** See POLAND: 1590-1648.

1673.—**Defeat of Turks by Poles.** See POLAND: 1668-1696.

1739.—**Captured by Russians.** See RUSSIA: 1734-1740.

1768.—**Loss by Turks to Russians.** See TURKEY: 1768-1774.

KHOULIKOF, Battle of (1383). See RUSSIA: 1350-1480.

KHOZARS. See KHAZARS.

KHUAREZM, or Chorasmia.—"The extensive and fertile oasis in the midst of the sandy deserts of Central Asia, known in these days as the Khanat of Khiva [see ASIA: Map] was called by the Greeks Chorasmia and by the Arabs Khwarezm [or Khuarezm]. The Chorasmians were of the Aryan race, and their contingent to the army of Xerxes was equipped precisely in the Bactrian fashion. It is probable that Chorasmia formed a portion of the short-lived Greco-Bactrian monarchy, and it certainly passed under the domination of the White Huns, from whom it was subsequently wrested by the Toorks."—J. Hutton, *Central Asia, ch.* 10.—See also JERUSALEM: 1244.

12th century.—Khuarezmian, Khahrezmian, Korasmian, or Carizmian empire.—"The sovereigns of Persia were in the habit of purchasing young Turks, who were captured by the various frontier tribes in their mutual struggles, and employing them in their service. They generally had a body guard formed of them, and many of them were enfranchised and rose to posts of high influence, and in many cases supplanted their masters. The founder of the Khuarezmian power was such a slave, named Nushtekin, in the service of the Seljuk Sultan Malik Shah. He rose to the position of a Teshtedar or chamberlain, which carried with it the government of the province of Khuarezm, that is of the fertile valley of the Oxus and the wide steppes on either side of it, bounded on the west by the Caspian and on the east by Bukharia." The grandson of Nushtekin became virtually independent of the Seljuk sultan, and the two next succeeding princes began and completed the overthrow of the Seljuk throne. The last Seljuk sultan, Togrul III, was slain in battle, 1193, by Takish or Tokush, the Khuarezmian ruler, who sent his head to the caliph at Bagdad and was formally invested by the caliph with the sovereignty of Khorassan, Irak Adjem and other parts of the Persian domain not occupied by the Atabegs and the Assassins. Takish's son extended his conquests in Transoxiana and Turkestan (1209), and acquired Samarkand, which he made his capital. "He controlled an army of 400,000 men, and his dominions, at the invasion of the Mongols, stretched from the Jaxartes to the Persian Gulf, and from the Indus to the Irak Arab and Azerbaidjan."—H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols, pt.* 1, *pp.* 7-8.

1220.—**Destruction by the Mongols.**—In May, 1220, the Mongol army of Jingis Khan marched upon Urgendj, or Khuarezm—the original capital of the empire of Khuarezm, to which it gave its name. That city, which is represented by the modern Khiva, was "the capital of the rich cluster of cities that then bordered the Oxus, a river very like the Nile in forming a strip of green across two sandy deserts which bound it on either hand." The Mongols were commanded, at first, by the three elder sons of Jingis Khan; but two of them quarreled, and the siege was protracted through six months without much progress being made. Jingis then placed the youngest son, Ogotai, in charge of operations, and they were carried forward more vigorously. "The Mongols at length assaulted the town, fired its buildings with naphtha, and after seven days of desperate street-fighting captured it. This was probably in December, 1220. They sent the artisans and skilled workmen into Tartary, set aside the young women and children as slaves, and then made a general massacre of the rest of the inhabitants. They destroyed the city, and then submerged it by opening the dykes of the Oxus. The ruins are probably those now known as Old Urgendj. Raschid says that over 100,000 artisans and craftsmen were sent into Mongolia."—H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols, pt.* 1, *p.* 85.—See also MONGOLIA: 1153-1227.

ALSO IN: J. Hutton, *Central Asia, ch.* 4.

1378.—**Conquered by Timur.** See TIMUR.

1873.—**Conquest by Russians.** See RUSSIA: 1859-1881.

KHUEN-HEDERVARY, Karoly, Count (1849-1914), Hungarian statesman and ban of Croatia. See HUNGARY: 1897-1910; JUGO-SLAVIA: 1868-1917.

KHUFU, Egyptian form of the name Cheops. He was the second king of the fourth Egyptian dynasty, and the builder of the great pyramid.—See also EGYPT: Old empire and the middle empire.

KHURSHID, or Khorshid, Turkish pasha in Egypt. See EGYPT: 1803-1811.

KHYBER PASS.—"Khyber Pass, from the time of Alexander the Great, has been noted as the great military and trade gateway into India from the Asiatic countries to the west. The pass begins near Jamrud in India, 10½ miles west of Peshawar, and twists through the hills for about 33 miles in a northwesterly direction until it debouches at Dakka, in Afghanistan. . . . The plains of Peshawar district stretch from the eastern mouth of the pass, and those of Jellalabad, in Afghanistan, from the western. The entire distance between Peshawar and Kabul is about 180 miles. The pass is strongly fortified by the British Government, and ordinary visitors who may wish to view it can only do so by obtaining a permit from the Khyber political agent, and then they can go only as far as Ali Masjid. . . . This pass is under special guard by the Afridi tribesmen who inhabit the surrounding mountains and receive a special subsidy from the Government of India for the protection afforded. The trade is borne on camels or mules which travel in caravans,

but during the extremely hot summer months, when the temperature over a good portion of this trade route is as high as 118 degrees in the shade, it is found that mules endure the heat and hard work much better than camels. . . . The morning hours are reserved for traffic into Afghanistan, and the afternoon hours for traffic the other way, and by evening all traffic is obliged by the military regulations to be well out of the pass. Just beyond the Afghanistan line the road is said to be most difficult, and sometimes in bad weather heavy loads may be stuck in the mud for some days. Elephants are much used on the Afghanistan side for transport of specially heavy loads, such as machinery. Under good conditions the best pack horses can not make the distance of 180 miles between Peshawar and Kabul in less than 7 days, and ordinary traffic usually requires about 14 days."—H. D. Baker, *British India, pp.* 542-543.—"The Khyber Pass is one of the historic spots of the world, one of those unhappy places which, like Belgium, have had too much history. From the beginning of man's era upon earth it has been the main avenue of inrush upon India; it has seen so much of slaughter that the very stones which speckle its arid hillsides might be the bones of dead men. There are many men to whom India has meant just the Khyber, and Khyber and all its puzzling perplexities, and there are men, servants of the Empire, living hard and perilous lives, to whom it is so even yet. . . . The great River Indus hereabouts runs almost due north and south, and the Kabul River, coming from the west out of Afghanistan, cuts into it at right angles. The latter runs close to and in line with the Khyber Pass itself, and Peshawar stands hard by it. Then, the huge masses of the Hindu Koosh turn abruptly south, leaving a sort of re-entrant angle on a projecting tongue of low ground whose tip is in the Khyber Pass itself. Thereafter they run down due south as far as the seaboard, assuming the name of the Suleiman range and hedging in India completely on the west. The Indus River runs all the way right at their feet to the India side of them, so that the whole forms a vast natural fortification of a wall and ditch. When an invader has forced the passes he has still had to make good the passage of the broad Indus stream, and its banks have witnessed not a few desperate battles accordingly. Thus presented, the line of the frontier is simple, but it has to be remembered that about its confrontation with Afghanistan it runs into many recessions, and its outline is like that of a broken coast. Moreover, the area is vast and the country itself a chaotic mass of mountains and hills. Such a country was difficult to subdue or to hold in the old days, entailing a great multiplication of troops to keep watch in the numerous valleys. With aeroplanes and wireless the task of intelligence work will be much simplified, and mechanical transport will facilitate the movements of troops even over these trackless wastes."—A. W. Howlett, *Khyber Pass* (*Living Age, July* 5, 1919).

KIAMIL PASHA (1826-1913), Turkish statesman. Successively minister of the interior, pious foundations, instruction and justice, 1878-1885; grand vizier, 1885-1891, 1898, 1908-1909, 1912-1913; shortly after second appointment as grand vizier was made governor of Aleppo and later of Smyrna. See Turkey: 1908; 1909 (May-December).

KIANG-HUNG, former semi-independent territory on the Mekong river south of China proper. In 1895 the eastern section was ceded to France and now forms a part of northern Indo-China.—See also China: 1894-1895 (March-July).

KIANGSU, province of China, on the Yellow sea, south of Shantung. On July 26, 1896, a tidal wave, 5 miles in width, inundated the coast of Kiangsu, destroying many villages and more than 4,000 inhabitants.

KIAO-CHAU, or Kiao-chow, district, bay and city of the same name, on the south side of the Chinese promontory of Shantung. (See China: Map.) The district has an area of 400 square miles, of which 200 square miles are occupied by the bay. The population in 1922 was about 227,000. Tsing-tau is the chief port of the district.

1897.—Seizure by Germany. See China: 1897 (November); Germany: 1897 (November-December).

1898.—Leased to Germany.—German protectorate.—March 6, 1898, the harbor, town and district were transferred to Germany by treaty on a 99 years' lease, and on April 27th of the same year the entire territory was declared a protectorate of the German nation.

1899.—Cost of maintenance. See Germany: 1899 (June).

1914.—Seized by Japanese and British troops.—Administered by Japan. See Japan: 1914-1918: In the World War; World War: 1914: V. Japan: d; d, 1; d, 2.

1915.—Restored to China. See China: 1915.

1919.—German claims renounced in favor of Japan. See Versailles, Treaty of: Part IV: Section VIII; China: 1919: Shantung controversy.

1922.—Returned to China. See Japan: 1922 (December); Washington conference.

KICHES, tribe of American Indians. See Mayas.

KICKAPOOS, tribe of American Indians. See Algonquian family; Indians, American: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern woodlands area; Pawnee family; Sacs, Foxes, etc.

KIDD, Captain William (c. 1645-1701), notorious British buccaneer. See Virginia: 1684-1699.

KIDETE, Battle at. See World War: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 15.

KIEF. See Kiev.

KIEFT, Willem (d. 1647), director-general of New Netherland, 1638-1647. See New York: 1638-1647.

KIEL, city in Prussia, seventy miles north of Hamburg, on a bay of the Baltic sea. (See Germany: Map.) It is an important German naval station and the eastern terminus of the Kaiser Wilhelm or Kiel canal.

Treaty of (1814).—**Dealt with at conference of Aix-la-Chapelle** (1818). See Sweden: 1813-1814; Aix-la-Chapelle; Congresses: 3.

Mutiny against Kaiser Wilhelm II. See Germany: 1918 (November).

KIEL CANAL. See Kaiser Wilhelm ship canal.

KIEL CANAL CONTROVERSY. See Germany: 1922 (September-November).

K'IEN-LUNG (Ch'ien-lung) (1710-1799), fourth emperor of the Ta Tsing dynasty of China, 1736-1796. Maintained his empire at its height of power and extent; was a great patron of art and letters, and himself a voluminous poet.—See also China: 1662-1838.

KIENNING, town in China near Foochow. Anti-missionary riots took place here in 1899. See China: 1899.

KIENTHAL CONFERENCE.—"Early in 1916 there was held a Socialist 'International' Conference at Kienthal, Switzerland, in which a

few members of the French Chamber of Deputies and the editor of the German paper *Vorwärts* and Herr Fleissmann of the Reichstag took part. The proceedings were secret, but the French deputies . . . [afterwards showed] themselves favorable to peace. The French Socialist party declared in May, 1916, that it had not authorized any members to act as delegates."—*War cyclopedia, p.* 144.

KIERAN, Saint. See CIARAN.

KIEV, or Kief, capital of a government of the same name in the Ukraine, situated on the right bank of the Dnieper. (See RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the new border states.) "The mother of Russian cities" is still famous for its old monastery and churches. Among its principal industries are milling, sugar refining and distilling. The city deals largely in grain, live stock and timber, and is one of the chief centers of the Russian beet sugar trade. The population of the government on January 1, 1915 was 4,988,000, of whom 610,190 lived in the city.

862.—Founding. See RUSSIA: 9th-12th centuries.

882.—Capital of the Russian state. See RUSSIA: 865-941.

9th-10th centuries.—Importance. See UKRAINE: Origin of the people.

10th century-1243.—Center of Christianity in Russia. See CHRISTIANITY: 10th-18th centuries.

1054-1169.—Disintegration and fall. See RUSSIA: 1054-1169; 1054-1237.

1240.—Destroyed by the Mongols.—In December, 1240, the Mongols, pursuing their devastating march through Russia, reached Kiev. "It had latterly, namely, in 1204, suffered from the internal broils of the Russian princes, and had been much plundered and burnt. It was now to be for a while erased altogether." Kiev was taken by storm and the inhabitants "slaughtered without mercy; the very bones were torn from the tombs and trampled under the horses' hoofs. . . . The magnificent city, with the ancient Byzantine treasures which it contained, was destroyed."—H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols, v.* 1, *pp.* 141-142.—See also RUSSIA: 1237-1294.

1320.—Incorporation in Lithuania.—Kiev became a part of Lithuania and soon after its prosperity began to return.

1350-1400.—Dissolution. See RUSSIA: 1350-1480.

1499.—Grant of municipal privileges.—Becomes Jewish center.—Important municipal privileges were conferred upon the city which gave it a measure of local independence while already it was becoming an important Jewish center.

1569.—Under Polish rule.—With the Union of Lublin, Lithuania and Poland, Kiev passed under Polish rule. See POLAND: 1569.

1668.—Annexed to Russia. See RUSSIA: 1645-1676.

1846.—Guild of Cyril and Methodius. See UKRAINE: 1795-1860.

1900-1901.—University riots. See RUSSIA: 1900-1901.

1905.—Massacre of the Jews. See RUSSIA: 1905 (November-December).

1913.—Beiliss case. See BEILISS CASE; JEWS: Russia: 1817-1913.

1918.—Retreat of Czecho-Slovakian army.—German occupation. See WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: a, 1.

1919.—Pogrom. See JEWS: Russia: UKRAINE.

1919-1920.—Scene of fighting.—The city changed hands several times during the struggle among the Ukrainians (led by Petlura), the Poles, and the Bolsheviki. See RUSSIA: 1918-1920; POLAND: 1919-1920: War with Russia.

KIEV CYCLE. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 9th-14th centuries.

KIEV RADA, constituent assembly. See RUSSIA: 1917 (November-December).

KIGALI, town in Belgian Congo. It was occupied by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 12.

KIGOMA, town in Belgian Congo. It was occupied by the Belgians in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 14.

KILDARE, Gerald Fitzgerald, 8th Earl of (d. 1513), viceroy of Ireland. See IRELAND: 1485-1509; GERALDINES.

KILDARE, Gerald Fitzgerald, 9th Earl of (1487-1534), lord deputy of Ireland, 1513-1534. See IRELAND: 1513-1535; GERALDINES.

KILDARE, "Silken Thomas" Fitzgerald, 10th Earl of. See FITZGERALD, LORD THOMAS.

KILDARE, county in Ireland. See IRELAND: 1327-1367.

KILIDSCH, symbol of investment used by Turkish Timarli or fief holders. See TIMAR.

KILIKIA. See CILICIA.

KILIMANJARO, district of East Africa. It was occupied by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a; a, 1; a, 6.

KILKENNY, capital of the county of the same name, Ireland, situated on the Nore, eighty-one miles south-southwest of Dublin. See IRELAND: Historical map.

1341.—Irish parliament summoned. See IRELAND: 1327-1367.

1649.—Taken by Cromwell. See IRELAND: 1649-1650.

KILKENNY, Statute of (1367). See IRELAND: 1327, 1367.

KILKENNY ARTICLES. See IRELAND: 1652.

KILLIECRANKIE, Battle of (1689). See SCOTLAND: 1689 (July).

KILLIS, town in Syria. It was granted to Turkey by the Franco-Turkish Treaty in 1921. See TURKEY: 1921 (March-April): Secret treaties.

KILLMUCKS, tribe of American Indians. See FLATHEADS.

KILMAINHAM TREATY. See IRELAND: 1881-1882.

KILMANE. See QUILIMANE.

KILMATINDE, town in East Africa. It was occupied by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 13.

KILOSSA, town in Tanganyika. It was occupied by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 15.

KILPATRICK, Hugh Judson (1836-1881), American soldier. As Federal cavalry officer he distinguished himself during the Civil War. See U.S.A.: 1864 (February-March: Virginia).

KILSYTH, Battle of (1645). See SCOTLAND: 1644-1645

KILWA KISSIWANI, town in Tanganyika, occupied by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 17.

KILWA KIVINGE, town in Tanganyika, occupied by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 17.

KIMBERLEY, town in Cape of Good Hope Province, South Africa. It was besieged by the Boers during the South African War. It is the center of the Kimberley mining district. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (October-November); 1900 (January-February); also CAPITALISM: 19th century: Capital in empire building.

KIMBERLEY, or Kimberly, northern division of Western Australia. Extensive gold fields were discovered here in 1882. See WESTERN AUSTRALIA: 1892-1893.

KIMBOLTON, Lord. See MANCHESTER, EDWARD MONTAGU.

KIMMERIAN BOSPHORUS. See BOSPHORUS, CIMMERIAN.

KIMPOLUNG, town in southern Bukovina, Rumania. It was occupied by the Russians, 1914; recaptured by the Russians from the Austrians in 1915, and again in 1916; ceded to Rumania with part of Bukovina, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 3; 1915: III. Eastern front: c; 1916: III. Eastern front: a, 3.

KINCHOU, or Chin Chow, Battle of (1904). See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

KINDERGARTENS: Founding by Froebel. —Spread in United States.—Montessori method. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Froebel and child education; 19th-20th centuries: Spread of kindergartens; Modern developments: 20th century: New ideas, etc.

KINEMACOLOUR PROCESS. See INVENTIONS: 20th century: Moving pictures.

KING, Charles Dunbar Burgess, Liberian statesman. Represented Liberia at the peace conference following the World War; elected president of the republic, 1920. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

KING, James (d. 1856), American journalist. As editor of the San Francisco *Evening Bulletin* he was active in the campaign against political corruption in California. His murder, 1856, was the immediate cause for the organization of the San Francisco Vigilance Committee. See CALIFORNIA: 1856: San Francisco Vigilance Committee.

KING, Rufus (1755-1827), American political leader and diplomat. Member of the first and second Continental Congresses; United States senator, 1789-1795, 1813-1825; minister to England, 1796-1803, 1825-1826; Federalist candidate for president, 1816. See U.S.A.: 1803-1805; 1816.

KING, William Lyon Mackenzie (1874-), Canadian statesman. Deputy minister of labor, 1900-1908; selected leader of the Liberal party, 1919. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Canada: 1900-1918.

KING, William Rufus (1786-1853), American statesman and diplomat. United States senator, 1819-1844, 1848-1853; minister to France, 1844-1846; elected vice president of the United States, 1852, but never entered upon the duties of his office. See U.S.A.: 1852: Seventeenth presidential election.

KING, Origin of the word.—"Cyning, by contraction King, is closely connected with the word 'Cyn' or 'Kin.' . . . I do not feel myself called upon to decide whether Cyning is strictly the patronymic of 'cyn,' or whether it comes immediately from a cognate adjective (see Allen, Royal Prerogative, 176; Kemble, i. 153). It is enough if the two words are of the same origin, as is shown by a whole crowd of cognates, 'cynebarn,' 'cynecyn,' 'cynedom,' 'cynehelm,' 'cynehlaford.' . . . (I copy from Mr. Earle's Glossarial Index.) In all these words 'cyn' has the meaning of 'royal.' The modern High-Dutch König is an odd corruption; but the elder form is 'Chuninc.' The word has never had an English feminine; Queen is simply 'Cwen,' woman, wife. . . . The notion of the King being the 'canning' or 'cunning' man [is] an idea which could have occurred only to a mind on which all Teutonic philology was thrown away."—E. A. Freeman, *History of the Norman conquest of England, v.* 3, *sect.* 1, *and note L.*

KING EDWARD LAND, territory in the Antarctic region. It was discovered in 1902. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1901-1909.

KING GEORGE'S WAR (1741-1748). See NEW ENGLAND: 1744; 1745; 1745-1748.

KING HAAKON VII'S PLATEAU, land surrounding the South Pole. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1911-1912.

KING JAMES VERSION OF THE BIBLE. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: 17th century.

KING MOVEMENT, tribal organization in New Zealand under a chief or "king" for the exclusion of Europeans. See NEW ZEALAND: 1853-1870.

KING OF THE ROMANS. See ROMANS, KING OF THE.

KING PHILIP'S WAR (1675-1676). See NEW ENGLAND: 1674-1675; 1675 (July-September); (October-December); 1676-1678.

KING WILLIAM'S LAND, territory in the Arctic region. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1857-1859.

KING WILLIAM'S WAR (1689-1697).—The war in Europe, of the "Grand Alliance" against Louis XIV of France, frequently called "the War of the League of Augsburg," extended to the American colonies of England and France, and received in the former the name of King William's War. See FRANCE: 1689-1690; CANADA: 1689-1690; 1692-1697; NEWFOUNDLAND: 1694-1697; U.S.A.: 1690.

KINGDOM OF THE SERBS, CROATS AND SLOVENES. See JUGO-SLAVIA; BALKAN STATES: 1921: Jugo-Slavia.

KINGO, Thomas (1634-1703), Danish poet. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1479-1750.

KINGS, Book of. See HISTORY: 14.

KINGS, Divine Right of. See ABSOLUTISM; BILL OF RIGHTS, ENGLISH: 1689; DEMOCRACY: Middle Ages; Progress during 17th and 18th centuries; ENGLAND: 1135-1154; FRANCE: 1661; 1789; Survey of France on the eve of revolution: Literary forerunners; GERMANY: 1894-1899; RUSSIA: 1916: Russian absolutism; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: j.

KING'S BENCH. See COURTS: England: Origin and development; COMMON LAW: 1265; CRIMINAL LAW: 1272-1875.

KING'S COLLEGE (Columbia University). See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1746-1787; NEW YORK CITY: 1753.

KING'S COUNCIL. See PRIVY COUNCIL.

KING'S COURT: England. See COURTS: England: Origin and development; COMMON LAW: 1215 (ante).

Germany. See COURTS: Germany: Feudal system.

KING'S HEAD CLUB, or Green Ribbon Club, one of the numerous political associations in London during the 17th century, named for its place of meeting, the King's Head Tavern at Chancery Lane End. It was also called for the distinguishing bow of green ribbon which members wore fastened to their hats for mutual recognition. The membership, which included a number of noblemen and statesmen, represented the extreme faction of the country party, and the club was involved in the Rye House Plot and Monmouth's Rebellion (see ENGLAND: 1681-1683; 1685 [May-July]) as well as other political conspiracies. In the height of its power the club became the headquarters for the Whig opposition to the court.

KING'S JUSTICE. See COMMON LAW: 1165.

KING'S LIBRARY, British Museum. See LIBRARIES: Modern: England, etc.: King's Library.

KING'S MOUNTAIN, Battle of (1780). See U.S.A.: 1780-1781; TENNESSEE: 1769-1784.

KING'S PEACE.—"The peace, as it was called, the primitive alliance for mutual good behaviour, for the performance and enforcement of rights and duties, the voluntary restraint of free society in its earliest form, was from the beginning of monarchy [in early England] under the protection of the king. . . . But this position is far from that of the fountain of justice and source of jurisdiction. The king's guarantee was not the sole safeguard of the peace; the hundred had its peace as well as the king; the king too had a distinct peace which like that of the church was not that of the country at large, a special guarantee for those who were under special protection. . . . When the king becomes the lord, patron and 'mundborh' of his whole people, they pass from the ancient national peace of which he is the guardian into the closer personal or territorial relation of which he is the source. The peace is now the king's peace. . . . The process by which the national peace became the king's peace is almost imperceptible; and it is very gradually that we arrive at the time at which all peace and law are supposed to die with the old king, and rise again at the proclamation of the new."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England, v.* 1, *ch.* 7, *sect.* 72.—See also Common law: 871-1066; 1110; 1135; 1300; Roman roads in Britain.

Also in: G. E. Howard, *Nebraska University studies, v.* 1, *no.* 3.—F. Pollock, *Oxford lectures,* 3.

KINGSLEY, Charles (1819-1875), English novelist. See English literature: 1832-1880.

KINGSTON, seaport and capital of the island of Jamaica, on the southeast coast. It was partially destroyed by an earthquake and fire in 1907. See Jamaica: 1907.

KINGSTON, town in the province of Ontario, Canada, on the northeast shore of Lake Ontario.

1673.—Building of Fort Frontenac.—La Salle's seigniory.—In 1673, Count Frontenac, governor of Canada, personally superintended the construction of a fort on the north shore of Lake Ontario, at the mouth of the Cataraqui, where the city of Kingston now stands, the site having been recommended by the explorer La Salle. The following year this fort, with surrounding lands to the extent of four leagues in front and half a league in depth, was granted in seigniory to La Salle, he agreeing to pay the cost of its construction and to maintain it at his own charge. He named the post Frontenac. —Based on F. Parkman, *La Salle, ch.* 6.

1758.—Fort Frontenac taken by the English. See Canada: 1758.

KINS, early Manchurian tribes. See Manchuria: Early history.

KINSALE, Battle of (1601). See Ireland: 1559-1603.

KINSHA-KIANG, name of a section of the great Yangtze-Kiang river of Central China. See China: Geography of China proper.

KINSTON, Battle of (1865). See U.S.A.: 1865 (February-March: North Carolina).

KIOTO. See Kyoto.

KIOUPROUGLI, Achmet, Turkish grand vizier. Invaded Hungary, 1663. See Hungary: 1660-1664.

KIOWAN FAMILY.—"Derivation: From the Kiowa word Kó-i, plural Kó-igu, meaning 'Káyowē man.' The Comanche term káyowē means 'rat.' The author who first formally separated this family appears to have been Turner. . . . Turner, upon the strength of a vocabulary furnished by Lieut. Whipple, dissents from the opinion expressed by Pike and others to the effect that the language is of the same stock as the Comanche, and, while admitting that its relationship to Comanche is greater than to any other family, thinks that the likeness is merely the result of long intercommunication. His opinion that it is entirely distinct from any other language has been indorsed by Buschmann and other authorities. The family is represented by the Kiowa tribe. So intimately associated with the Comanches have the Kiowa been since known to history that it is not easy to determine their pristine home. . . . Pope definitely locates the Kiowa in the valley of the Upper Arkansas, and of its tributary, the Purgatory (Las Animas) River. This is in substantial accord with the statements of other writers of about the same period. Schemerhorn (1812) places the Kiowa on the heads of the Arkansas and Platte. Earlier still they appear upon the headwaters of the Platte."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology, p.* 84.—Up to 1868, when they were placed on a reservation, the Kiowans were in constant warfare with the whites on the borders of Texas and Mexico.—See also Indians, American: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area; Pawnee family; Shoshonean family.

KIOWA APACHE, tribe of American Indians associated with the Kiowan family. See Indians, American: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area.

KIPCHAK, or KIPTCHAK, EMPIRE, Mongol khanate which extended, at the time of its greatest power, from the Dnieper river in Europe into Central Asia. The empire is also known as the Kingdom of the Golden Horde. See Mongolia: 1238-1391; Russia: Map: Growth of Russia in Europe, 1300-1796.

KIPCHAKS.—"The Kipchaks were called Comans by European writers. . . . The name Coman is derived no doubt from the river Kuma, the country about which was known to the Persians as Kumestan. . . . A part of their old country on the Kuma is still called Desht Kipchak, and the Kumuks, who have been pushed somewhat south by the Nogays, are, I believe, their lineal descendants. Others of their descendants no doubt remain also among the Krim Tartars. To the early Arab writers the Kipchaks were known as Gusses, a name by which we also meet with them in the Byzantine annals. This shows that they belonged to the great section of the Turks known as the Gusses or Oghuz Turks. . . . They first invaded the country west of the Volga at the end of the ninth century, from which time till their final dispersal by the Mongols in the thirteenth century they were very persistent enemies of Russia. After the Mongol conquest it is very probable that they became an important element in the various tribes that made up the Golden Horde or Khanate of Kipchak."—H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols, pt.* 1, *p.* 17.

1876.—Conquered by the Russians. See Russia: 1859-1881.

KIPLING, Rudyard (1865-), British short-story writer, poet and novelist. See English literature: 1880-1920; Nobel prizes: Literature: 1907.

KIRCH-DENKERN, or Wellinghausen, Battle of (1761). See Germany: 1761-1762.

KIRCHHOFF, Gustav Robert (1824-1887), German physicist. Noted for his researches in thermodynamics and other branches of physical science; with Bunsen, he invented the spectroscope. See Inventions: 19th century: Instruments.

KIRGHIZ, Mongolian tribe of Central Asia, conquered by Russia. See Russia: 1859-1881.

KIRIRI, tribe of American Indians. See Guck, or Coco, Group.

KIRK OF SCOTLAND. See Church of Scotland.

KIRKE, Sir David (1596-c. 1656), English adventurer. The whole of Newfoundland was granted to him by Charles I, 1637. See Newfoundland, Dominion of: 1610-1655.

KIRKE, Gervase, English settler in Canada. See Canada: 1628-1635.

KIRKE'S LAMBS, derisive name for soldiery of Colonel Kirke. See England: 1685 (May-July).

KIRKI, Battle of (1817). See India: 1816-1819.

KIRK-KILISSE, town in Thrace. In 1912 the Bulgar general, Radko Dmitriev, captured it from the Turks, who readily recaptured it in 1913 in the second Balkan War. In 1920, by the Treaty of Versailles, it was assigned to Greece. See Balkan states: 1912-1913; Turkey: 1912-1913.

KIRKUK, town in Mesopotamia. It was captured by the British in 1918. See World War: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: a, 6.

KIRKWALL, capital of the Orkney islands. See Orkney islands.

KIRKWOOD, Samuel Jordan (1813-1894), American political leader. Governor of Iowa, 1860-1864. See Iowa: 1857-1863.

KIRLIBABA PASS, route through the Carpathians, from Bukovina to Transylvania. It was taken in 1915 and again in 1916 from the Austrians by the Russians. In 1918 it became Rumanian territory. See World War: 1915: III. Eastern front: c.

KIROKUSHO, or Record Office, Japan. See Japan: 1050-1159.

KIRRHA. See Cirrha.

KIRSCHEN, Belgian lawyer. Acted as counsel for the defense at the trial of Edith Cavell. See Cavell, Edith.

KIRWAN, medieval city of northern Africa, built by the Arabs. See Commerce: Medieval: 5th-8th centuries.

KISCAPOKOKE, tribe of American Indians. See Shawanese.

KISHINEV, city in the province of Bessarabia, Rumania, 86 miles northeast of Odessa. It is the seat of the Bessarabian school of viticulture and wine making. See Russia: Map of Russia and the new border states; Education, Agricultural: Russia.

1903.—Massacre of the Jews. See Jews: Russia: Ukraine; Russia: 1903 (April).

KISHM, island in the Persian gulf. It was the scene of a severe earthquake in January, 1897.

KISSAKI, town in Tanganyika. It was evacuated by the Germans in 1916. See World War: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 16.

KISSIA. See Cissia.

KIT CAT CLUB, Whig club founded in London about 1699. See Clubs: Kit Cat Club.

KITAB AS-SAHIH, collection of traditions made by the Arabic historian, Bochari. See History: 21.

KITASATO, Shibamiro (1856-), Japanese bacteriologist. Discovered the bacilli of diphtheria, tetanus and the plague; director of Kitasato institute for infectious diseases, Tokio. See Medical science: Modern: 20th century: Progress in bacteriology.

KITCHEN CABINET, name applied to a small group of men, who, during the administration of President Andrew Jackson, were said to exert more influence upon the president than the members of his official cabinet. See U.S.A.: 1829.

KITCHENER, Horatio Herbert, Earl (1850-1916), British field marshal. Fought in the Egyptian campaign, 1882; accompanied General Stewart's expedition to the relief of Gordon at Khartum, 1885; appointed governor-general of the Red sea littoral, 1886; appointed sirdar of the Egyptian army, 1892; accomplished reconquest of the Sudan, 1896-1898; sent to Africa as chief of staff under Lord Roberts, 1899; commander-in-chief in South Africa, 1901-1902; commander-in-chief in India, 1902-1909; became British agent and consul-general in Egypt, 1911; appointed secretary for war, August 5, 1914. On June 5, 1916, he sailed from Scotland on the cruiser *Hampshire* on a military mission to Russia. The *Hampshire* was torpedoed or struck a mine, and Kitchener went down in the wreck, of which there were only a dozen survivors.

In Egypt. See Egypt: 1885-1896.

Fashoda incident. See Egypt: 1898 (September-November).

In South African War. See South Africa, Union of: 1900 (January-February); (November); 1901 (February-March); 1901-1902.

Military reforms in India. See India: 1902-1907.

Return to Egypt.—Legislative reforms.—Policy in the Sudan. See Egypt: 1907-1911; 1911-1914; Sudan: 1914.

Military policy during World War. See Military organization: 32.

Death. See England: 1916 (June 5).

Also in: H. G. Groser, *Lord Kitchener.*—F. W. Hackwood, *Life of Lord Kitchener.*—G. Arthur, *Life of Lord Kitchener.*

KITCHEN-MIDDENS.—"Amongst the accumulations of Neolithic age which are thought by many archæologists to be oldest are the well-known 'Kjökkenmödingr' or kitchen-middens of Denmark. These are heaps and mounds composed principally of shells of edible molluscs, of which the most abundant are oyster, cockle, mussel, and periwinkle. Commingled with the shells occur bones of mammals, birds, and fish in less or greater abundance, and likewise many implements of stone, bone, and horn, together with pötsherds. The middens are met with generally near the coast, and principally on the shores of the Lymfjord and the Kattegat; they would appear, indeed, never to be found on the borders of the North Sea. They form mounds or banks that vary in height from 3 or 5 feet up to 10 feet, with a width of 150 to 200 feet, and a length of sometimes nearly 350 yards. . . . The Danish savants (Forchhammer, Steenstrupp, and Worsaae), who first examined these curious shell-mounds, came to the conclusion that they were the refuse-heaps which had accumulated round the dwellings of some ancient coast-tribe. . . . Shell-mounds of similar character occur in other countries."—J. Geikie, *Prehistoric Europe, ch.* 15.

KITE-BALLOONS. See Aviation: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1870-1913.

KIT'S COTY HOUSE, popular name of a conspicuous Cromlech or stone burial monument in Kent, England, near Addington.

KITTIM, Hebrew name of the island of Cyprus.

KITUNAHAN FAMILY.—"This family was based upon 'a tribe variously termed Kitunaha, Kutenay, Cootenai, or Flatbow, living on the Kootenay River, a branch of the Columbia in Oregon."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology, p.* 85.

KIUSHIU, southernmost of the five principal islands of Japan. See JAPAN: Name.

KIYOMORI (fl. 1156), leader of the Taira clan and autocrat of Japan. See JAPAN: 1159-1199.

KJÖKKENMÖDINGR. See KITCHEN-MIDDENS.

KLAGENFURT, city in Carinthia. After the World War it was claimed by Jugo-Slavia, but following a plebiscite was definitely assigned to Austria. On January 31, 1920, the population of the city was 26,147.

1919.—Provision of the Treaty of St. Germain. See ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF: Part 3, Section 2.

KLAMATHS, tribe of American Indians. See MODOCS.

KLAPKA, György (1820-1892), Hungarian general. See HUNGARY: 1847-1849.

KLÉBER, Jean Baptiste (1753-1800), French general. Rendered distinguished service during the revolutionary wars; victorious at Mount Tabor, 1799; succeeded Napoleon as commander in Egypt, 1799; defeated the Turks at Heliopolis and retook Cairo, 1800.

At Battle of Fleurus. See FRANCE: 1794 (June-July): French victory at Fleurus.

Commander in Egypt.—Assassination. See FRANCE: 1800 (January-June).

KLEINE RATH, special governmental council of Switzerland. See SWITZERLAND: 1848-1890: New constitution drawn up.

KLEIST, Bernd Heinrich Wilhelm von (1777-1811), German dramatist. See DRAMA: 1773-1832.

KLEIST, Ewald Christian von (1715-1759), German poet. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1600-1750.

KLEISTHENES. See CLEISTHENES.

KLEOMENIC, or CLEOMENIC, WAR (227-221 B.C.). See GREECE: B.C. 280-146; SELLASIA, BATTLE OF.

KLEPHTIC POETRY. See GREEK LITERATURE: Renaissance.

KLERKSDORP CONFERENCE. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1901-1902.

KLERUCHS. See CLERUCHS.

KLINGER, Friedrich Maximilian von (1752-1831), German dramatist and novelist. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1700-1832; DRAMA: 1773-1832.

KLONDIKE GOLD FIELDS, region, about 800 square miles in area, in the Canadian territory of Yukon, extending eastward from the Yukon river. (See ALASKA: Map.) "About sixty miles below Dawson a river called Forty Mile Creek, about 150 miles long, flows into the Yukon. For many years Forty Mile Creek had been the centre of the mining district in that part of the Yukon, and a number of miners were congregated on the river, working their different claims. In 1896 a miner started from Forty Mile Creek on an exploring expedition, and worked his way up the Yukon, until he arrived at the mouth of the Klondyke River. He proceeded up the Klondyke River for about five miles, when he arrived at the mouth of a small affluent flowing into it, which was afterwards called Bonanza Creek. About ten miles up Bonanza Creek he examined the gravel, and, on discovering rich indications of gold, promptly staked a claim and returned to Forty Mile Creek, where he reported the matter. On hearing the news, the people at Forty Mile Creek immediately rushed, or stampeded, as it is generally called in the Yukon, to Bonanza Creek, each one being eager to arrive in time to choose his ground and stake a claim. . . . About ten miles up Bonanza Creek a small stream flows into it, which was afterwards called Eldorado Creek. The first batch of stampeders ignored Eldorado Creek, but others who arrived afterwards, on finding that Bonanza Creek was already taken up, staked their claims on Eldorado Creek, which turned out to be the richer of the two. Some parts of Bonanza and Eldorado Creeks were undoubtedly enormously rich, and the usual exaggerated reports eventually reached the outside world. A perfect fever of excitement prevailed, in consequence, both in Canada and America, while the contagion spread to a large extent even to Europe. Comparatively few of those infected with the gold craze knew anything about mining, while many even imagined that on arriving at the Klondyke, they would promptly proceed to dig up gold nuggets like potatoes. The result was that numbers of people gave up lucrative professions or sold their farms, in order to enable them to reach this extraordinary country, where, according to their ideas, fortunes could be obtained without any trouble and within a few weeks. The difficulties of getting into the country, which entailed transporting an outfit and provisions, were considerable, while the journey as far as Dawson could only be completed during the summer months, when the Yukon was open for navigation. A certain number of people managed to arrive at the Klondyke in 1897, but by far the majority made up their minds too late to attempt the journey that summer, and consequently the great stampede into the country occurred in 1898."—S. Tollemache, *Reminiscences of the Yukon, pp.* 23, 25-26.—See also ALASKA BOUNDARY QUESTION: 1867-1903.

KLOPSTOCK, Friedrich Gottlieb (1724-1803), German poet. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1600-1750.

KLOSTER-ZEVEN, Convention of (1757). See CLOSTER-SEVEN.

KLOTZ, Louis Lucien (1868-), French statesman. French minister of finance and representative at the peace conference at the close of the World War. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

KLUCK, Alexander von (1846-), Prussian general. Commander of the German 1st Army on the western front, 1914-1915.

Invasion of Belgium.—In command of First Army on the frontier. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: a; g, 2.

First battle of the Marne. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: p; p, 2; p, 3; p, 4; p, 6; p, 7; q; 1918: II. Western front: g, 12.

KMASO, early Japanese name for the inhabitants of southern Korea. See KOREA: Early history.

KMET, cultivator of the soil. See BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA: 1878-1908.

KNAPP, Lyman Enos (1837-1904), American lawyer. Governor of Alaska, 1889-1893. See ALASKA: 1884-1912.

KNECHTE, peasant serfs. See BALTIC PROVINCES: 1861-1917; SERFDOM: 14th-19th centuries.

KNICKERBOCKER CLUB, New York City. See CLUBS: 19th-20th centuries: New York.

KNIGHT ADLER BILL. See NEW YORK: 1921; NEW YORK CITY: 1921: State transit commission.

KNIGHT COMMANDERS OF THE BATH. See BATH, ORDER OF THE.

KNIGHT OF GLYN. See GERALDINES.

KNIGHT OF KERRY. See GERALDINES.

KNIGHTHOOD, chivalric institution of the feudal system, the dignities of which were conferred upon individuals as a personal distinction and employed for religious, military and social purposes. Knighthood could be conferred, originally, by any person of knightly condition, but

later the right was restricted to sovereigns or their representatives. Investiture was attended with impressive ceremonies, the details of which varied with the period.—See also CHIVALRY; EDUCATION: Medieval: 9th-15th centuries: Chivalry; FEUDALISM: Continental growth; ACCOLADE.

KNIGHTHOOD (Bushido), Japan. See BUSHIDO; JAPAN: Religions.

KNIGHTHOOD, Military aspect. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 15; FLAGS: Origin.

KNIGHTHOOD, Orders of.—The following is a list of the principal orders of knighthood and their modern imitations.

Alcántara, Order of: See ALCÁNTARA, ORDER OF.

American Knights, Order of. See U.S.A.: 1864 (October): Report on secret associations, etc.

Avis, Knights of. See AVIS.

Bath, Knights of the. See BATH, ORDER OF THE.

Black Eagle, Order of, Prussian order instituted by Frederick III, elector of Brandenburg, 1701.

Blue Ribbon, Order of. See SERAPHIM.

Brethren of Dobrin. See PRUSSIA: 13th century.

Calatrava, Order of. See CALATRAVA.

Christ, Order of, papal order instituted by Pope John XXII, 1319.

Christ, Order of. See PORTUGAL: 1415-1460.

Columbus, Knights of. See KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS.

Crescent, Order of the, instituted by René of Anjou, titular king of Naples, 1448, but suppressed by Pope Paul II, 1464.

Crescent, Order of the. See CRESCENT.

Écu, Order of. See BOURBON, HOUSE OF.

Elephant, Order of the, Danish order, instituted in 1693 by King Christian V.

Garter, Order of the. See GARTER.

Golden Circle, Knights of the. See KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE.

Golden Fleece, Order of the. See GOLDEN FLEECE.

Golden Horseshoe, Knights of the. See VIRGINIA: 1710-1716.

Golden Spur, Order of the, instituted by Pope Paul III, 1550.

Guelphs of Hanover. See GUELPHS OF HANOVER.

Holy Ghost, Order of the. See FRANCE: 1578-1580.

Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM.

La Merced. See MERCED, ORDER OF LA.

Lion and the Sun, Order of the, Persian order.

Lone Star, Order of the. See CUBA: 1845-1860.

Malta, Order of. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN: 1530-1565.

Mighty Host, Order of the. See U.S.A.: 1864 (October): Report on secret associations, etc.

Our Lady of Montesa, Order of. See OUR LADY.

Polar Star, Order of the, Swedish order.

Rhodes, Knights of. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN.

Round Table, Knights of the. See ARTHURIAN LEGEND: Historical basis.

St. Andrew, Russian Order of. See ST. ANDREW, RUSSIAN ORDER OF.

St. Andrew, Scottish Order of. See ST. ANDREW, SCOTTISH ORDER OF.

St. George, Order of. See ST. GEORGE, ORDER OF.

St. Gregory, Order of. See ST. GREGORY, ORDER OF.

St. Jago, Order of. See CALATRAVA.

St. James of Compostella, Order of. See CALATRAVA.

St. Januarius, Order of, instituted by Charles, king of the Two Sicilies, 1738.

St. John, Hospitallers of. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM.

St. John of the Lateran, Order of, instituted by Pope Pius IV, 1560.

St. Lazarus, Knights of. See ST. LAZARUS.

St. Louis, Order of. See ST. LOUIS, ORDER OF.

St. Michael, Order of. See ST. MICHAEL, KNIGHTS OF.

St. Michael and St. George, Order of. See ST. MICHAEL AND ST. GEORGE.

St. Patrick, Order of, instituted by George III of England, 1783.

St. Stephen, Order of. See ST. STEPHEN, ORDER OF.

St. Thomas of Acre, Knights of. See ST. THOMAS OF ACRE.

Santiago de Compostella, Knights of. See CALATRAVA.

Seraphim, Order of. See SERAPHIM.

Sons of Liberty. See U.S.A.: 1864 (October): Report on secret associations, etc.

Southern Cross, Order of the. See SOUTHERN CROSS.

Star, Knights of the. See STAR.

Star of India, Order of the. See STAR OF INDIA.

Starry Cross, Order of the. See STARRY CROSS.

Swan, Order of the. See SWAN.

Sword, German Order of the. See LIVONIA: 12th-13th centuries.

Sword, Swedish Order of the. See SWORD, SWEDISH ORDER OF THE.

Templars, Order of the. See TEMPLARS.

Teutonic Knights, Order of the. See TEUTONIC KNIGHTS OF THE HOSPITAL.

Thistle, Order of the, instituted by James V of Scotland, 1530.

Tower and Sword, Order of the. See TOWER AND SWORD.

Victoria, Order of. See VICTORIAN ORDER.

White Cross, Order of the, order founded by the grand duke of Tuscany, 1814.

White Eagle, Order of the, Polish order instituted by Ladislaus IV, 1325, and revived by Augustus, 1705.

KNIGHTS. See CHIVALRY.

KNIGHTS BACHELORS.—"The word 'bachelor,' from whence has come 'bachelier,' does not signify 'bas chevalier,' but a knight who has not the number of 'bachelles' of land requisite to display a banner: that is to say, four 'bachelles.' The 'bachelle' was composed of ten 'maz,' or 'meix' (farms or domains), each of which contained a sufficiency of land for the work of two oxen during a whole year."—J. Froissart, *Chronicles* (Johnes tr.), *v.* 1, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 61, *foot-note.*

ALSO IN: W. Scott, *Essay on chivalry.*—R. T. Hampson, *Origines patriciæ, p.* 338.

KNIGHTS BANNERETS.—The name [banneret] imports the bearer of a small banner, and, in this respect, he differed from the baron, who bore a gonfanon or banner of war, and the simple knight, who bore a penon. The banner, properly so called, was a square flag; the penon, according to the illuminations of ancient manuscripts, was a small square, having two long triangles attached to the side opposite that which was fixed to the lance or spear. These pendant portions resembling tails were so denominated. Rastal defines a banneret to be a knight made upon the field of battle, with the ceremony of cutting off the point of his standard, and so making this like a banner. And such, he says, are allowed to display their arms

on a banner in the king's army, like the barons. That was, no doubt, the mode of creation; but it appears that a knight, or an esquire of four bacelles, or cow lands, and therefore, a bachelor, to whom the king had presented a banner on his first battle, became a banneret on the second.

KNIGHTS GRAND CROSS. See BATH, ORDER OF THE.

KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS, Roman Catholic fraternal beneficiary organization in America in which members are not oath-bound. In 1921 there were 2,200 councils with over 800,000 members.

Circumstances of origin. — Red Knights. — Catholic Foresters.—Father McGivney's movement. — Insurance scheme chosen. — "Michael Joseph McGivney, priest of the diocese of Hartford, Connecticut, assistant pastor of St. Mary's Church, New Haven, first dreamed the dream that became the Knights of Columbus. A small group of men . . . contributed towards the development of Father McGivney's idea, but without the priest's enthusiasm the Knights of Columbus would never have assumed definite shape or overcome the difficulties of its infancy. . . . Fraternal societies were, at this time, flourishing throughout the United States. Organizations which a Catholic could not in conscience join enjoyed a large prosperity. The benefits resulting from membership in such societies were manifest; social and business advantages during life and provision by insurance for the member's family after his death. . . . A preliminary experiment in Catholic social organization [the Red Knights] had been attempted, many of those participating in this experiment afterwards becoming incorporators of the Knights of Columbus. . . . The Red Knights are no more; they were not, during their brief but entertaining existence, an organization of serious purpose. But the Red Knights served to demonstrate a truth; that an organization meeting the desires of its prospective members along the established lines of fraternal benefit systems would gain attention and members by a repute for good, secret initiation exercises. . . . When Father McGivney heard of the fruitless attempt to revive the Red Knights he saw in this an opportunity to launch a more substantial movement. He invited members of this organization to meet at the parish house of St. Mary's Church on the evening of January 16, 1882. . . . After a lengthy discussion it was decided that Father McGivney should go to Boston to consult with the executives of the Massachusetts Catholic Order of Foresters regarding the practicability of instituting a Connecticut branch of that society. . . . The Massachusetts Foresters were eager to render every assistance for the formation of a new society in Connecticut, but . . . they refused to institute a branch of their own organization in that state. . . . It was thereupon unanimously decided at this meeting that a new and independent organization be formed. . . . The name tentatively chosen for the new society was the Connecticut Order of Foresters. . . . It was at length adjudged that the name Catholic Foresters was unsuitable, and bound to lead to confusion with the Massachusetts order. The aim was to attain a field of fraternal endeavor higher than any before achieved and to avail themselves of the commendable features of the best fraternal benefit organizations in the country. . . . The *per capita* scheme of insurance, then common among fraternal bodies, was adopted. By this system, when a member dies a *per capita* tax is levied on surviving members and the sum collected delivered to beneficiaries. An investigating committee was appointed to look into the claims of those applying for membership in the new society, and this committee laid down rigidly the rule that all candidates must undergo a scrupulous medical examination. This strict provision limited vitally the organization's numbers in those first days of growth, but laid the foundation of the present efficiency of the Knights of Columbus insurance system. At the third conference, Father McGivney proposed the name 'Sons of Columbus,' which he held to represent the character of the new society as a Catholic Columbian organization. Mr. Mullen suggested that the word 'Knights' be substituted for 'Sons.' This carried, the name 'Knights of Columbus' then coming into being. . . . The first election of the Knights of Columbus was held . . . on April 6, 1882. . . . From the very beginning was made manifest the conservatism that has been the Order's unfailing safeguard. Inundated with applications from all parts of New Haven, the Committee of Investigation was loath to increase the membership, wishing to have a charter list readily manageable from the outset. . . . After several months of research the constitution was completed; but its publication was postponed until the society found funds sufficient for this purpose in 1883. . . . On May 16, 1882, exactly four months after the first meeting of the Knights of Columbus, when Father McGivney had launched his idea for the new fraternity, the election of the first Supreme Council was held."—M. F. Egan and J. B. Kennedy, *Knights of Columbus in peace and war, v.* 1, *pp.* 47-56.

1883-1895.—Early growth in Connecticut.—Introduced into adjacent states.—"The first meeting of the Supreme Council was held at New Haven, May 12, 1883, and the second at Meriden, May 5, 1884. . . . New councils sprang into existence, each one adding to the influence and power of the Order. Wallingford, Cromwell, Portland, Branford, Hartford, New Britain, Norwich, Willimantic, Southington, Bridgeport, New London and Thomaston contributed their quota, and shortly there were twenty regularly organized councils in Connecticut. The time had now come for stepping beyond the confines of their own State, and in April, 1885, Supreme Knight Mullen and his associate officers instituted Narragansett Council in Westerly, R. I. . . . The first council in Massachusetts, Bunker Hill, was organized in April, 1892. At that time Connecticut had fifty-five, Rhode Island four, and New York one. New Hampshire, Maine, New Jersey, Illinois, Pennsylvania and Delaware instituted councils, but in the next three years the greatest growth was in Massachusetts. . . . On May 31, 1893, there were seventy-six councils with a membership of 6,975 all told. On December 31, 1894, a little over a year later, there were 100 councils with 8,737 members. This increase, according to the Supreme Knight's report, 'was due mainly to the efforts of the National Organizer acting under the instructions of the Board of Directors.' The Order had now spread to Massachusetts, Maine and New Hampshire, and was introduced into New York City, May 12, 1895."—C. S. O'Neill, *Story of Columbian knighthood* (*Donahoe's Magazine, Feb.*, 1908).

1895-1914.—Spread of the order to Canada and other countries.—Early in the century the Knights had established councils in every state of the union. Canada was also invaded, first Catholic Quebec before 1900, then other eastern provinces until finally, proceeding westward, the order entered the last Canadian province through Edmonton, Alberta, in 1908. Newfoundland joined in 1910. In the meantime councils were opened up in the Philippines (under the jurisdiction of Cali-

fornia since 1911), Mexico, 1906, Panama, 1909, Cuba, 1909, Porto Rico, 1910, and Alaska, 1912. So far the policy of the directors of the organization has been non-extension to Europe.

1914-1918.—World War activities.—"When the European War broke out . . . the vast bulk of the membership of the Knights of Columbus was in the United States. Out of a total of about 350,000 members at that time the Dominion of Canada had some 19,000. . . . No action could possibly be taken to benefit the troops of any side of the conflict while the United States remained a neutral observer. . . . It was not until the United States had entered the war that the Supreme Board could give its consent and moral support to the war relief work inaugurated by the Canadian Knights. . . . The Canadians organized and launched their project, known as the Canadian Catholic Army Huts movement [in 1917]. . . . In the many months of the war before their hut movement assumed definite shape, the Canadian Knights had assisted their Dominion's fighting men in numerous ways through council units of men, with their women's auxiliaries. . . . In all, the Canadian Knights equipped and maintained fifteen huts in Canada, which, supplemented by the club rooms of the Canadian councils, provided ample club facilities for the thousands of Catholic boys in the service."—M. F. Egan and J. B. Kennedy, *Knights of Columbus in peace and war, v.* 1, *pp.* 340-342, 345.—After the United States declared war against Germany, the Knights of Columbus participated in the fund from the general "drive" made jointly by the seven officially recognized welfare organizations of the country doing war work, their share out of $170,000,000 being $30,000,000, which was shared in turn with the National Catholic War Council. With headquarters overseas at Paris, branches for the British Isles were established in London, and after the Armistice, at Coblenz, for the Army of Occupation.—See also World War: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 8.

1919-1922.—Reconstruction program.—Employment bureau.—Educational work.—After the Armistice the Knights of Columbus reinforced the United States Employment Service, when official funds gave out. Periodic drives were launched by the bureau created, which estimates its average record of jobs for returned soldiers at over 5,000 per week. "On account of pre-emption of that field by other agencies and by the government, the Knights did not undertake the work of operating schools for disabled men, excepting in two or three locations, such as at Boston and Mineola, where their aid in this direction was vitally needed. . . . At a meeting of the Committee on War Activities in Boston in the middle of October [1919] it was decided to make the supplementary school system the leading reconstruction work of the Order, while maintaining the employment bureaux in full force. . . . The Committee on War Activities . . . offered, late in August [1920], one hundred scholarships in the leading technical and academic institutions of the country. . . . More than nine hundred men, having sufficient previous education to warrant their appearance before a board of examiners, were finally selected for the definitive examinations. . . . So many applications were made that the Board increased the number of scholarships from one hundred to a number necessary to accommodate those eligible."—M. F. Egan and J. B. Kennedy, *Knights of Columbus in peace and war, v.* 1, *pp.* 391, 394, 398-399.—In line with this educational work the organization has founded a chair of American history at the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C., and has endowed fifty scholarships at that institution.

KNIGHTS OF LABOR.—"On December 9, 1869, the Garment Cutters' Union of Philadelphia disbanded and divided the funds in the treasury among the members in good standing. At the close of the last meeting of the union, a secret society was organized by Stephens and a few of his associates under the title of Garment Cutters' Assembly of the Knights of Labor. Early efforts to increase the membership did not meet with much success in consequence of the secrecy maintained. The first annual report in 1871 showed only sixty-nine members in good standing. Soon after the formation of Local Assembly No. 1, the ship carpenters and calkers organized and entered the Order as Local Assembly No. 2. Thenceforth, the growth of the Knights of Labor became more rapid, and by 1875 fifty-two locals had been formed in Philadelphia, and about two hundred and fifty in other places. A demand soon arose for a central organization of the local unions in Philadelphia and the environs. On Christmas Day, 1873, District Assembly No. 1, consisting of representatives from the local assemblies, was organized in Philadelphia. This plan proving successful, other district assemblies were formed wherever the number of local assemblies justified a federation. Finally, on July 3, 1876, in response to a call sent out by District Assembly No. 1, delegates from the several locals met in Philadelphia, adopted a constitution and selected for the national organization the name of National League of North America. A year later, on August 2, 1877, a circular from District Assembly No. 1, was sent to all officers and members of the Knights of Labor notifying them of a convention to be held in Reading, Pennsylvania, on January 1, 1878, for the purpose of forming a 'general assembly,' and establishing a central resistance fund, a bureau of statistics and a system of revenue to aid in the work of organization. In response to the call thirty-two delegates assembled, including nine miners, four shoemakers, four machinists, two glass blowers, one molder, one engineer, one printer, one steam-boiler maker, one nail packer, one carpenter, one cooper, one garment cutter, one blacksmith, one teacher, one glass worker, and two locomotive engineers. A permanent organization with strongly centralized control was formed under the title of the 'General Assembly of the Knights of Labor of North America.' The preamble to the constitution adopted at Reading, 1878, bore a close resemblance to the one used by the Industrial Brotherhood of 1874. It set forth the objects of the new organization as follows: 'To bring within the folds of organization every department of productive industry, making knowledge a standpoint for action, and industrial moral worth, not wealth, the true standard of industrial and national greatness; to secure to the toilers a proper share of the wealth they create.' Among the specific aims proposed were: The establishment of bureaus of labor statistics; the formation of co-operative institutions, productive and distributive; the reservation of public lands for actual settlers; the abrogation of all laws bearing unequally on labor and capital; the enactment of laws to compel corporations to pay a weekly wage; the passage of mechanics' lien laws; the abolition of the contract system on national, state, and municipal works; the adoption of arbitration in labor disputes; the prohibition of the labor of children under fourteen years of age in workshops, mines and factories; the abolition of contract prison labor; the securing of equal pay for men and women; the introduction of the eight-

hour day, and the issuing of a national circulating medium, without the intervention of banks, to be legal tender in payment of debts. In the next three years, from 1879 to 1881, the Knights of Labor held conventions and displayed considerable vigor in organizing new locals. But, although in full accord with the ideals of the general labor movement, the new organization developed along lines unmistakably opposed to the traditional principle of trade unionism, viz., trade autonomy, and to that extent failed to satisfy the advocates of a national federation of trades. It disregarded trade boundaries in a large measure, and placed in the hands of the General Assembly 'full and final jurisdiction' in all matters pertaining to the local and district assemblies. The district assembly in turn possessed power within its district to 'decide appeals and settle controversies within or between local assemblies.' Partly as a reaction against this highly centralized form of government, and partly to carry out the original idea of a national federation of autonomous trade unions, prominent labor leaders in 1881 arranged for a general conference of representatives of the different unions. [For the outcome of this and subsequent conferences, see AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: 1881-1886.] . . . For several years after 1881 the history of the general federation movement in the United States centers largely in the struggle between the Knights of Labor and the Federation of Trades and Labor Unions. As each organization grew stronger, an aggressive rivalry developed. The communication issued by the Federation to the national trade unions indicates that some antagonism was present from the beginning: 'Open trade unions national and international, can and ought to work side by side with the Knights of Labor, and this would be the case were it not for men either over-zealous or ambitious, who busy themselves in attempting the destruction of existing unions to serve their own whims.' The *Cigarmakers' Journal* referred to the federation movement of 1881-1882 as in a 'chaotic state, pulled and dragged in all directions,' and advised against 'all inferior systems of organization.' On the other hand, the president of the International Typographical Union recommended in his annual report that steps be taken to bring about a better understanding with the Knights of Labor. 'We cannot afford to be anything else but friends,' he declared, 'we are aiming at the same object, and we should court the good will of the Knights of Labor, as they are a power in our time of need,—ever ready to extend a helping hand.' The year 1886 marks an important period in labor federation history. Not only did the Knights of Labor then reach their greatest numerical strength, but the movement towards the national federation of trades gained new vigor from the transformation of the Federation of Trades and Labor Unions into the American Federation of Labor. [See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1880-1900.] The Federation of Trades and Labor Unions failed to satisfy the more energetic and ambitious labor leaders, who were desirous of reaching some agreement with the Knights of Labor whereby the friction between that organization and the trade unions should be removed. . . . A trade-union conference met in Philadelphia on May 17, 1886. After the election of officers, the representative of each national union related the grievances of his particular organization against the Knights of Labor. The charges in general were: aiding unfair employers in their fight against the unions, the initiation of 'scabs' into the order, working below the union scale and ignoring the hours of labor set by the unions. As a result of this conference certain proposals [the "treaty"] were agreed upon to be submitted to the special session of the General Assembly soon to be held at Cleveland, Ohio. . . . Contrary to the wishes of the trade unionists, no definite action on the 'treaty' was taken at the Cleveland meeting of the General Assembly. Later in the year a further effort to arrive at a permanent understanding with the Knights was made. Among other grievances, it was claimed that during a lockout by manufacturers in New York City early in 1886, in consequence of a strike against reduction of wages, certain cigar factories involved had been organized by the Knights of Labor. Similar acts of hostility, the Cigarmakers' Union asserted, had been committed at Milwaukee and Syracuse. The general executive board of the Knights promised to investigate the charges as soon as opportunity offered, and to revoke the charter of the offending assembly if the statements proved correct. Notwithstanding this action, the Cigarmakers' Union ordered a boycott against all cigars bearing the label of the Knights and endeavored to discredit the Order. When the General Assembly of the Knights of Labor assembled at Richmond, in October, 1886, the Cigarmakers' officials offered a further protest against the attitude of the Knights and asked for some assurance that the trade unions thereafter would not be interfered with by the organizers of the Order. The response of the General Assembly was to adopt a resolution compelling all employees in the cigar trade who were members of both the Knights of Labor and the Cigarmakers' International Union to withdraw from the Union or leave the Knights, and adjourned without making further advances towards a peaceful settlement of the difficulties. Throughout this controversy between the Knights and the Cigarmakers, the Federation of Trades had exerted its influence steadily in favor of the latter. . . . From this time forth [December 1886], the Knights of Labor steadily declined in membership and power, while the American Federation advanced with rapid strides. At the present time [1906] the Knights play an inconsiderable part in the labor movement, and the American Federation is gaining steadily in influence."—W. Kirk, *National labor federation in the United States*, *pp.* 19-23, 25-26.—According to the "American Labor Year Book" of 1922, the membership of the Knights of Labor was 150,000.—See also LABOR ORGANIZATION: United States: Organization of labor; AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: 1881-1886; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1880-1900; 1881-1916.

KNIGHTS OF ST. CRISPIN, labor union organized, 1867. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1825-1875.

KNIGHTS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN: 1118-1310.

KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE.—"David Christy published his 'Cotton is King' in the year [1856] in which Buchanan was elected [president of the United States], and the Knights of the Golden Circle appear to have organized about the same time. The Golden Circle had its centre at Havana, Cuba, and with a radius of sixteen degrees (about 1,200 miles) its circumference took in Baltimore, St. Louis, about half of Mexico, all of Central America, and the best portions of the coast along the Caribbean Sea. The project was, to establish an empire with this circle for its territory, and by controlling four great staples—rice, tobacco, sugar, and cotton—practically govern the commercial world. Just how great a part this secret organization played

in the scheme of secession, nobody that was not in its counsels can say; but it is certain that it boasted, probably with truth, a membership of many thousands."—R. Johnson, *Short history of the War of Secession, p.* 24.—During the American Civil War, the Order of the Knights of the Golden Circle was extended (1862-1864) through the northern states, as a secret treasonable organization, in aid of the southern rebellion.—See also U. S. A.: 1864 (October): Report on secret disloyal associations in the north; California: 1861; Indiana: 1861-1865.

KNIGHTS OF THE ROUND TABLE. See Arthurian legend: Historical basis.

KNIGHTS OF THE SHIRE.—During the thirteenth century there grew up in England the practice of sending to the Great Council of the king a certain number of knights from each shire to represent the "lesser baronage," which had formerly possessed the privilege of attending the council in person, but which had become more neglectful of attendance as their numbers increased. In theory, these knights of the shire, as they came to be called, were representatives of that "lesser baronage" only. "But the necessity of holding their election in the County Court rendered any restriction of the electoral body physically impossible. The court was composed of the whole body of freeholders, and no sheriff could distinguish the 'aye, aye' of the yeoman from the 'aye, aye' of the lesser baron. From the first moment therefore of their attendance we find the knights regarded not as mere representatives of the baronage, but as knights of the shire, and by this silent revolution the whole body of the rural freeholders were admitted to a share in the government of the realm."—J. R. Green, *Short history of the English people, ch.* 4.—The history of the knights of the shire is the history of the origin of county representation in the English Parliament. The representation of boroughs, or towns, has a history quite distinct. Of the leading part played by the knights of the shire in the development and establishment of the English constitution Mr. Stubbs remarks (*Constitutional History of England, ch.* 17, *sect.* 272): "Both historical evidence and the nature of the case lead to the conviction that the victory of the constitution was won by the knights of the shires; they were the leaders of parliamentary debate; they were the link between the good peers and the good towns; they were the indestructible element of the house of commons; they were the representatives of those local divisions of the realm which were coeval with the historical existence of the people of England, and the interests of which were most directly attacked by the abuses of royal prerogative."—See also Parliament, English: Early stages in its evolution.

KNIGHTS TEMPLARS. See Templars, Knights.

KNIGHT-SERVICE. See Feudalism: Organization.

KNIPPERDOLLING, or Knipperdollinck, Bernhard (1490-1536), German Anabaptist leader and martyr. See Anabaptists of Münster.

KNOCKDOE, Battle of (1504). See Ireland: 1485-1509.

KNOSSOS. See Cnossus.

KNOW NOTHING, or AMERICAN, PARTY, American political party which flourished in several states of the Union about 1852. It aimed at control of the government by native born citizens, and advocated stringent immigration and naturalization laws. At the outset the party was of a secret character, its name being derived from the answer given by members to all questions regarding its nature: "I don't know." In 1855 it abandoned secrecy and in 1856 Millard Fillmore was nominated for president. The party remained powerful for several years, then rapidly declined. By 1860 it had passed out of existence.—See also U. S. A.: 1852: Appearance of the Know Nothing, etc.; 1855-1856; Massachusetts: 1854-1865; Immigration and emigration: United States: 1835-1915.

KNOWLES, James Sheridan (1784-1862), English dramatist. See Drama: 1815-1877.

KNOX, Henry (1750-1806), American general. Distinguished himself as an artillery commander during the Revolution; secretary of war, 1785-1795. See U. S. A.: 1783 (November-December); 1789-1792.

KNOX, John (c. 1505-1572), Scottish reformer and historian. Had great influence during the English Reformation, and on the accession of Mary, was driven to the continent, taking refuge at Geneva and Frankfort-on-the-Main; while at Geneva he published his famous work, "First Blast of the Trumpet against the Monstrous Regiment of Women," directed against Queen Mary of England, Mary of Guise and Mary Stuart; returned to Scotland, 1559, and entered upon his work of establishing the Reformed church; wrote many historical and religious works and was the main force in establishing the Presbyterian church in Scotland.—See also Scotland: 1547-1557; 1557; 1568-1572; Education: Modern: 17th century: Scotland; Europe: Renaissance and Reformation: Genevan reformers.

KNOX, Philander Chase (1853-1921), American lawyer and statesman. Attorney-general, 1901-1904; United States senator, 1904-1909; 1917-1921; secretary of state, 1909-1912. See State department of the United States: 1909-1913; U. S. A.: 1909 (March): Inauguration of President Taft.

Support of resolution for peace with Austria and Germany. See U. S. A.: 1920 (April)-1921 (July).

KNOXVILLE, city in Tennessee on the Tennessee river, 160 miles east of Nashville. It was besieged by a Confederate force, Nov. 10-30, 1863. See U. S. A.: 1863 (October-December: Tennessee).

KNUDSEN, Gunnar (1886-), Norwegian Liberal leader and prime minister, 1907-1909, 1913-1919. See Norway: 1907-1909; 1909: Political parties; 1918-1919.

KNUT (CANUTE) ERICSSON, king of Sweden, 1167-1199.

KNYDUS, or Cnidus, Battle of (394 B.C.). See Greece: B.C. 399-387.

KOASATIS, tribe of American Indians. See Muskhogean, or Maskoki, family.

KOBE, town in the southern part of the island of Hondo, Japan, on the west shore of the Bay of Osaka, 22 miles from the city of Osaka. [See Japan: Map.] In 1921, during the period of labor unrest in Japan, the laborers of Kobe participated in the general strikes. See Japan: 1918-1921.

KOBI BRIGADES, reserve brigades of the Japanese army. See Japan: 1902-1905.

KOBO DAISHI (774-835), title conferred posthumously upon Ku-Kai, a noted Buddhist saint of Japan, founder of the sect of Shingon. See Japan: Religions.

KOCH, Robert (1843-1910), German physician and bacteriologist. Discovered the bacilli of tuberculosis and cholera; awarded the Nobel prize in medicine, 1905. See Medical science: Modern: 19th century: Development of bacteriology; 20th

century: Experimental method; NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1905.

KOCHER, Emil Theodor (1841-1917), Swiss surgeon. Noted for his work on the thyroid gland, his method of reducing dislocations of the shoulder-joint, and his hydrodynamic theory of the effect of gunshot wounds; awarded the Nobel prize in medicine, 1909. See NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1909.

KODAMA, Gentaro, Viscount (c. 1852-1906), Japanese soldier. Chief of staff in Manchuria, 1904; directed military manœuvres during the Russo-Japanese War, 1904-1905; governor-general of Formosa, 1900-1903; 1905; chief of general staff, 1906. See FORMOSA: 1874-1910.

KODOK, formerly **Fashoda,** town on the west bank of the Upper Nile, in the Sudan region, scene of the famous Fashoda Incident. The town was renamed Kodok in 1904. See EGYPT: 1898 (September-November).

KOENIG, Paul, captain of the German submarine *Deutschland* which made a successful passage from Germany to the United States in 1916 of the World War. See SUBMARINES: 1913-1920.

KOERBER, Ernst von (1860-1919), Austrian statesman. Minister of commerce, 1897-1898; minister of interior, 1899; prime minister, 1900-1904; 1916. See AUSTRIA: 1900-1904; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1900-1903; 1916-1917.

KOI-KOIN, or Hottentots, aboriginal tribe of South Africa. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: Aboriginal inhabitants.

KOJIKI, or "Record of Ancient Matters," a history of the chief families of Japan, compiled about 712. See JAPANESE LITERATURE: 712-760.

KOK, Adam, Griqua chief. See GRIQUAS.

KOKANG, Shan district, ceded to Great Britain. See CHINA: 1897 (May-June).

KOKINSHU, Japanese anthology of poetry, compiled in the early part of the tenth century. See JAPANESE LITERATURE: 794-1868.

KOKOOMUS PARTY, coalition party of Finland. See FINLAND: 1920.

KOLA BAY. See CATHERINE HARBOR.

KOLA PENINSULA, peninsula in northern Russia, between the Arctic ocean and the White sea. See RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the New Border States.

KOLARIANS, group of East Indian tribes. See INDIA: People.

KOLCHAK, Vladimir Vasilievich (1875-1920), Russian admiral, military leader and dictator. Served in Russo-Japanese War, 1904-1905; successfully mined German ships in Baltic, 1915; commanded the Black sea fleet, 1916; took an active part in fighting against the Bolsheviki in Siberia, 1917; assumed title of "Supreme Ruler" of Russia, 1917; was delivered over to the Bolsheviki, 1919; tried by drumhead court-martial and executed, 1920.—See also RUSSIA: 1918-1919; 1918-1920: Anti-Bolshevik movement; SIBERIA: 1917-1919.

KOLDEWEY, Karl Christian (1837-1908), German navigator and Arctic explorer. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1869-1870.

KOLDING, Battle of (1849). See DENMARK: 1848-1862.

KOLIN, Battle of (1757). See GERMANY: 1757 (April-June).

KOLLAR, Jan (1793-1852), Bohemian poet. See BOHEMIAN LITERATURE: Its significance.

KOLOMAN, or Coloman (1070-1116), king of Hungary, 1095-1116. See HUNGARY: 972-1116.

KOLOMEA, town in Galicia, on the Pruth. Occupied by the Austrians in 1915, and captured by the Russians in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1915; III. Eastern front: c; 1916: III. Eastern front: a, 3.

KOLUSCHAN FAMILY.—"Derivation: From the Aleut word kolosh, or more properly, kaluga, meaning 'dish,' the allusion being to the dish-shaped lip ornaments. This family was based by Gallatin upon the Koluschen tribe (the Tshinkitani of Marchand), 'who inhabit the islands and the [Pacific] coast from the 60th to the 55th degree of north latitude.' "—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology, p.* 86.—See also SKITTAGETAN FAMILY.

KOMANS, Comans, or Cumans. See KIPCHAKS; PATCHINAKS; COSSACKS; HUNGARY: 1116-1301.

KOMENSKY UNIVERSITY. UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1348-1922.

KOMORN, Battle of (1849). See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849.

KOMURA, Jutaro, Baron (1855-1911), Japanese statesman and diplomat. Assistant foreign minister, 1896-1898; held diplomatic posts successively at Washington, St. Petersburg and Peking, 1898-1901; became minister for foreign affairs, 1901, serving through the Russo-Japanese War and acting as the senior Japanese representative at the Portsmouth peace conference, 1905 (see JAPAN: 1895-1902; 1902-1905; 1905; PORTSMOUTH, TREATY OF); resigned portfolio of foreign affairs, 1906; ambassador to Great Britain, 1906-1908; again minister of foreign affairs, 1908-1911.

Komura-Yuan agreement. See MANCHURIA: 1905-1908.

KONDOA IRANGI, town in Tanganyika, attacked by the Germans during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 9.

KONDUR, or Condore, Battle of (1758). See INDIA: 1758-1761.

KONDUTSCHI, town in Tanganyika. It was occupied by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 17.

KONIEH, or Koniah, town in Asia Minor, known in ancient times as Iconium. Became capital of the Seljuk sultanate, 1097; captured by Frederick Barbarossa, 1190; incorporated into the Turkish empire at the end of the 14th century.—See also ICONIUM.

1832.—Battle of. See TURKEY: 1831-1840.

KÖNIG, German battleship. It was badly damaged at the battle of Jutland, May 31, 1916.

KÖNIGGRATZ, or Sadowa, Battle of (1866). See AUSTRIA: 1862-1866; GERMANY: 1866.

KÖNIGIN LUISE, German cruiser. It was sunk August 5, 1914, during the World War, while sowing loose mines in the North sea.

KÖNIGSBERG, German cruiser at Kiao-chau at the outbreak of the World War. Proceeded to the Indian ocean, sank the British cruiser *Pegasus* at Zanzibar and took refuge in the Rufiji river.

KÖNIGSEGG, Christian Moritz, Count (1705-1778), Austrian field-marshal. Served in the War of the Austrian Succession. See BELGIUM: 1745..

KÖNIGSMARK, Hans Christian, Count (1600-1663), Swedish general. Served in the Thirty Years' War. See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

KÖNIGSTEIN (alias **Vaillant**), German anarchist. See ANARCHISM: 1893 (Dec. 9).

KONOW, Wollert (1845-), Norwegian statesman. Prime minister of Norway, 1910-1912. See NORWAY: 1911-1913.

KONSAARBRÜCK, Battle of (1674). See NETHERLANDS: 1674-1678.

KOOPS, Matthias, paper maker. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.

KOORDS. See KURDS.

KOPOLNA, Battle of (1849). See HUNGARY: 1847-1849.

KORAES, Adamantios (1748-1833), Greek scholar and writer. See GREEK LITERATURE: Modern.

KORAI. See KOREA: Early history.

KORAN, sacred book revealed by Mohammed, and accepted by the followers of Islam as a direct revelation from God. "The Koran, as Mr. Kingsley quaintly, but truly, says, 'after all is not a book, but an irregular collection of Mohammed's meditations and notes for sermons.' It is not a code, it is not a journal, it is a mere gathering together of irregular scraps, written on palm-leaves and bones of mutton, which Abu-Bekr [the bosom friend of Mahomet and the first of the Caliphs or successors of the Prophet] put together without the slightest regard to chronological order, only putting the long fragments at the beginning, and the short fragments at the end. But so far from having the Koran of Mahomet, we have not even the Koran of Abu-Bekr. Caliph Othman [the third Caliph], we know, gave enormous scandal by burning all the existing copies, which were extremely discordant, and putting forth his own version as the 'textus ab omnibus receptus.' How much, then, of the existing Koran is really Mahomet's; how much has been lost, added, transposed, or perverted; when, where, and why each fragment was delivered, it is often impossible even to conjecture. And yet these baskets of fragments are positively worshipped."—E. A. Freeman, *History and conquests of the Saracens, lect. 2.*—See also MOHAMMEDANISM; RELIGION: 622; ABU-BEKR; ARABIC LITERATURE: Influence of the Koran.

ALSO IN: S. Lane-Poole, *Studies in a mosque, ch. 4.*—W. Muir, *Coran.*—T. Nöldeke, *Sketches from Eastern history, ch. 2.*—G. Sale, *Koran.*

KORANA, Hottentot tribe. See HOTTENTOTS.

KORASMIAN EMPIRE. See KHUAREZM.

KORDU. See CARDUCHI.

KOREA, or Chosen: Geography.—Industries.—Resources.—Population.—"The country is somewhat the shape of Italy. It is a rich peninsula, extending out from the mainland of Asia, bounded on three sides by the sea and on the north by Manchuria and the Russian Maritime Province. [See CHINA: Map; JAPAN: Map.] Its 1,700-mile sea coast is rugged and dotted with many mountainous islands and good harbors. The largest port is Fusan, one hundred and sixty-three miles by water from Nagasaki, Japan, and a thriving commercial city with over a hundred thousand population. Korea is about twice the size of New York State. In climate and density of population it is closely akin to the eastern United States. The principal industries are mining, agriculture and the catching of sea foods. Much of the mining is in the hands of foreigners. Formerly large concessions were granted to Americans, but of late years, as the leases expire, they have gradually been taken over by Japanese. The country is rich in undeveloped natural resources. Rich, fertile river valleys, together with an abundance of salt-water fish, make Korea amply able to support its population of twenty million people. [According to the census of 1920, the population aggregated 17,264,119.] The number of foreigners in the country is constantly on the increase. At the present time [written in 1919] there are over three hundred and fifty thousand Japanese. The other nationalities represented are, according to the census of 1914; 16,882 Chinese, 687 Americans, 230 English, 97 French, 53 Germans and 14 Russians. Practically all the Americans in the country are either missionaries or engaged in mining. The capital city is Seoul, with a population of close to three hundred thousand people."—C. W. Kendall, *Truth about Korea, pp. 9-10.*

Agriculture.—"Opinions differ as to the value of Korea's resources. . . . Agriculturally, Korea has great possibilities. It is true that the numerous mountains exclude large areas from cultivation. . . . The bottoms of the more fertile valleys are well occupied by rice-fields; but . . . tens of thousands of acres of . . . land [are] . . . either not cultivated at all or . . . [so] slightly tilled that . . . [they yield] only a small proportion of what . . . [they] might be made to produce. . . . Such intensive cultivation and terracing of hill-sides as one sees in Japan and Syria would enormously increase the agricultural output of Korea. Even under the crude . . . methods of the Koreans the land produces generous harvests of rice, beans, peas, barley, millet, cotton, tobacco, ginseng, and the castor-bean. The first two, being the staple food of the people, are the chief crops. Large quantities of millet are also raised. . . . The ginseng is the best in the world. . . . Less than ten per cent of the area of the country, and less than half of its arable land were under cultivation when the Japanese annexed the peninsula."—A. J. Brown, *Mastery of the Far East, pp. 9-10.*

Early history.—"Like most regions of the extreme East, Korea is known to foreigners by a name which has little currency in the country itself. This term, belonging formerly to the petty state of Korié, has been extended by the Chinese and Japanese to the whole peninsula, under the forms of Kaokiuli, Korai, Kaoli. When all the principalities were fused into one monarchy, towards the close of the 14th century, the country, at that time subject to China, took the official title of Chaosien (Tsiosen)—that is, 'Serenity of the Morning'—in allusion to its geographical position east of the empire. . . . From its very position between China and Japan, Korea could not fail to have been a subject of contention for its powerful neighbours. Before its fusion in one state it comprised several distinct principalities, whose limits were subject to frequent changes. These were, in the north, Kaokiuli (Kaoli), or Korea proper; in the centre, Chaosien and the 78 so-called 'kingdoms' of Chinese foundation, usually known as the San Kan (San Han), or 'Three Han'; in the south, Petsi, or Hiaksaï (Kudara), the Sinlo of the Chinese, or Siragi of the Japanese; beside the petty state of Kara, Zinna, or Mimana, in the south-east, round about the Bay of Tsiosan. The northern regions naturally gravitated towards China, whose rulers repeatedly interfered in the internal affairs of the country. But the inhabitants of the south, known in history by the Japanese name of Kmaso, or 'Herd of Bears,' were long subject to Japan, while at other times they made frequent incursions into Kiu-siu and Hondo, and even formed settlements on those islands. [See JAPAN: 550-708.] The first conquest of the country was made by the forces of the Queen Regent Zingu in the 3d century. Towards the end of the 16th the celebrated Japanese dictator and usurper Taïkosama [Hideyoshi] having conceived the project of conquering China, began with . . . Korea, under the pretext of old Japanese rights over the country of the Kmaso. After wasting the land he compelled the King to become his tributary, and left a permanent garrison in the peninsula. [See JAPAN: 1549-1605.] A fresh expedition, although interrupted by the death of Taïkosama, was equally successful. Tsu-sima remained in the

hands of the Japanese, and from that time till the middle of the . . . [nineteenth] century Korea continued in a state of vassalage, sending every year presents and tribute to Nippon. . . . Thanks to the aid sent by the Ming dynasty to Korea, in its victorious struggle with the other petty states of the peninsula, and in its resistance to Japan, its relations with China continued to be of the most friendly character. Admirers of Chinese culture, the native rulers felt honoured by the investiture granted them by the 'Son of Heaven.' But after the Manchu conquest of the Middle Kingdom, Korea remaining faithful to the cause of the Mings, the new masters of the empire invaded the peninsula, and in 1637 dictated a treaty, imposing on the Koreans a yearly tribute. . . . But although since that time the native ruler takes the title of 'Subject,' China exercises no real sovereign rights in Korea."—E. Reclus, *Earth and its inhabitants: Asia, v. 2, ch.* 6.—"Since the conclusion of that treaty [of 1637], Corea has been at peace with both her neighbours and able, till within . . . [comparatively recent] years, to maintain the seclusion she so much desired. [About] the beginning of the present [nineteenth] century . . . the doctrine preached by Roman missionaries in China began to filter across the frontier, and to provoke a fitful and uncertain intercourse between them and the few Coreans who had been attracted by the new religion. . . . Persecution . . . followed persecution; but from Jacques Velloz, the first missionary to cross the frontier, who suffered martyrdom in 1800, to Mgr. Ridel, who . . . returned to Europe with health shattered by the anxieties and hardships undergone during the latest outbreak, there have always been some priests alternately tolerated or hiding in the country, and the spark lighted by the young Corean attaché has never been quite extinguished. [See Missions, Christian: Korea.] . . . On July 7th, 1866, a Roman Catholic missionary arrived in a Corean boat at Chefoo, with a tale of dire persecution. Two bishops, nine priests, and a number of Christians of both sexes had been massacred, many of them after judicial tortures of atrocious cruelty. Three members of the mission only survived, and M. Ridel had been chosen to carry the news to China, and endeavour to procure assistance. It was to the French authorities, naturally, that he addressed himself; and both Admiral Roze, the Commandant

KOREAN TYPES

of the French fleet in Chinese waters, and M. de Bellonet, then chargé-d'affaires at Peking, lent a sympathetic ear to his protest. . . . An expedition was accordingly resolved on. . . . Admiral Roze started from Chefoo with the expeditionary force on October 11th, arrived off Kang-hwa on the 14th, and occupied it, after a merely nominal resistance, two days later. The Coreans were apparently taken by surprise, having perhaps thought that the danger had passed. . . . The forts along the banks of the river were found ungarrisoned, and Kang-hwa itself, a considerable fortress containing large stores of munitions of war, was practically undefended. A letter was received, a few days later, inviting Admiral Roze to come or send delegates to Söul, to talk over matters in a friendly spirit; but he replied that, if the Corean authorities wished to treat, they had better come to Kang-hwa. This attitude was meant, no doubt, to be impressive, but the event proved it to be slightly premature. So far all had gone well; but the expedition was about to collapse with a suddenness contrasting remarkably with the expectations raised by M. de Bellonet's denunciations and Admiral Roze's hauteur. . . . The disastrous termination of . . . two movements appears to have persuaded Admiral Roze that the force at his disposal was insufficient to prosecute the enterprise to a successful issue, in the face of Corean hostility. It was no longer a question whether he should go to Söul or the Coreans come to him: the expedition was at a deadlock. He had rejected the first overtures, and was not strong enough to impose terms. A retreat was accordingly decided on. The city of Kang-hwa was burned, with its public offices and royal palace."—R. S. Gundry, *China and her neighbours, ch.* 9.

IMAGE OF A WAR GOD
At the grave of the last empress of Korea at Seoul

1866-1894.—**Strained relations with Japan.—Treaty of 1876.—Convention of Tientsien.—Japanese occupation.**—In 1866, when the French threatened Korea, the latter sought help from Japan and received none. Two years later, after the Japanese revolution which restored the mikado to his full sovereignty, the Koreans declined to acknowledge his suzerainty, and bitterly hostile feelings grew up between the two peoples. The Japanese were restrained from war with difficulty by their more conservative statesmen. Without war, they obtained from Korea, in 1876, an important treaty, which contained in the first article "the remarkable statement that 'Chosen, being an independent State, enjoys the same sovereign rights as does Japan'—an admission which was foolishly winked at by China from the mistaken notion that, by disavowing her connection with Korea, she should escape the unpleasantness of being called to account for the delinquencies of her vassal. [See JAPAN: 1868-1894.] This preliminary advantage was more than doubled in value to Japan when, after the revolution in Söul in 1884, by which her diplomatic representative was compelled to flee for the second time from the Korean capital, she sent troops to avenge the insult and declined to remove them until China had made a similar concession with regard to the Chinese garrison, which had been maintained since the previous outbreak in 1882 in that city. By the Convention of Tientsin, which was negotiated in 1885 by Count Ito with the Viceroy Li Hung Chang, both parties agreed to withdraw their troops and not to send an armed force to Korea at any future date to suppress rebellion or disturbance without giving previous intimation to the other. This document was a second diplomatic triumph for Japan. . . . It is, in my judgment, greatly to be regretted that in the present summer [1894] her Government, anxious to escape from domestic tangles by a spirited foreign policy, has abandoned this statesmanlike attitude, and has embarked upon a headlong course of aggression in Korea, for which there appears to have been no sufficient provocation, and the ulterior consequences of which it is impossible to forecast. . . . Taking advantage of recent disturbances in the peninsula, which demonstrated with renewed clearness the impotence of the native Government to provide either a decent administration for its own subjects or adequate protection to the interests of foreigners, and ingeniously profiting by the loophole left for future interference in the Tientsin Agreement of 1885, Japan . . . (in July 1894) landed a large military force, estimated at 10,000 men, in Korea, and is in armed occupation of the capital. Li Hung

Chang . . . responded by the despatch of the Chinese fleet and of an expeditionary force, marching overland into the northern provinces."—G. N. Curzon, *Problems of the Far East, ch. 7.*

1894-1895.—War between China and Japan.—Recognition of Korean independence. See China: 1894-1895; Japan: 1894-1895; Shimonoseki, Treaty of.

1895-1898.—Nominal independence of Korea.—Japanese influence supplanted by Russian.— On January 7, 1895, the independence of Korea (see China: 1894-1895) was formally proclaimed at Seoul. For a time, Japanese influence prevailed, and the party favorable to it controlled affairs. But Russian jealousy gave encouragement to the opposing faction, headed by the queen, and the latter succeeded at length in thwarting most of the aims of the Japanese. The result was a revolutionary conspiracy in October, carried out by a murderous band which broke into the palace and killed three women, one of whom was supposed to be the queen. The assassins were dressed in Japanese costume, and were said to belong to the "soshi," or hireling cutthroats, of that country; but the Japanese government indignantly repudiated the crime, recalled and arrested its minister, who was suspected of complicity, and forbade its subjects to enter Korea without special permission. Russian influence, nevertheless, became dominant soon after; the king yielded to it completely, and obtained riddance of opposing ministers with Russian support. In the end, Russia and Japan came to an agreement, nominally establishing a joint protectorate over Korea; but practically the Japanese seemed to be fairly shouldered out. In the latter part of 1897, the Russian minister to Korea brought about the dismissal of an English official, Mr. Brown, who had been the financial adviser of the Korean government and its commissioner of customs, putting a Russian in his place, and secured a written agreement that none but Russians or Koreans should fill that important post in future. The vigorous remonstrance of the British government, however, caused this action to be reversed. Russia and Japan came to a new understanding in 1898, more favorable to the interests of the latter in Korea. This was embodied in a protocol, signed at Tokyo on April 25, 1898, in terms as follows: "I. That the Governments of Japan and Russia, recognizing the sovereignty and complete independence of Korea, shall in no way directly interfere with the domestic government of that country. II. That in order to avoid misunderstandings in the future, whenever either Japan or Russia is applied to by Korea for advice or assistance, neither contracting party shall take any steps toward the appointment of military instructors or financial advisers without previous consultation with the other. III. That Russia, recognizing the great progress made in commercial and industrial enterprises by Japan in Korea, and the great number of Japanese subjects residing in the settlements, will do nothing to injure the development of the commercial and industrial relations between Japan and Korea."—*United States Consular Reports, Aug.*, 1898, *p.* 591.—A reform party had begun to manifest influence at this time, even aspiring to representative institutions in the government. Various progressive measures were undertaken in 1898; the gold monetary standard was adopted; American engineers were engaged to plan roads, bridges, etc., and new ports were opened.

1900.—Strategic importance of Korea to Russia and Japan.—Japanese jealousy of Russian encroachments in Manchuria and its grounds.— By the beginning of the twentieth century the Japanese were firmly convinced that, when once Russia was firmly seated in Northern China, she must inevitably seek to absorb Korea. In any other hands but her own the Korean peninsula would always be a wedge inconveniently driven in between her older acquisitions on the Pacific seaboard and her more recent acquisitions in the Gulf of Chi-li, nor could she regard her strategical position in the Far East as thoroughly secured so long as she did not command one shore of the straits through which lies the natural waterway between her two naval bases at Vladivostok and at Port Arthur. Port Arthur is situated practically on an inland sea to which the approaches can be dominated, not only by positions such as Wei-hai-wei and Kiao-chau, but by the Korean peninsula and islands as well as by the Japanese archipelago, from Tsushima down to Formosa. "In March, 1900, occurred the first of the events that compelled Japan to issue her second challenge to Europe. It was announced that Russia had secured a concession for exclusive settlement at Masan-Pho, the finest harbor of Korea, and the promise of the Korean government not to cede the island of Koji, off Masan-Pho, to any foreign country; and the Petrograd government forthwith declared its intention to make Masan-Pho a winter harbor for warships. Had Masan-Pho become a naval base, Russia would have dominated the passage from the Japan Sea to the Yellow Sea. Japan sent an ultimatum to Korea, demanding that the concession be canceled, and after a year of bickering the matter was temporarily settled by a grant of concessions at Masan-Pho to both Russia and Japan. At the same time, a joint Korean-Japanese company secured a concession for a railroad from Seoul to the port of Fusan, which is near Masan-Pho, and which the Japanese knew they could develop in such a way as to control Masan-Pho."—H. A. Gibbons, *Introduction to world politics, pp.* 127-128.—See also Japan: 1895-1902.

1902.—Agreement respecting Korea between Great Britain and Japan. See Japan: 1895-1902.

1903.—Second attempt of Russia to gain a footing in the empire.—Fatal weakness of the Korean government.—"The second attempt of Russia to enter Korea occurred in 1903. Inspired by the example of France in Siam, where a lumber concession in the Mekong Valley was being successfully followed up by administrative control of both banks of the river, Russia established a settlement at Phyong-an Do, on the Korean side of the Yalu River. The Koreans rejected this interpretation. There was nothing in the terms of the concession about a settlement. The Russian minister then tried to force Korea to sign supplementary clauses to the original concession, legalizing the occupation of land at Phyong-an Do. Seconded by Great Britain and the United States, Japan backed up the Korean protest. Here the fatal weakness of the Korean government became evident. It was the same kind of weakness that was leading to the partition of China. Afraid of provoking resentment, and unwilling to take either side, Korea sought a solution in inaction. She neither insisted upon the Russians leaving nor signed the supplementary clauses. To get even with Japan, Russia instigated the Korean government to protest against the issue of notes by the Japanese bank at Seoul, the first and only banking enterprise in Korea. The Japanese bank-notes were declared illegal. No steps were taken, however, to prevent their circulation. None could accuse the Koreans of partiality. Unable to de-

fend their own interests, and unwilling to take sides, they simply put up their country as a prize to be fought for and won by the strongest."—H. A. Gibbons, *Introduction to world politics, p.* 128.

1904 (February).—**Japanese occupation.** See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

1904-1905.—**Conventions with Japan, creating protectorate relations with that empire and submitting financial and diplomatic affairs to Japanese control.**—On February 25, 1904, the text of a protocol, concluded on the 23rd, between the governments of Japan and Korea, was communicated to the government of the United States (and, of course to others), by the government of Japan, with an accompanying explanation, as follows:

In the prosecution of the present war the use of some of the ports and some portions of the territory of Korea is found inevitable, and therefore, with a view to facilitate military operations and to show that such use of ports and territory is made with the full knowledge and consent of Korea, and not in disregard or violation of her independence or territorial integrity, and also in order to prevent future complications, the Japanese Government concluded with the Korean Government on the 23d instant the following protocol. . . .

Article I. For the purpose of maintaining permanent and solid friendship between Japan and Korea and firmly establishing peace in the Far East, the Imperial Government of Korea shall place full confidence in the Imperial Government of Japan and adopt the advice of the latter with regard to improvements in administration.

Art. II. The Imperial Government of Japan shall, in a spirit of firm friendship, insure the safety and repose of the Imperial House of Korea.

Art. III. The Imperial Government of Japan definitively guarantee the independence and territorial integrity of the Korean Empire.

Art. IV. In case the welfare of the Imperial House of Korea or the territorial integrity of Korea is endangered by the aggression of a third power or internal disturbances, the Imperial Government of Japan shall immediately take such necessary measures as circumstances require, and in such case the Imperial Government of Korea shall give full facilities to promote the action of the Imperial Japanese Government. The Imperial Government of Japan may, for the attainment of the abovementioned object, occupy, when circumstances require it, such places as may be necessary from strategic points of view.

Art. V. The Government of the two countries shall not in future, without mutual consent, conclude with a third power such an arrangement as may be contrary to the principles of the present protocol.

Art. VI. Details in connection with the present protocol shall be arranged as the circumstances may require between the representative of Japan and the minister of state for foreign affairs of Korea.

On August 30, 1904, an additional agreement between the governments of Japan and Korea, signed in part on the 19th and in part on the 22d of that month, was communicated by the Japanese ambassador to the United States to the state department at Washington, with a note saying: "In communicating this agreement to the Government of the United States I am instructed to say that it is nothing more than the natural consequence or development of the protocol concluded between the Japanese and Korean Governments on the 23rd of last February, which I had the honor to communicate at that time for the information of the Government of the United States. I am further directed to say that the agreement does not in anywise interfere with the full operation or validity of Korea's existing treaties; and that Article II thereof is not intended to place any impediment in the way of legitimate enterprise in Korea, but merely to check, as far as possible, the future conclusion of unwise and improvident engagements, which in the past have been fruitful sources of trouble and complication."

The agreement thus announced was in the following terms:

Article I. The Korean Government shall engage a Japanese subject recommended by the Japanese Government as financial adviser to the Korean Government, and all matters concerning finance shall be dealt with after his counsel shall have been taken.

Art. II. The Korean Government shall engage a foreigner recommended by the Japanese Government as diplomatic adviser to the foreign office, and all important matters concerning foreign relations shall be dealt with after his counsel shall have been taken.

Art. III. The Korean Government shall consult the Japanese Government before concluding treaties and conventions with foreign powers, and also in dealing with other important diplomatic affairs, such as grants of concessions to or contracts with foreigners.

Under a third agreement, signed April 1, 1905, Japan took over the control and operation of the post, telegraph, and telephone services of Korea, in order to "rearrange the system of communications in that country, and, by amalgamating it with that of Japan, to unite the two systems into one."

Finally, on November 17, 1905, a fourth agreement was signed, which definitely surrendered to Japan the "control and direction of the external relations and affairs of Korea," in the following stipulations:

Article I. The Government of Japan, through the department of foreign affairs in Tokyo, will hereafter have control and direction of the external relations and affairs of Korea and the diplomatic and consular representatives of Japan will have the charge of the subjects and interests of Korea in foreign countries.

Art. II. The Government of Japan undertake to see to the execution of the treaties actually existing between Korea and other powers, and the Government of Korea engage not to conclude hereafter any act or engagement having an international character, except through the medium of the Government of Japan.

Art. III. The Government of Japan shall be represented at the court of His Majesty the Emperor of Korea by a resident general, who shall reside at Seoul primarily for the purpose of taking charge of and directing the matters relating to diplomatic affairs. He shall have the right of private and personal audience of His Majesty the Emperor of Korea. The Japanese Government shall have the right to station residents at the several open ports and such other places in Korea as they may deem necessary.

Such residents shall, under the direction of the resident general, exercise the powers and functions hitherto appertaining to Japanese consuls in Ko-

rea, and shall perform such duties as may be necessary in order to carry into full effect the provisions of this agreement.

Art. IV. The stipulations of all treaties and agreements existing between Japan and Korea not inconsistent with the provisions of this agreement shall continue in force.

Art. V. The Government of Japan undertake to maintain the welfare and dignity of the Imperial House of Korea.

With the communication of this agreement to foreign powers there went a declaration by the Japanese government, in part as follows: "The relations of propinquity have made it necessary for Japan to take and exercise, for reasons closely connected with her own safety and repose, a paramount interest and influence in the political and military affairs of Korea. The measures hitherto taken have been purely advisory, but the experience of recent years has demonstrated the insufficiency of measures of guidance alone. The unwise and improvident action of Korea, more especially in the domain of her international concerns, has in the past been the most fruitful source of complications. To permit the present unsatisfactory condition of things to continue unrestrained and unregulated would be to invite fresh difficulties, and Japan believes that she owes it to herself and to her desire for the general pacification of the extreme East to take the steps necessary to put an end once for all to this dangerous situation."—See also JAPAN: 1902-1905.

1905. — Japanese protectorate established. — Methods of enforcing consent of the Korean government.—"The signing [by Japan] of the Treaty of Peace with Russia at Portsmouth [1905] was the signal for a still more active policy in Korea. [See PORTSMOUTH, TREATY OF.] The American people had been brought to believe that the Korean people were as unworthy of regard as the Japanese were above criticism, and steps were taken to arrange for the declaration of a protectorate over the peninsular kingdom. It must be remembered that Japan had solemnly promised, at the beginning of the war, to preserve the independence of Korea, but it now appeared that that promise was made solely as a preparation for the act which was to follow. The seizure of Korea and the extinction of her independence has been called a logical outcome of events. Russia had agreed to recognise Japan's preponderating influence in Korea, but what had that to do with Japan's definite and explicit promise to preserve the independence of Korea? It was evidently only the removal of the last obstacle which stood in the way of the breaking of that promise. But Japan saw that it would be necessary to proceed with caution. The only way to secure a protectorate without a manifest breach of faith was, first, to secure the acquiescence of the Korean government. If Korea could be induced to ask Japan to assume a protectorate, all would go well. Here was the crux of the situation. Early in the autumn of 1905 the Emperor was approached with this suggestion, but he repudiated it instantly. He recognised the predominance of Japanese power in Korea and acquiesced in the advisorships in the various departments, but when it came to turning over the whole government and nation bodily to Japan, without the least hope of a future rehabilitation of the national independence, he refused in the plainest terms. He saw very well that the Japanese were determined to carry the day, but he knew that if he held firm it could not be done without arousing the indignation of the world. He determined to lodge a protest at Washington, forestalling violent action on the part of Japan. The first clauses of . . . [the] treaty of 1883 between Korea and the United States say that if either of the contracting parties is injured by a third party the other shall interfere with her good offices to effect an amicable settlement. It was impossible to lodge this protest in Washington through the Korean Foreign Office, for that was in control of a person thoroughly 'in the sleeve' of Japan. The only thing to do was to send a personal and private communication to the President of the United States, calling attention to Japanese wrongs in Korea, and asking the President to investigate the matter and render Korea what help he could. That message was despatched from Korea in October [1905] at the hand of the writer, but the Japanese surmised what was being done. A Japanese spy on board the steamer at Yokohama discovered the exact hour when the message would arrive in Washington, and from that very hour events were hurried to their culmination in the Korean capital. Marquis Ito was sent to Seoul with definite instructions. Korea was to be induced to sign away her national existence voluntarily. Many conferences took place between the Japanese authorities and the Korean Cabinet, but without result. The Koreans stood firm on the treaty of 1904, in which Japan guaranteed the independence of the country, and nothing could make them budge. Not one of the Cabinet consented. It was quite clear that stronger agencies would have to be used. Finally, after a very strenuous conference at the Japanese legation, the whole meeting adjourned to the audience chamber of the Emperor, and the curtain went up on the last scene of the tragedy. The Emperor and every one of his ministers stood firm. They would die sooner than acquiesce. Repeated exhortations and inducements were offered, but the Koreans were immovable. When this deadlock occurred, the scenes were shifted a little, and Japanese gendarmes and police suddenly appeared and surrounded the audience chamber and blocked every approach to the imperial presence. The Emperor, feeling sure that personal injury was determined upon, retired to a little anteroom. No sane person can deny that he had sufficient reason to fear. The strongest man in the Cabinet was the Prime Minister, Han Kyu-sul, and it was evident that only by segregating him and handling the Cabinet without him could the desired result be accomplished. When, therefore, the Prime Minister retired to the apartment where the Emperor was, supposably with the intention of conferring with him, he was followed by Japanese armed officials and detained in a side room. The Marquis there plead with him to give in, but he was firm. Leaving him there, practically in durance, the Marquis returned to the rest of the Cabinet, who were very naturally alarmed at the non-appearance of the Prime Minister. The moment must have been one of great suspense. Hedged in by armed Japanese, their official chief spirited away and perhaps killed, there is little wonder that another turn of the screw resulted in the defection of several of the Cabinet, and at last a paper was signed by a majority of the ministers present, after a clause had been added to the effect that at some future day when Korea is strong enough and wealthy enough to resume her independence it will be given back to her. The Foreign Minister signed this document, and the seal was attached. There is some question as to just how this last was done. Some say that the seal was purloined from the office by Japanese and the document was

stamped by them. However this may be, we have here the picture of how the agreement was put through, and the reader and the world may judge for themselves how far it was voluntary on the part of the Korean government."—H. B. Hulbert, *Passing of Korea, pp.* 219-222.

1905 (August).—New agreement concerning Korea between Great Britain and Japan. See JAPAN: 1905-1914.

1905-1909.—Japanese control of Korean affairs.—Korean protests.—Enforced abdication of the emperor.—Elevation of his son to the throne.—Attempted revolt.—Japanese view of reforms under Prince Ito.—Korean view.—"In April, 1905, came an agreement under which the postal, telegraph and telephone services of Korea were surrendered into the control of Japan. And in August of the same year it was claimed by Japan and recognized by Great Britain, as stated in the renewal of the Anglo-Japanese alliance, that Japan possessed 'paramount political, military and economic interests in Korea.' The next month, in the Portsmouth treaty of peace, Russia made a similar acknowledgment; and two months later was signed the convention between Japan and Korea, according to which the Japanese department of Foreign Affairs was henceforth to have 'control and direction of the external relations and affairs of Korea,' and Japanese diplomatic and consular officials were to have charge of Korean interests in foreign countries. For the exercise of the control thus authorized, Japan was to be represented at the Korean capital by a 'Resident-General' and by 'Residents' at the several open ports, or at such other places as the Japanese Government might deem necessary. Later the Korean Emperor asserted that his signature to the convention had been forged, and issued a vain appeal to the nations to protect his people against the Japanese. Whether or not the statement that his signature had been forged is correct, has never been determined. But no one has doubted that the convention was against his will, as well as that of his people. Events continued to move rapidly, and in 1907 (July 24) an agreement was entered into between Japan and Korea according to which the Japanese Resident-General was given control over practically all branches of the Korean administration, the Korean Government was obligated to receive the instruction and guidance of the Japanese Resident-General, and no action regarding the enactment of laws and ordinances or important matters of administration was to be taken without his previous approval. His consent was also to be obtained for the appointment or removal of high government officials, and the Korean Government was to appoint as officials such Japanese subjects as might be recommended to it by the Resident-General. At this time, also, the Korean Emperor was forced, under Japanese pressure, to resign in favor of his son—a weak character, and likely to be still more amenable to Japanese influence. It is evident that Korea had now, to all intents and purposes, passed completely under the control of Japan. Japanese high officials continued to assert, however, that there was no intention, upon the part of their government, to annex Korea. In 1908 this was publicly asserted by Prince Ito, the Resident-General at Seoul."—W. W. Willoughby, *Japan and Korea* (*Unpartizan Review, Jan.-Feb.,* 1920).—"The disbandment of the Korean Army was followed by several local risings, in which the disbanded soldiers drilled and led the insurgents; and profiting, as their ancestors had done when fighting against Hideyoshi, by the facilities for guerilla warfare which the natural conditions of the country afforded, they offered such a stout resistance to the Japanese troops sent against them that they were not suppressed till after many months, with great loss in killed and wounded to themselves and substantial loss to the Japanese. Japan testified her desire to use her new powers to the very utmost advantage by nominating Marquis Ito, the great statesman to whose constructive genius she herself owed so much, as the first Resident-General; and he, with characteristic energy and thoroughness, started at once on cleansing the Augean stable which he found before him, in which the foulest stall of corruption was, perhaps, the Court itself. In taxation, in the administration of justice, in the police service, in every sphere of national and local administration, selfish and dishonest parasites of the Court, acting in the name of the King, 'who saw nothing, heard nothing, knew nothing,' were casting their fatal blight on the nation, with no thought of anything but their own enrichment. The entire administration of the Court, its property and revenues, was taken in charge by Japanese officials; the Court and State were differentiated, so that confusion between the Royal and State revenues no longer existed; a Cabinet was formed on the model of that in Japan, in which the head of each department is responsible for the efficient conduct of all business that falls within his jurisdiction. An elaborate scheme of local government was adopted, under which considerable powers of local taxation and administration were left to the authorities of each district. The judicial and executive functions were, under the Korean Government, vested in the same officials. They were now separated and independent courts of justice established, presided over, both in the central and district courts, by Japanese judges, and a beginning was made in codifying the laws. Hitherto the administration of justice had been entirely at the will of executive officials, and their decisions were invariably given to the party who offered the highest bribe. Torture was an incident in every criminal trial, and not only the accused but the witnesses were subjected to it. The prisons were infernos of human suffering, destitute of every semblance of sanitation, in which the prisoners often died of hunger or cold; where punishments of flogging, so severe as often to cause permanent mutilation or death, were of daily occurrence; where the death penalty—inflicted for very trivial crimes—was carried out in slow and agonising forms of strangulation or poisoning; and where no distinction was made between the convicted felon and the prisoner awaiting trial, between the professional criminal whose whole life had been an unbroken career of murder and robbery and the pilferer who had yielded to a momentary temptation. All these abuses were reformed with an unsparing hand. Jails were established on the model of those in Japan, where the punishment and reformation of criminals have been elevated into a science, the guiding principle of which is that, while the guilty must be punished, his reformation is always to be kept in view, so that when his freedom comes he may be a useful member of society. Along with the new prisons, steps were taken to organise an efficient police-force, and training schools were established in which the principal details of their duties were taught to candidates. Schools of every grade—primary, high, normal, technical, and industrial—were opened; and though it was not found practicable to make education compulsory at first, and great prejudices against Japanese teachers had to be overcome before parents could be induced to trust

their children to them, the advantages of the new schools are now being steadily learned by the people, and the numbers of the pupils show large annual increases. Hospitals and waterworks have been established in the great cities, both in accordance with the most advanced principles of medical and engineering science, and both are contributing to the improved health and sanitation of the people. The last result of Prince Ito's administration which we need mention is the improvement of the internal communications. Korea, under its own Government, possessed only one great highway that was worthy of the name of road—that which led from the capital to the northwest frontier, which was constructed mainly for the benefit of the annual Chinese embassy. Save that, the roads were merely bridle-paths, unfitted for either military or commercial traffic, which, at the very best, permitted the passing of two laden oxen. The construction of new roads, well laid and drained, with wide spaces on both sides, was at once commenced, and the work is being steadily pushed forward. The inception of railways in Korea was the result of American enterprise, but it passed at a very early stage into the hands of Japanese; and all that exist are now under the control and management of the Imperial Railway Board at Tokio. The total length now in actual operation is 637 miles of a standard gauge of 4 feet 8½ inches, the two principal lines being from Fusan to Seoul, with a branch to Chemulpo, and from Seoul to Wiju on the frontier, these two lines providing a continuous route from the south-eastern to the north-western extremity of the peninsula. At the south they are connected with the railways of Japan by steamers which run twice daily from both Fusan and Shimonoseki, and on the north only the completion of a bridge across the Yalu is awaited to connect Seoul by rail with Europe. All have been entirely constructed by Japanese engineers with Japanese capital. . . . In the [first] four years which have elapsed since she acquired effective control of the administration of Korea, [Japan] . . . accomplished more permanent reforms than all that Korea did for herself, with her able European advisers, in her previous experience during twenty-five years of Western civilisation. The particulars we have given are only an index of the great work which Prince Ito had already accomplished when he fell by an assassin's hand on October 26, 1909."—J. H. Longford, *Story of Korea, pp.* 354-357.—"Many of the reforms under Ito were wise, beneficent, and far-reaching, especially in cleansing the Court of its vicious practices and corruption, and in setting up new standards for the administration of justice. But the eulogies of these reforms by the historians of that period make strange reading in the light of the events of the few years that followed. Particularly eulogistic are the references to the Ito reforms in the Korean penal system, by the institution of humanitarian methods in treatment of prisoners, the abolition of torture, the improvements in the police force, and the restrictions of the death penalty. Studied from this present side of 1919, the record becomes a satire. It is true that great material benefits have come to Korea since 1910, in that roads have been built, railways lengthened, schools multiplied, and trade developed. This is the record, and a true one, which Japanese propaganda has carried to every quarter of the globe. But that the heart of Japan toward Korea is still the heart of Hideyoshi, that every reform in Korea has been primarily for the benefit of the Japanese resident, and to advance the political plans of Japan, and that the one supreme purpose has ever been the assimilation of the Korean and the destruction of his race so that the incorporation of the peninsula in the Empire of Nippon be made more absolute—these things the inarticulateness of Korea has prevented the world from hearing."—J. W. Graves, *Renaissance of Korea, p.* 33.

1907.—Recognition by France of Japanese rights in Korea. See JAPAN: 1905-1914.

1910.—Formal annexation by Japan.—"In 1910 Korea was formally annexed by Japan and incorporated as an integral part into her Empire. For five years earlier, however, that is, since the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War, Japan's influence in that country had been paramount, and, since 1908 its administration had been wholly within her control. It may seem, therefore, that the relations between Japan and Korea have assumed a significance only from the viewpoint of Japanese constitutional law and domestic policy." —W. W. Willoughby, *Japan and Korea (Unpartizan Review, Jan.-Feb.,* 1920).—"In May, 1910, the government directed the resident general, Count Terauchi, who had succeeded Viscount Sone, to proceed to his post. He was in receipt of the necessary instructions authorizing him to arrange for the annexation. Early in August the count opened the discussion of the subject with the Korean government. Several other conferences followed, and the final phase of the negotiation is told by Count Terauchi himself in a document which he courteously sent me, and which, having a historical interest, is produced here: 'The Korean Court and the Government, assured of the wisdom of our Emperor and of the liberal attitude of His Majesty's Government came to repose implicit confidence in us, so that during the negotiations all our proposals were accepted save only those dealing with the new name of the Peninsula and future title of the Imperial Family. We proposed that its members should bear the title of Taiko (Grand Duke), but the Korean authorities demanded for them the title of Wang (Prince), and that the name of the Peninsula should be Chosen. These conditions were agreed to. In all other respects the negotiations were smoothly conducted. A final meeting of the Korean authorities was held in the presence of the Korean Emperor, attended by all the members of the Cabinet, together with Prince Yi-Keui, the uncle of the Emperor, representing the Imperial Family, Kim-in-Sik, President of the Central Council, representing the Elder Statesmen, the Minister of the Imperial Household, Lord Chamberlain, Chief of the Body Guard, and Chief of the Emperor's aides-de-camp. At this meeting the Emperor dwelt on the amicable relation existing between Korea and Japan, and explained the advisability of amalgamating both nations in order to place their mutual benefit and welfare on a permanent basis. This was followed by the reading of His Majesty's proclamation, and the investment of the Prime Minister, Yi Wang Yong, with full power to conclude the treaty of annexation. Thus authorized, the Premier produced the draft of the treaty for imperial inspection. He explained its provisions clause by clause, and upon obtaining the imperial sanction to it repaired to the office of the Resident-General. The Premier assured me that everything was prepared, and nothing was left undone which was considered necessary for the execution of the compact. The treaty was then signed by him and by me.'

"The annexation treaty was signed on the afternoon of August 22, 1910, and promulgated on the 29th of the same month. By the treaty the Korean emperor ceded all rights of sovereignty over Korea

to the emperor of Japan. Korea is now re-christened Chosen, the ancient title of the peninsula. The security and dignity of the Korean imperial house are sustained by the guarantee of the Japanese government for its perpetual maintenance, with the generous annual allowance of 1,500,000 yen. Japan thus fulfills her pledge to maintain the safety and dignity of the Korean imperial house made in the convention of November 17, 1906, which replaced and superseded the agreement of July 23, 1905, in which it was stipulated that Japan would guarantee the independence and integrity of Korea. The last promise was not given in the convention of 1906. The Korean emperor now becomes (Prince) Li Wang. Upon the other members of the imperial family the appropriate titles are also given, with grants of sufficient allowances. Seventy-two peers of Chosen have been created to reward the elder statesmen, cabinet members, and others who have rendered meritorious services to the state, with generous gifts of money ranging from 25,000 yen to 100,000 yen. For this purpose, and to give employment to the destitute of the Yang-ban class, the sum of 13,000,000 yen was allotted. The membership of the central council, composed exclusively of Koreans, was also increased, so as to admit many statesmen who can reasonably claim a voice in Korean affairs. Local councils have been organized in various provinces for the purpose of consulting the Koreans themselves about the management of their own affairs."—T. Iyenaga, *Japan's annexation of Korea* (*Journal of Race Development, Oct.,* 1912).—See also JAPAN: 1905-1914.—"The record and character of the persons who were chosen to constitute the new nobility were a standing challenge to the sincerity of the new regime, which elevated them. . . . With a very few exceptions they were all the corruptionists and 'squeezers' who had ruined the country. Some of the more upright and respected statesmen were conspicuous by their omission. It was an evidence of a strange turn of psychology. A group of persons, hated and denounced when they had their own way, become so converted and metamorphosed overnight that their new worth is recognized by hereditary nobility and monetary grants."—H. H. Cynn, *Rebirth of Korea, p.* 89.

1910-1919.—Japanese policy in Korea.—"The imperial rescript proclaiming the annexation was the signal for the systematic Japanization of Korea to begin. And it was begun with all the method and thoroughness so characteristic of the people of Nippon. The conciliatory policy of Marquis Ito gave way to a Bismarckian policy of blood and iron. Instead of being farsighted enough to grant the Koreans . . . [a] large measure of autonomy . . . they made the mistake of attempting to extirpate the language and the literature of the Koreans, to destroy their national ideals, to root out their ancient manners and customs. . . . In adopting this policy, they committed the first of the series of psychological and political blunders which have caused such grave criticism of Japanese rule in Korea, and which have provided the enemies of Japan with so much ammunition. I am not suggesting that progressive Japanese opinion approved this policy, for it did not. The Korean programme represented the views of the military party alone. Indeed, there was a very considerable element in Japan which disapproved of the annexation altogether, holding that a resentful and rebellious Korea, annexed against her will, standing at Japan's very door, would prove a source of weakness rather than of strength to the Empire. Korea was now an integral part of the Japanese Empire. But, though the instrument which brought the two peoples together specifically and impliedly provides that Koreans shall have a share in the public affairs of Japan, the Japanese proceeded to treat Korea as a conquered nation. It was at once placed under military rule, General Count Terauchi, a grim soldier of the old Samurai school, being appointed Resident-General, and clothed with almost sovereign powers. Soldiery, gendarmerie, and police were poured into the new province, until it assumed the appearance of a great armed camp. Then, with the stage set, the curtain rose on the tragic spectacle of the denationalization of a people. . . . One of the first steps taken by the Japanese in their organized campaign of denationalization was the enactment of legislation denying freedom of the press, of speech, and of assembly to the Koreans. In pursuance of this policy, all the papers and periodicals owned or managed by Koreans were suppressed. 'At the end of the fiscal year 1916 there were twenty newspapers published in Chosen, of which eighteen were in English,' says the *Annual Report* [Japanese publication], which might have added that they were all Japanese, and that three of them, including the last two, were government organs. During the reign of repression the only non-Japanese publications in Korea were certain newspapers printed secretly, while their publishers were 'on the run,' and distributed from hand to hand, like the famous Belgian journals issued during the German occupation. The hand-presses and type were conveyed from hiding-place to hiding-place under cover of night, the lives of the editors being as thrilling as the Japanese police and spies could make them. It having been determined that the Korean language, like Korean literature, should die, an attempt was made to destroy it by making Japanese the official tongue, not only in public documents and court proceedings, but, wherever possible, in the schools. . . . Though Korea has a history reaching back into the past for two thousand years, its teaching in the schools was forbidden. Nor, with the exception of certain specially favored individuals, were Koreans permitted to go abroad for study, save to Japan; and those who had been studying abroad were not permitted to return. Moreover, those who succeeded in obtaining permission to attend the Imperial University at Tokyo were discouraged, if not actually forbidden, from specializing in such subjects as law, constitutional government, history, and economics, it being the Japanese policy to encourage industrial education along practical lines for their new subjects, to the exclusion of everything else. . . . 'The holding of public meetings in connection with political affairs, or the gathering of crowds out of doors, was also prohibited, except open-air religious gatherings, or school excursion parties, permission for which might be obtained of the police authorities.' Thus reads a passage in the *Annual Report,* which states further that 'most of the political associations and similar bodies were ordered to dissolve themselves at the time of annexation. . . . Since then there has been no political party or association, as such, among the Koreans.' This regulation was even more comprehensive than its wording would suggest: a Y. M. C. A. had to submit to the police the date, hour, speaker, and topic of discussion of a proposed meeting, before it could obtain permission to hold it; the same prohibitive principle applied to interscholastic field-meets, in which two or more schools proposed participating. Another source of Korean resentment was provided by the Japanese attitude toward religion. Broadly speaking, religious instruction was forbidden in Korean schools. Religious gath-

erings of more than five persons were required to obtain a permit from the police, and native Christians had to obtain special authorization to hold religious services. . . . Though, upon annexation, Korea became, in theory at least, a province of the Empire, the Koreans were permitted neither a national assembly nor representation in the Japanese Diet, thus giving them justification for adopting the slogan, 'Taxation without representation is tyranny.' . . . Though, in principle, the Koreans were to be accorded the same treatment as other subjects of the Emperor, discrimination of the most flagrant character was practised against them everywhere. For example, corporal punishment could be legally administered only to Koreans. Hence, if a Japanese was convicted of a misdemeanor, he was imprisoned or fined. If a Korean was convicted of the same offense, he was flogged—sometimes into insensibility. If a Japanese was killed by the Seoul street-railways, his family was paid two hundred yen. If the victim was a Korean, the indemnity was half that sum. A Japanese common laborer received over half again as much pay as a Korean laborer engaged in the same task; and the same rule applied to skilled workmen, and, for that matter, to government officials. While eleven years were allowed the Japanese youths for primary and secondary education, only eight years were allowed the Koreans. It has been suggested, incidentally, that this discrimination in the curricula was the highest unintentional compliment the Japanese could pay to the exceptional intellectual ability of the sons and daughters of Korea. Even more humiliating and degrading were the various forms of social discrimination practised against the Koreans. I can assert, from personal observation, that the great majority of Japanese treat the Koreans in personal intercourse as the dirt beneath their feet. It is only fair to add, however, that this disregard of Korean susceptibilities is confined, in the main, to Japanese of the lower and middle classes. . . . Immediately upon annexation the peninsula was flooded with gendarmes, police, spies, and informers, who promptly proceeded to inaugurate a reign of terror. On the pretext of searching for arms or seditious literature, the police entered private residences without search warrants, still further irritating the Koreans by invading the apartments of the women. Spies, usually low-class Koreans, were everywhere, adding to the general demoralization. No one knew when, or in what form, the most harmless acts or words might be reported to the authorities. Yet the Koreans had no appeal from these oppressions, because, with no newspapers, they had no way of making themselves heard. The police, in addition to their regular functions of crime-prevention and the apprehension of criminals, were given judicial power. They could sentence prisoners to fines, flogging, imprisonment, or exile. . . . Add to this the fact, of which there exists indubitable proof, that the police frequently tortured innocent persons in order to extract testimony from them, and it will be seen that the Koreans had abundant ground for complaint. . . . The records of the summary courts—which correspond to our police courts—for 1915, show a total of 59,483 persons brought to trial and only seven acquitted. Dr. Gleason, who is strongly pro-Japanese, asserts that, in the four years 1913-16, 221,000 persons were tried and only 496 acquitted. In the report issued by the Government-General for the year 1916-17, it is stated that, out of 82,121 offenders dealt with 'in police summary judgment,' 81,139 were sentenced, 952 were pardoned, and only 30 were able to prove their innocence. Dr. Hugh C. Cynn, in his dispassionate and, on the whole, remarkably just book, *The Rebirth of Korea,* dryly remarks that 'either the Japanese police in Korea are so superior to those of all other nations in detecting crime that they almost never run down any but the actual criminals, or the Koreans, when they get into the meshes of the police- and gendarme-interpreted ordinances, find it next to impossible to prove their innocence.' "—E. A. Powell, *Japan's policy in Korea* (*Atlantic Monthly, Mar.,* 1922).—"The oppression of Korea has not been confined to language and education alone. An economic oppression was inaugurated which has already brought ruin to thousands of Korean merchants and landholders. Although, statistically, the total wealth of the country has increased since Japanese occupation, the figures are due to the decrease in the buying value of money. Today [written in 1919] the economic status of the Koreans is worse than it was under the old administration. Since the seizure of the country, over one million five hundred thousand Koreans have emigrated to China and Siberia, primarily because they could not stand the economic pressure brought to bear upon them by their conquerors. . . . One of the first deeds of the Japanese was to survey the country and confiscate all lands belonging to the royal household, to the municipalities and to the Buddhist Temples. They explained this act on the technical ground that since these lands did not belong to private individuals, they must be the property of the government. The Korean owners were dispossessed and driven out without remuneration and the land was leased or sold to Japanese farmers. In some cases where Koreans protested against the seizure, they were fastened to crude wooden crosses and shot. Under the direction of the Japanese Government, the Oriental Colonization Company was organized to promote Japanese colonization of Korea and thus further Japanize the country. To induce emigrants to invade the peninsula, this company offered every Japanese settler free transportation to Korea and provided him with a home and a piece of land, to be paid for in three or four years. The plan in theory is identical with Bismarck's idea for Prussianizing Poland. Another method by which the Japanese gained possession of land was to force the Korean owners to sell at a ridiculously low figure. Rice is the chief agricultural product in Korea and the water, irrigating the rice fields, runs from one field to another in succession. The agents for the Oriental Colonization Company buy the rice patch through which the water runs to the desired piece of land. Then Japanese agents or 'farmers' cut off the water supply, and the Korean owner, after vain protests, is finally forced to sell his now worthless land to the Oriental Colonization Company at their own figure or remain on it and starve. Already one-third of the best land in Korea is in the hands of the Japanese."—C. W. Kendall, *Truth about Korea, pp.* 17-19.

"Yet, during this same discouraging decade [1910-1920], the Japanese made amazing material progress in Korea. The old, effete, corrupt administration was swept away. A cabinet was formed on the model of that in Japan. An elaborate system of local government was adopted. The judiciary was reformed. A sound monetary system was established and maintained. Prisons were cleansed and modernized. The mileage of the railways was doubled. The inadequate Korean harbors were transformed into spacious ports, equipped with all modern appliances. Remarkable improvements in the public health were effected by

government hospitals and systems of sanitation. New waterworks were built in fourteen cities and towns. The 500 miles of road which existed in 1910 were increased to 8000, it being proposed eventually to cover the peninsula with a network of highways. New industries were introduced, nearly 800 factories, something theretofore unknown in the land, being established, which provided occupation for thousands of Koreans. Handsome and substantial public buildings were erected. Streets were extended and paved, and charming parks laid out. Primary, secondary, technical, agricultural, forestry, and other schools, model farms and experimental stations, were opened. Agriculture—the mainstay of the country—was enormously developed, the Korean farmer being taught new and profitable side lines: fruit, cotton, sugar-beet, hemp, tobacco, and silkworm culture, and sheep-breeding. Afforestation was pushed forward on a truly astounding scale, no less than half a billion young trees being set out by the Japanese Forestry Service on the bare, brown hillsides. The area of cultivated land was doubled. Fruit production was more than doubled. The output of the Korean coal mines was trebled. Cotton acreage increased by more than 4500 per cent, and salt production by more than 7000 per cent. There were increases of several hundred per cent in the acreages of wheat, beans, and barley. By the introduction of modern appliances the value of the fishery products was doubled. The foreign trade of Korea went up from 59,000,000 yen to 131,000,000 yen in seven years. In less than a decade after the annexation, there were a million depositors in the postal-savings banks—and this in a country with a notoriously shiftless and improvident population."—E. A. Powell, *Japan's policy in Korea* (*Atlantic Monthly, Mar.*, 1922).—See also MANCHURIA: 1905-1914.

1912.—Conspiracy case.—Conduct of trial.— "'The Conspiracy Case,' as reviewed with extreme brevity in the official Annual Report of Reforms and Progress in Chosen for 1912-1913 [a Japanese publication], may be thus described. While prosecuting a robber arrested in the North Heian Province, the fact was disclosed that a band of conspirators had been planning to assassinate Count Terauchi, Governor-General of Chosen. The police examination resulted in the arrest of 142 suspected persons, all but seven of whom, after examination by the Procurator of the Keijo Local Court, with the further exception of eleven more, were remanded for public trial on the charge of conspiracy to kill. At the first trial, which opened on June 28 and closed on August 30, sixteen of the accused were acquitted on 'account of insufficiency of evidence.' But Baron Yun Chi-ho [president of the Southern Methodist College and vice-president of the Korean Y. M. C. A.], Yang Keuitaik, and five others, were sentenced to ten years penal servitude; and the remainder to penal servitude varying from five to seven years. The convicted prisoners appealed to the Keijo Appeal Court, which after sitting fifty-one times, acquitted 99 of the accused and reduced the number of years of imprisonment required in punishment of the remaining five. The convicted now appealed to the Higher Court of the Government-General for revision. This court transferred the case to the Taiku Appeal Court for a rehearing; and the latter, with only a slight modification in the length of one of the sentences, reaffirmed its former decision. Another appeal to the Higher Court was then taken; and at last, on October 9, a final decision was reached and the lower court upheld. The government was severely and not altogether unreasonably criticized for its conduct of the 'Conspiracy Case,' by those who had no personal interest in the accused, chiefly on these two grounds: first, the large number of persons finally convicted; and, second, the complications, delays, and seeming suppression of evidence that characterized certain portions of the trial process. The force of these criticisms can, however, be greatly modified, if not altogether broken, by a more accurate knowledge of the facts and a clearer understanding of the whole bearing of the case. As to the first subject of criticism, the government had knowledge of the existence of a secret society, called Sin Min Hoi, which in the words of the public prosecutor was 'first started in America by Korean residents in 1904. In the following year a branch of the society was organized in Chosen with Baron Yun as President and Major Lyn as Vice-President. It had a membership of 200,000 in Chosen, Hawaii, America, and Russia. The chief objects of the society were emigration to Chientao, establishment of a military school there, and the assassination of leading Korean and Japanese statesmen.' These figures will not seem so appalling when we consider that assassination, and the formation of secret societies for this and other similar criminal purposes had been for centuries the forte of the Koreans; that the Sin Min Hoi had already, besides such notable instances as Prince Ito, Mr. Stevens, and several prominent Korean officials, made successful attempts upon the lives of approximately 1,000 of the Il Chin Hoi, its rival pro-Japanese society. Moreover, the government had just barely got the better of the armed forces of the insurrection; and the population, native, Japanese and foreign was in a decidedly panicky condition."—G. T. Ladd, *Japan in the orient* (*Journal of Race Development, Oct.*, 1915).

"The following extracts are from a pamphlet entitled 'The Korean Conspiracy Case,' issued in New York on November 20, 1912, as the 'outcome of a conference of representatives of all the missionary organizations of the United States . . . conducting work in Korea with several eminent laymen . . . connected with these organizations and whose counsel was sought because their international reputation and their detachment from the missionary interests immediately involved fitted them to give dispassionate advice.' . . . It is deeply to be regretted that the trial proved to be of such a character as to strengthen the grave fears regarding the methods of the Japanese. The methods of procedure impress a Western mind as peculiar. The lawyers for the defence were not permitted to confer with their clients until shortly before the public trial, months after the prosecution had prepared its case with freest secret access to the prisoners. When their lawyers were given permission to see them, the conversations were in the presence of a scowling police so that the sorely beset men could imagine what their jailers would do to them afterwards if anything was said that did not please them. The enormous voluminous records of the case were not made accessible to the counsel for the defence until it was too late to give them proper study or to verify the allegations of facts. In court, all questions were asked and witnesses examined through and at the option of the presiding judge. The jury system has not reached Japan, and the whole course of trial showed that the Judges had made up their minds before the trial and that they were in effect judges, jury and prosecuting attorneys combined. . . . As the trial proceeded the hostile and unjudicial attitude of the Court became more and more apparent. Innumerable questions by the

Judges were clearly intended to be traps for the men whom they were trying. . . . Finally, the perversion of justice became so gross that on July 17th, the counsel for the defence boldly refused to proceed and announced that they 'felt it proper to state their opinion that the trial was not being conducted in a regular manner and in accordance with Art. 41 in the Code of Criminal Procedure, for the honour of the Imperial Judiciary and with a view to the full defence of the accused,' and they therefore applied for the unseating of the Chief Judge Tsukahara and his colleagues and for a new trial under different judges. The Court announced a suspension of the trial, pending appeal to a higher Court for the assignment of other judges. The appeal was overruled, and after some delay, the trial was resumed August 23rd, but was brought to a close in the unexpectedly short period of four days. The Judges reserved their decision till September 28th when they sentenced 105 of the defendants to terms of imprisonment—6 for ten years, 18 for seven years, 39 for six years, 42 for five years."—*Claim of the Korean people and nation (Korean delegation at the peace conference, pp. 22-23).*

1919.—**Independence movement.—Death of ex-Emperor Yi.—Proclamation of Independence.—Provisional government and constitution.—Demonstrations outside of Korea.—At Paris peace conference.**—"The Independence Movement in Korea is not a new thing. It began fourteen years ago, just after Japan had forced the Korean Cabinet to grant her a suzerainty and had stepped in to rule the people à contre cœur. Many of the Korean leaders, seeing the futility of doing anything at that time to free their people from the powerful Military Autocracy whose yoke was already upon their necks, fled to foreign countries. Others who had tried, in the last desperate moments, to save their country and had failed were forced to seek safety in America and China. Gradually these refugees and patriots came together and organized associations, each member of which dedicated the remainder of his life to free the people at home from the hand of Japanese oppression. These associations were, for the most part, composed of Korean scholars and graduates from American universities and preparatory schools. They were not, as charged by the Japanese Government, composed of rabid radicals, disgruntled politicians, or Bolsheviki. At the same time, societies with a similar purpose were organized in Korea in spite of the rigid Japanese spy system. The largest of these, the Chun Do Kyo, or 'Heaven Worshipers,' was encouraged by the Japanese authorities themselves. It was organized as a religious cult—supposedly opposed to Christianity—whose teachings were a combination of Buddhism, Tailis, ancestral worship and Korean superstition. In reality, it was a great political club whose members numbered over three million patriotic Koreans. Quietly and with careful deliberation they prepared for the day when they could strike. Then along came the European War and President Wilson's famous statement in his address to the Senate in 1917 that . . . 'henceforth security of life, of worship, and of industrial and social development should be guaranteed to all peoples who have lived hitherto under the power of governments devoted to a faith and purpose hostile to their own.' . . . The time to strike had come. When the Peace Conference, with its ideals of 'self-determination,' met in Paris, it gave to the oppressed Koreans the longed-for chance to place their problem before the world. So, at the opening of 1919, these exiled patriots went secretly to Korea and, in conjunction with the secret societies there, organized committees to begin the movement for re-establishing their independence. Their work was quiet and effective. Their plan was to begin a 'Passive Revolution.' No one, not even the Japanese, was to be harmed. No property was to be destroyed or injured. No radicalism, no I. W. W.-ism, no Bolshevism was to be tolerated or associated in any way with the movement. But a persistent passive agitation was to be instituted and continued until success attended their object—freedom from Japanese Military Autocracy. In the latter part of January, an event occurred which brought things to a head. The old ex-Emperor Yi passed away in his palace at Seoul. The circumstances of his death were very peculiar, which led to a report getting out among the people that he had committed suicide in order to prevent the consummation of the marriage of his son, Prince Kon, to the Japanese Princess Nashinoto. This wedding had been fixed for about January 29th—one week after the death of the ex-Emperor. The Prince had formerly been engaged to a Korean girl, but this engagement was forcibly broken off when the Prince was taken to Japan some years ago. The father of this girl is said to have died at almost the same time and under the very same peculiar conditions attending the ex-Emperor's death—so-called apoplexy—and again it was reported that suicide had been the real cause of death. These circumstances powerfully affected the people throughout the whole country, and the old ex-Emperor was greatly glorified and worshiped. Therefore, it was determined to begin the demonstration on the date of his funeral, March 4th—for other reasons as well. A rigid spy system had been put in operation by the Japanese authorities. Under this system every Korean was registered like a criminal and given a number which was known to the police. Whenever a Korean left his home village or town, he was required to register at the police station, stating his reason for traveling and where he intended to go. The general plan was to make Seoul the center of activities, inasmuch as the foreign legations were there and the whole purpose of the movement was designed to gain recognition and publicity. A sudden influx of Koreans into Seoul, with no apparent cause, would immediately create suspicion on the part of the Japanese police. If, however, the country people came into the capital to attend the ex-Emperor's funeral, no suspicion would be aroused. For this reason, as well as the other, March 4th was decided upon by the leaders. In some way the news leaked out to the police authorities. But the Japanese police force and spy system were made up of a large number of native Koreans whom the Japanese thought they had won over as their own tools. In reality these Koreans had slowly been creeping into the positions of policemen, stool-pigeons and gendarmes in order to be ready for the day their people were to strike against the hated Japanese. No sooner had the Japanese authorities been notified of the proposed demonstrations than they issued orders to these 'supposed' Japanized detectives to get busy. These loyal Koreans immediately notified the leaders, who, with but a few days before them, suddenly changed the date to Saturday, March 1st—the day for the rehearsal of the funeral. The rehearsal for a Korean funeral is almost as magnificent as the event itself; so the sudden influx of Koreans into Seoul at the rate of five thousand a day to witness the rehearsal was nothing extraordinary. In the meantime, the most prominent representatives of all classes, religions and sects had drawn

up a Declaration of Independence and signed it. Copies of this, as well as instructions as to what was expected of the people, were sent to the local leaders all over Korea through the aid of loyal little schoolgirls who hid them in their capacious sleeves and trudged from town to town, bringing the messages of freedom. It was arranged for passive demonstrations to break out simultaneously in all the large cities and towns in the peninsula; also in Tokio, Shanghai and various other cities in Japan, China, Manchuria, Russia, the United States and other countries. In Seoul itself the people were to divide into groups of three thousand each—each group under a leader—and to march to different consulates and government offices, singing Korean national airs and shouting 'Mansai,' which is the Korean for 'Hurrah.' They were not to resist the Japanese Police. If they were beaten, imprisoned or even killed they were to take their punishmnt without complaint, and to do nothing which would bring reproach upon the name of Korea or their movement. The night before the demonstration was to begin, twenty-nine of the thirty-three signers of the Declaration of Independence gathered in Seoul. After a meeting in which final arrangements were checked up and the proclamation read aloud for the first time, they all adjourned to a prominent restaurant for a last dinner together. It was one of the most singular banquets ever held in the history of any nation. Each man present realized that as soon as the proclamation, bearing his signature, was in the hands of the Japanese authorities he would be hunted down and executed or thrown into prison. All of them were acquainted with the efficiency and methods of the Japanese spy system. They knew that to attempt to escape would be useless. So when the banquet was completed and the last toast spoken they went to the telephone, called up the Japanese police, told them what they had done and that they were ready to go to prison. Then consecrating their lives to the freedom of Korea, they calmly awaited the arrival of the government authorities. No resistance was offered when the police arrived. They were bundled into automobiles and taken away to prison. One of the signers, having arrived too late to participate in the meeting and dinner, went directly to the prison and asked to be treated the same as the others."—C. W. Kendall, *Truth about Korea, pp.* 24-28.—"On Saturday, March 1, at two o'clock P. M., the Independence Proclamation was read to expectant crowds gathered in every city in Korea, with cheers of *Mansei, Mansei, Mansei!* The Independence Proclamation follows:

THE PROCLAMATION OF KOREAN INDEPENDENCE

We herewith proclaim the independence of Korea and the liberty of the Korean people. We tell it to the world in witness of the equality of all nations, and we pass it on to our posterity as their inherent right. We make this proclamation, having back of us a history of forty-three centuries and 20,000,000 united, loyal people. We take this step to insure to our children for all time to come, life and liberty in accord with the awakening consciousness of this new era. This is the clear leading of God, the moving principle of the present age, the just claim of the whole human race. It is something that cannot be stamped out, or stifled, or gagged, or suppressed by any means. Victims of an older age, when brute force and the spirit of plunder ruled, we have come after these long thousands of years to experience the agony of ten years of foreign oppression, with every loss to the right to live, every restriction of the freedom of thought, every damage done to the dignity of life, every opportunity lost for a share in the intelligent advance of the age in which we live. Assuredly, if the defects of the past are to be rectified, if the wrongs of the present are to be righted, if future oppression is to be avoided, if thought is to be set free, if right of action is to be given a place, if we are to attain to any way of progress, if we are to deliver our children from the painful heritage of shame, if we are to leave blessing and happiness intact for those who succeed us, the first of all necessary things is the complete independence of our people. What cannot our twenty millions do, with hearts consecrated to liberty, in this day when human nature and conscience are making a stand for truth and right? What barrier can we not break, what purpose can we not accomplish? We have no desire to accuse Japan of breaking many solemn treaties since 1876, nor to single out specially the teachers in the schools or the Government officials who treat the heritage of our ancestors as a colony of their own, and our people and our civilization as a nation of savages, and who delight only in beating us down and bringing us under their heel. We have no wish to find special fault with Japan's lack of fairness or her contempt for our civilization and the principles on which her state rests; we, who have greater cause to reprimand ourselves, need not spend time in finding fault with others; neither need we, who require so urgently to build for the future, spend useless hours over what is past and gone. Our urgent need to-day is the rebuilding of this house of ours and not the discussion of who has broken it down, or what has caused its ruin. Our work is to clear the future of defects in accord with the earnest dictates of conscience. Let us not be filled with bitterness or resentment over past agonies or past occasions for anger. Our part is to influence the Japanese Government, dominated as it is by the old idea of brute force which thinks to run counter to reason and universal law, so that it will change and act honestly and in accord with the principles of right and truth. The result of annexation, brought about against the will of the Korean people, is that the Japanese are concerned only for their own gain, and by a false set of figures show a profit and loss account between us two peoples most untrue, digging a trench of everlasting resentment deeper and deeper the farther they go. Ought not the way of enlightened courage to be to correct the evils of the past by ways that are sincere, and by true sympathy and friendly feeling make a new world in which the two peoples will be equally blessed? To bind by force twenty millions of resentful Koreans will mean not only loss of peace forever for this part of the Far East, but also will increase the ever-growing suspicions of four hundred millions of Chinese—upon whom depends the safety of the Far East—besides strengthening the hatred of Japan. From this all the rest of the East will suffer. To-day Korean independence will mean not only life and happiness for us, but also Japan's departure from an evil path and her exaltation to the place of true protector of the East, so that China too would put all fear of Japan aside. This thought comes from no minor resentment, but from a large hope for the future welfare and blessing of mankind. A new era awakes before our eyes, the old world of force is gone, and the new world of righteousness and truth is here. Out of the experience and travail of the old world arises this

light on the affairs of life. Insects stifled by their foe, the snows of winter, are also awakened at this time of the year by the breezes of spring and the warm light of the sun upon them. It is the day of the restoration of all things, on the full tide of which we set forth without delay or fear. We desire a full measure of satisfaction in the way of life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, and an opportunity to develop what is in us for the glory of our people. In this hope we go forward.

We pledge three items of agreement:

1. This work of ours is in behalf of truth, justice, and life, undertaken at the request of our people, in order to make known their desire for liberty. Let no violence be done to any one. 2. Let those who follow us show every hour with gladness this same spirit. 3. Let all things be done with singleness of purpose, so that our behaviour to the very end may be honourable and upright.

The 4252d year of the Kingdom of Korea, 3rd Month, 1st day.

Representatives of the people.

The signatures attached to the document are:

Son Byung Hi, Kil Sun Chu, Yi Pil Chu, Paik Long Sung, Kim Won Kyu, Kim Pyung Cho, Kim Chang Choon, Kwon Dong Chin, Kwon Byung Duk, Na Yong Whan, Na In Hup, Yang Chun Paik, Yang Han Mook, Lew Yer Dai, Yi Kop Sung, Yi Mung Yong, Yi Seung Hoon, Yi Chong Hoon, Yi Chong Il, Lim Yei Whan, Pak Choon Seung, Pak Hi Do, Pak Tong Wan, Sin Hong Sik, Sin Suk Ku, Oh Sei Chang, Oh Wha Young, Chung Choon Su, Choi Sung Mo, Choi In, Han Yong Woon, Hong Byung Ki, Hong Ki Cho.

". . . Demonstrations consisted of reading the Independence Proclamation, one or two short addresses by leaders, then waving Korean flags and shouting *Mansei*. It was held in front of every one of the foreign consulates in Seoul. The whole country was mapped out in districts with leaders in each to hold these demonstrations. In a city like Seoul or Pyeng Yang, several demonstrations were held in different sections of the city at the same time. The old Liberty Bell in Chongno broke its long silence, the Korean flag above the Independence Arch outside of Seoul was painted afresh, and the historic watchfire from the top of Namsan in Seoul and Moranbong in Pyeng Yang once again signalled freedom. It was soon seen that all classes of people were involved in the movement. Shopkeepers closed their stores, and policemen, who had worked under the Japanese, took off their uniforms and joined the demonstrations. The students from both Government and private schools absented themselves with the result that the schools had to be closed. Farmers in the country gathered in their respective districts to celebrate, and threatened that they would not plant their crops if independence was not granted. . . . The literati, the most conservative element of the Korean population, also joined the demonstrators. A group of them sent a petition to the Governor-General, demanding the withdrawal of Japanese soldiers from Korea and the restoration of Korean independence. . . . The movement was kept up despite military suppression. The Koreans were unflinchingly determined to continue their work for freedom till the end. In order to do so, they saw the necessity for creating organic machinery to carry on the function. On April 23, 1919, at a time when the persecution was at its height, delegates from each of the thirteen provinces of Korea met in Seoul, framed a constitution creating a Republic and elected the first Ministry. . . . The Ministry was composed of the President, the Premier and the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Interior, War, Finance, Justice, Education, Communication, Labour, and the Chief of Staff. The personnel of the Ministry was most significant. Every one of the men elected had been in public affairs in Korea in the past. . . . When the delegates from the thirteen provinces met in Seoul, in April, 1919, Dr. [Syngman] Rhee was unanimously elected as the President of the Provisional Government of the Republic of Korea."—H. Chung, *Case of Korea, pp.* 199-203, 209-212.—The text of the Korean constitution is as follows:

By the will of God, the people of Korea, both within and without the country, have united in a peaceful declaration of their independence and for over one month have carried on their demonstrations in over 300 districts, and because of their faith in the movement they have, by their representatives, chosen a Provisional Government to carry on to completion this independence, and so to preserve blessings for our children and grandchildren. The Provisional Government, in its Council of State, has decided on a provisional Constitution, which it now proclaims. 1. The Ta Han (Korean) Republic shall follow republican principles. 2. All powers of State shall rest with the Provisional Council of State and the Provisional Government. 3. There shall be no class distinction among the citizens of the Ta Han Republic, but men and women, noble and common, rich and poor, shall have equality. 4. The citizens of the Ta Han Republic shall have religious liberty, freedom of speech, freedom of writing and publication, the right to hold public meetings and form social organizations and the full right to choose their dwellings or change their abode. 5. The citizens of the Ta Han Republic shall have the right to vote for all public officials or to be elected to public office. 6. Citizens will be subject to compulsory education and military service and payment of taxes. 7. Since by the will of God the Ta Han Republic has arisen in the world and has come forward as a tribute to the world peace and civilization, for this reason we wish to become a member of the League of Nations. 8. The Ta Han Republic will extend benevolent treatment to the former imperial family. 9. The death penalty, corporal punishment, and public prostitution will be abolished. 10. Within one year of the recovery of our lands the National Congress will be convened.

Signed by the Provisional Secretary of State and the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Home Affairs, Justice, Finance, War, Communications. In the first year of the Ta Han Republic, fourth month.

The following are six principles of government:

1. We proclaim the equality of the people and the State. 2. The lives and property of foreigners shall be respected. 3. All political offenders shall be specifically pardoned. 4. We will observe all treaties that shall be made with foreign powers. 5. We swear to stand by the independence of Korea. 6. Those who disregard the orders of the Provisional Government will be regarded as enemies of the State.

"Before the outbreak of the Independence Movement in Korea, proper, the Korean students in Tokio, Japan, numbering about eight hundred, drew up a petition to present to the Japanese

Emperor and Diet, as well as to the foreign Ambassadors and Ministers in Japan, asking for the freedom and independence of Korea. When they attempted to hand in the petition they came into conflict with the Japanese police and an open fight ensued. Over sixty students were arrested and some given prison terms. In the United States demonstrations were held by the Koreans in New York, Chicago, Denver, Detroit, Honolulu, Akron, Ohio; Pueblo, Colorado; Yakima, Washington; Superior, Wyoming, and in San Francisco, Sacramento, Stockton, Riverside and Los Angeles, California. In Philadelphia—the Cradle of American Liberty—a congress of Koreans and sympathetic Americans convened. . . . Meanwhile, other demonstrations were held in Mexico, Manila, Shanghai, Pekin, Siberia and Manchuria. In many of these places proclamations were issued, declaring the independence of Korea, and given into the hands of the foreign embassies. . . . Three delegates were appointed [at the National Council which met at Nikolskoe, on the Ussuri river in Siberia] to put the plea of the Korean people before the League of Nations. Two of them, Dr. Henry Chung and Dr. Syngman Rhee, were in the United States, having fled from Korea just before its annexation by the Japanese. They held old Korean passports, which the State Department at Washington could not recognize as valid without straining diplomatic relationship between the United States and Japan. Naturally the Japanese Government refused to issue new ones. Therefore, the third delegate, John Kiusic Kimm, was the only one to reach Paris. He presented the claims before the Peace Conference." —C. W. Kendall, *Truth about Korea, pp.* 34-35.

1919-1922. — Ruthless suppression of independence movement.—Reforms.—Dissatisfaction of Korean leaders.—Continuance of Korean agitation. — Outlook. — "The movement was a demonstration, not a riot. On the opening day and afterwards—until the Japanese drove some of the people to fury—there was no violence. The Japanese, scattered all over the country, were uninjured; the Japanese shops were left alone; when the police attacked, elders ordered the people to submit and to offer no resistance. The weak things had set themselves up to confound the strong. At first, the Japanese authorities were so completely taken by surprise that they did not know what to do. Then the word was passed round that the movement was to be suppressed by relentless severity. And so Japan lost her last chance of winning the people of Korea and of wiping out the accentuated ill-will of centuries. The first plan of the Japanese was to attack every gathering of people and disperse it, and to arrest every person who took part in the demonstrations or was supposed to have a hand in them. Japanese civilians were armed with clubs and swords and given *carte blanche* to attack any Korean they suspected of being a demonstrator. They interpreted these instructions freely. Firemen were sent out with poles with the big firemen's hooks at the end. A single pull with one of these hooks meant death or horrible mutilation for any person they struck. The police used their swords freely. . . . [The day after the reading of the Declaration of Independence was Sunday.] Here the strong Christian influences stopped demonstrations, for the Korean Christians observe the Sunday strictly. This gave the Japanese authorities time to gather their forces. Numerous arrests were made that day, not only in Seoul but all over the country. On Monday there was the funeral of the ex-Emperor. The people were quiet then. It was noticed that the school children were entirely absent from their places along the line of march. They had struck. On Wednesday life was supposed to resume its normal aspects again. The schools reopened, but there were no pupils. The shops remained closed. The coolies in official employ did not come to work. The authorities sent police to order the shopkeepers to open. They opened while the police were by, and closed immediately they were out of sight. Finally troops were placed outside the shops to see that they remained open. The shopkeepers sat passive, and informed any chance enquirer that they did not have what he wanted. This continued for some weeks. . . . There had been demonstrations throughout the north, right up to Wiju, on the Manchurian border. At Songchon, it was reported, thirty had been killed, a number wounded, and three hundred arrested. Pyeng-yang had been the centre of a particularly impressive movement, which had been sternly repressed. From the east coast, away at Hameung, there came similar tidings. The Japanese stated that things were quiet in the south until Wednesday, when there was an outbreak at Kunsan, led by the pupils of a Christian school. The Japanese at once seized on the participation of the Christians, the press declaring that the American missionaries were at the bottom of it. A deliberate attempt was made to stir up the Japanese population against the Americans. Numbers of houses of American missionaries and leaders of philanthropic work were searched. Several of them were called to the police offices and examined; some were stopped in the streets and searched. Unable to find any evidence against the missionaries, the Japanese turned on the Korean Christians. Soon nearly every Korean Christian pastor in Seoul was in jail; and news came from many parts of the burning of churches, the arrest of leading Christians, and the flogging of their congregations. The Japanese authorities, on pressure from the American consular officials, issued statements that the missionaries had nothing to do with the uprising, but in practice they acted as though the rising were essentially a Christian movement. . . . Soon dreadful stories came from the prisons, not only in Seoul, but in many other parts. . . . The treatment may be summed up in a paragraph from a statement by the Rev. A. E. Armstrong, of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church of Canada, who was on a visit to Korea at the time: 'The tortures which the Koreans suffer at the hands of the police and gendarmes are identical with those employed in the famous conspiracy trials. I read affidavits, now on their way to the United States and British Governments, which made one's blood boil, so frightful were the means used in trying to extort confessions from prisoners. And many of these had no part in the demonstrations, but were simply onlookers.' Within a fortnight, the arrests numbered thousands in Seoul alone. Every man, particularly every student, suspected of participation was jailed. But it was evident that the authorities had not secured the leaders, or else that the leaders had arranged a system by which there were men always ready to step into the place of those who were taken. The official organ, the *Seoul Press,* would come out with an announcement that the agitation had now died down; two or three days later there would be another great demonstration in the streets. The hundred thousand visitors who had come to Seoul for the funeral returned home to start agitations in their own districts. . . . Despite every effort to minimize it, news of the happenings gradually crept out and were published abroad. Mr. I. Yamagata, the Director-General

of Administration, was called to Tokyo for a conference with the Government. Much was hoped by many friends of Japan in America from this. It was believed that the Liberal Premier of Japan, the Hon. T. Hara, would promptly declare himself against the cruelties that had been employed. Unfortunately these hopes were disappointed. While speaking reassuringly to foreign enquirers, Mr. Hara and his Government officially determined on still harsher measures. Mr. Yamagata's own statement, issued on his return, announced that after conference with the Premier, an audience with the Emperor and conferences with the Cabinet 'decision was reached in favour of taking drastic measures by despatching more troops to the peninsula.' . . . The new era of relentless severity began by the enactment of various fresh laws. The regulations for Koreans going from or coming into their country were made more rigid. The Regulations Concerning Visitors and Residents had already been revised in mid-March. Under these, any person who, even as a non-commercial act, allowed a foreigner to stay in his or her house for a night or more must hereafter at once report the fact to the police or gendarmes. A fresh ordinance against agitators was published in the *Official Gazette*. It provided that anybody interfering or attempting to interfere in the preservation of peace and order with a view to bringing about political change would be punished by penal servitude or imprisonment for a period not exceeding ten years. The ordinance would apply to offences committed by subjects of the Empire committed outside its domains, and it was specially emphasized in the explanations of the new law given out that it would apply to foreigners as well as Japanese or Koreans. The Government-General introduced a new principle, generally regarded by jurists of all lands as unjust and indefensible. They made the law retroactive. People who were found guilty of this offence, their acts being committed before the new law came into force, were to be sentenced under it, and not under the much milder old law. This was done. The Koreans were quickly to learn what the new military régime meant. One of the first examples was at Cheamni, a village some miles from Suigen, on the Seoul-Fusan Railway. Various rumours reached Seoul that this place had been destroyed, and a party of Americans, including Mr. Curtice of the Consulate, Mr. Underwood, son of the famous missionary pioneer, and himself a missionary and a correspondent of the Japan *Advertiser,* went to investigate. After considerable enquiry they reached a place which had been a village of forty houses. They found only four or five standing. All the rest were smoking ruins." —F. A. McKenzie, *Korea's fight for freedom, pp.* 252-255, 258-262, 264-265.

"More than two years have passed since the Imperial Rescript of August 20, 1919, in which the Emperor called upon his officials 'to rush reforms,' which was followed by Premier Hara's proclamation announcing that 'it is the government's fixed determination to forward the progress of the country, in order that all differences between Korea and Japan proper, in matters of education, industry, and the civil service, may be finally obliterated. . . . It is the ultimate purpose of the Japanese Government in due course to treat Korea as in all respects on the same footing with Japan proper.' In that period a very creditable number of reforms have been effected. The objectionable gendarmerie system has largely been done away with, and the police system, improved, enlarged, and under the direct control of the civil instead of the military authorities, has been substituted. The much-criticized custom of flogging was definitely abolished on April first, 1920. . . . The prisons have been enlarged and improved. New school-regulations have been adopted, lengthening the courses of study, granting wider options in the curricula, permitting religious instruction in private schools, and relaxing the requirements as to the use of the Japanese language in certain subjects. The regulations governing religious activities have been revised, in the direction of simplifying the requirements as to reports concerning the opening of new churches, the number of adherents, and the like. The so-called Company Law, restricting the establishment of commercial companies, has been repealed. Newspapers in the Korean language, owned and edited by Koreans, have again appeared; and freedom of the press, at least in some degree, has been restored, though the newspapers are frequently suppressed by the authorities. The spies and informers who so long swarmed in the peninsula have largely disappeared. The salaries of Japanese and Koreans in government employ have been equalized in the various grades. Koreans have been appointed to high posts in the government, including those of provincial governor, judge, and public procurator. The custom of wearing swords by civil officials has been abolished. The Advisory Council, composed of Korean statesmen, which had fallen into innocuous desuetude, has been revived, it being convened regularly once a week; and by the infusion of new blood it has been made more representative of all classes of Korean opinion,—including the anti-Japanese,—thus providing at least the germ of representative government in Korea. . . . The Korean leaders with whom I discussed the situation, though guarded in their comments, were, as might have been expected, dissatisfied with the extent of the reforms, and frankly skeptical of Japanese sincerity. Their chief criticisms appeared to be (1) that the new administration is supporting the leaders of the old, corrupt, discredited régime rather than the leaders of the progressive party; (2) that it is keeping the Korean standard of education fully two years behind that of Japan; (3) that the police still have altogether too much authority, particularly in the rural districts, where an ignorant constable is often vested with almost autocratic powers; (4) that the treatment of prisoners is not yet in accordance with enlightened standards, those charged with political offenses being confined in overcrowded cells and permitted insufficient exercise. . . . Notwithstanding the reforms, the independence movement, though at the moment in abeyance, is being carried steadily forward, in spite of the vigilance of the police. I was given to understand that there are two factions among the Korean leaders,—one which favors advancing their cause by forcible methods, the other favoring peaceable means,—and that the latter is at present in control of the situation. The prevailing belief in Korea is that the continuance in power of the peace party will largely depend upon the sincerity and energy displayed by the new administration in prosecuting the promised reforms. Should the promises of the government and the expectations of the people remain unfulfilled, however, there is every likelihood of an outbreak of a more serious nature than has yet occurred. . . . I was told, by an official in whom I have confidence, that the leaders of the secret organization which has been directing the independence movement were rapidly becoming convinced of the futility of open resistance on the part of the Koreans at present, and were counseling the people to attend to their business, and

the students to their studies, until such time as they are better able to make their strength felt. If that is true,—and it is borne out by the fact that the student registration for last year (1921) was unprecedented,—it explains the present lull, and is an indication of what may be expected in the future, provided the reforms proceed at a reasonable pace. If, on the other hand, the Japanese Government fails to keep its promises, if it makes the blunder of returning to the old, short-sighted policy of repression and oppression, then I fear that the next chapter in Korea's troubled history will be written in blood."—E. A. Powell, *Japan's policy in Korea (Atlantic Monthly, Mar., 1922).*—See also JAPAN: 1921-1922.

ALSO IN: *Annual report on reforms and progress in Chosen* (1918-1921).—H. Chung, *Case of Korea.*

KOREA, Constitution of. See KOREA: 1919.

KOREA STRAITS, Battle of. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

KOREIANY, Battle of (1915). See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 1.

KOREISH, Arabian tribe from which Mohammed sprang. See MOHAMMEDANISM.

KORESHAN ECCLESIA, or Church Archtriumphant, communist cult founded by Cyrus R. Teed, medical practitioner of Utica, New York. The terms Koreshan and Koreshanity are derived from the word "Koresh," the Hebrew form of Cyrus. Teed is regarded by the adherents as "the new Messiah now in the World," whose coming was foretold by Isaiah, and the cult has an elaborate body of theological doctrine of a somewhat extravagant nature. One of its peculiar teachings is that the human race dwells on the inner surface of a hollow globe, outside of which nothing exists. Most of its followers are now living in a colony at Estero, Florida, under a régime of communism and celibacy, and expecting the resurrection of Teed.

KORESK, Siege of (1238). See RUSSIA: 1237-1294.

KORFANTY, Adalbert, Polish leader in the invasion of Silesia. See POLAND: 1921: Upper Silesian complications.

KORIN, school of Japanese painters. See PAINTING: Japanese.

KORITZA, province of Albania. See BALKAN STATES: 1921: Albania.

KORKYRA. See CORCYRA.

KÖRNER, Karl Theodor (1791-1813), German poet. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1798-1896.

KORNILOV, Lavr Georgievich (1870-1918), Russian general. Held an important command in the Galician division at the outbreak of the World War, and again in 1916 under Brussilov; appointed commander-in-chief of the Russian armies, August, 1917; disagreement with Kerensky resulted in a military encounter, September 8-12, 1917; defeated and interned in Bikhov; led an army in the Don against the Bolsheviki and was fatally wounded in the attack on Ekaterinodar, March 31, 1918.—See also WORLD WAR: 1917: III. Russia and the Eastern front: k; n; RUSSIA: 1917 (August-September); 1918-1920.

KORONEA, Battles of. See CORONEA.

KORSAKOV, Aleksandr Mikhailovitch, Russian general. Served in the French revolutionary wars. See FRANCE: 1799 (August-December).

KOS, Island of. See COS.

KOSAQUE. See COSSACKS: Origin.

KOSCIUSZKO, Tadeusz Andrzej Bonawentura (1746-1817), Polish general and patriot. Served with the Americans in the Revolution, becoming adjutant to Washington; defeated the Russians at Dubienko in 1792; dictator and commander-in-chief during the insurrection of 1794; defeated and taken prisoner October 10, 1794; released two years later. See POLAND: 1793-1796; U.S.A.: 1777 (July-October).

KOSSÆANS. See COSSÆANS.

KOSSEL, Albrecht (1853-), German physiologist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1910.

KOSSOVO, or Kosovo, "Plain of the Blackbirds," in European Turkey, near the Serbian frontier. The region was added to Turkey by the Treaty of San Stefano, 1878. See BALKAN STATES: 1878.

1389.—Battle of. See TURKEY: 1360-1389.

1915.—Battle of. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: b, 4.

KOSSUTH, Ferencz Lajos Akos (1841-1914), Hungarian statesman. Leader of the "Independence party," 1898-1904; minister of commerce in the Wekérle cabinet. See HUNGARY: 1868-1890; 1897-1910; 1907-1914; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1903-1905; 1905-1906.

KOSSUTH, Lajos (1802-1894), Hungarian statesman and revolutionary leader. Leader of the Hungarian insurrection, 1848-1849; minister of finance and virtual head of the independent Hungarian ministry, 1848; governor of Hungary, 1849; lived in exile in Turkey, 1849-1851; later visited the United States and London.—See also HUNGARY: 1825-1844; 1847-1849; AUSTRIA: 1848-1849; U.S.A.: 1850-1851.

KOSTENDIL, town in western Bulgaria; was base for the main Bulgar army during 1915.

KOTARAJA, capital of the former sultanate of Achin, Sumatra. See ACHIN.

KOTCHANA, town in Jugo-Slavia. It was captured by the Allies in 1916.

KOTOKU (Prince Karu), emperor of Japan, 645-655. See JAPAN: 550-708.

KOTOR. See CATTARO.

KOTOSHIKHIN (1630-1667), Russian historian. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1400-1689.

KOTROMANIC, Stephen, ban of Bosnia, 1322-1353. See BOSNIA: 1322-1353.

KOTZE, Sir John Gilbert (1849-), South African jurist. Judge of the high court of Transvaal, 1877-1881; chief justice of the South African republic, 1881-1898; president of the Anglo-Boer judicial commission in Swaziland, 1890; acting administrator of Southern Rhodesia, 1902; judge of the appellate division of the Union of South Africa, 1922. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1898 (January-February).

KOTZEBUE, August Friedrich Ferdinand von (1761-1819), German dramatist and Russian civil servant. See GERMANY: 1817-1820.

KOTZEBUE, Otto von (1787-1846), Russian navigator. Discovered numerous islands and the sound near Bering strait which bears his name. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1764-1850.

KOULEVSCHA, Battle of (1829). See TURKEY: 1826-1829.

KOUMANOVO, Battle of (1912). See TURKEY: 1912-1913.

KOUMINGTANG, Chinese political party. See CHINA: 1913.

KÖVESS, Hermann, Freiherr von Kövesshaza (1854-), Austro-Hungarian field-marshal. Commanded the 7th Army, 1916-1917; commanded the 1st and 7th Armies extending from the Dniester to southeastern Transylvania, 1918; succeeded Emperor Charles in supreme command. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 4.

KOVNO, city in Lithuania, on the Niemen. See RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the New Border States.

1906.—Suffrage reforms. See POLAND: 1905-1914.

1915.—Scene of fighting.—Captured by Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i; i, 4.

KOWEIT, sultanate of Arabia, on the northwestern coast of the Persian gulf, and town of the same name which is the terminus of the Bagdad railway. The sultan is subsidized by the British government which maintains an agent at the capital. See ARABIA: Map: Political divisions; also Map: Bagdad railway: Plan.

1899.—Secret treaty with England. See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: c.

KOWLOON, or Kowlung, peninsula of southern China, opposite Hong Kong. A part of it was ceded to Great Britain in 1860. See HONG KONG.

KOXINGA (1623-1663), Chinese conqueror and pirate. Drove the Dutch from Formosa and became king of the island; attempted invasion of the Philippines. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1600-1663.

KOYETSU, Japanese master painter of the Korin school. See PAINTING: Japanese.

KOYUNJIK, name of the mound which marked the site of ancient Nineveh. See NINEVEH.

KOZIENICE, Battle at (1914). See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 2.

KOZIOWA, Battle of. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: c.

KRAGUYEVAC, or Kraguyevats, capital of a province of the same name in Serbia, about sixty miles southeast of Belgrade. It is the principal Serb arsenal, and was captured by the Allies, Nov. 1, 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: b, 4.

KRAKOW. See CRACOW.

KRALE. See CRAL.

KRAMAR, Karel, Czecho-Slovakian representative at the peace conference following the World War. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

KRANNON, or Crannon, Battle of (322 B.C.). See GREECE: B.C. 323-322.

KRAPOTKIN, Prince Peter. See KROPOTKIN.

KRASFESKY, Battle of. See WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: e.

KRASNIK, town in Poland, twenty-eight miles southwest of Lublin. It was captured by the Austrians in 1914 and again in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: c, 1; 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 4.

KRASNO, Battle of. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 4.

KRASNOE, Battle of. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September).

KRASNOSTAV, or Krasnostaw, town in Poland, about thirty-five miles southeast of Lublin. It was captured by the Russians in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 6; g, 7.

KRASSIN, Leonid, Russian representative at the Hague conference, 1922.

KRAUSE, Karl Christian Friedrich (1781-1832), German philosopher and writer on æsthetics. See MUSIC: Modern: 1800-1908.

KREBS, French officer, designer and builder with Renard of the first airship, *La France,* 1884. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1884-1897.

KREFELD. See CREFELD.

KREISE OF EUPEN, one of the Walloon cantons. It was incorporated in Prussia in 1815, and transferred to Belgium by the Treaty of Versailles, 1919. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part III, Section I.

KREMLIN, citadel in a Russian city. See Moscow.

KREMSIER, town in Moravia, Austria, thirty-seven miles northeast of Brünn. The Austrian diet met in the palace at Kremsier, November, 1848-March, 1849. See AUSTRIA: 1849-1859.

KREMSIER CONSTITUTION, granted by the Emperor Francis Joseph I to the Austrian empire, March 4, 1849. The provisions of the constitution were never fully accepted by the various divisions of the empire, and during the revolutionary period the government did not attempt to enforce them. The constitution was entirely abandoned in 1852.—See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Hungary: 1222-1918; AUSTRIA: 1849-1859.

KRETE. See CRETE.

KRIEMHILDE LINE, supposedly impregnable series of defenses, east of the Argonne forest, eastern France. In 1918, in their Meuse-Argonne campaign, the Americans hacked their way through. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: v, 5.

KRIM, khanate of the Mongol empire. See MONGOLIA: 1238-1391.

KRIM TARTARY, or Crim Tartary. See CRIMEA.

KRIMESUS, Battle of the. See SYRACUSE: B.C. 344.

KRISHNA, incarnation of the Hindu god Vishnu. He is worshipped throughout northern India.

KRISSA. See DELPHI.

KRISTENSEN, Leonard, Norwegian navigator and explorer. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1894-1895.

KRITHIA, town on the Gallipoli peninsula, near the Dardanelles. It was a British objective in 1915, during the Gallipoli campaign. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: a, 4, vii; a, 4, xii; a, 4, xix.

KRIVICHI, tribe of Russian aborigines. See RUSSIA: 9th-12th centuries.

KROBATIN, Alexander, Freiherr von (1849-), Austro-Hungarian field-marshal. War minister, 1912-1917; later commanded the 10th Army against Italy on the Carinthian and Tirolese fronts. —See also WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 13; 14; 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: d, 2.

KROGH, August (1874-), Danish biologist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1920.

KRONIUM, Battle of (383 B.C.). See SICILY: B.C. 383.

KRONPRINZ WILHELM, German cruiser. Active during the early years of the World War. After sinking a number of merchantmen, entered Newport News, Virginia, on Apr. 11, 1915, and was interned.

KRONPRINZESSIN CECILIE, German steamship. At the outbreak of the World War it was proceeding from America to Germany, with gold and other valuable cargo, when it was recalled. It succeeded in getting back to an American port; was seized by the government in 1917 when America entered the conflict.

KRONSTADT, seaport and fortress of Russia, on the island of Kotlin, in the eastern part of the gulf of Finland, twenty-two miles west of Petrograd. It was founded in 1710 by Peter the Great. At least three unsuccessful revolts have occurred there: the first in 1905 against the Tsarist régime, the second in May and June, 1917, against the provisional government, and the third in March and April, 1921, against the rule of Soviet Russia.

KROONSTAD, town in the Orange River Colony, South Africa, about 127 miles northeast of Bloemfontein and 130 miles southwest of Johannesburg. The town was the temporary seat of the

Orange Free State government. It was captured by the British during the South African War and occupied in May, 1900. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (March-May).

KROPOTKIN, Peter Alexeievich, Prince (1842-1921), Russian scientist, author, and anarchist. Served in a Cossack regiment, turned to geographical exploration and subsequently to social work, 1862-1867; imprisoned for agitation in Russia, 1874; escaped to England, 1876; lived in England from 1886 until his return to Russia in 1917. Wrote on economics, sociology and geography.—See also ANARCHISM: 1872-1912.

KROTON, Greek city in Italy. See SYBARIS.

KRUGER, Stephanus Johannes Paulus (1825-1904), president of the South African Republic, 1883-1900. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1894; 1896-1897 (May-April).

Defeat of Jameson's Raid. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (January).

Invitation to visit England. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (January-April).

Conflict with Volksraad against judiciary. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1897 (January-March).

Bloemfontein conference.—Advice from Germany and Holland. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (May-June); 1899 (May-August).

Overtures of peace.—Speech to Volksraad.—Departure for Europe. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (March); 1900 (May); 1900 (September).

KRUM (fl. 809), early Bulgarian ruler. See BULGARIA: 8th-9th centuries.

KRUPP, Alfred (1812-1887), German inventor and manufacturer. Son and successor of Friedrich Krupp, the founder of the Krupp Iron Works at Essen, Prussia; in 1848, assumed charge of a small forge employing three men, and left at his death a factory employing over 20,000 people; introduced the Bessemer steel process into Germany, and through diligent study of his father's methods greatly enlarged and improved the industry.—See also CAPITALISM: 19th-20th centuries.

KRUPP, Friedrich (1787-1826), founder of the Krupp Works at Essen, Prussia.

KRUPP FACTORIES, extensive iron and steel works located at Essen, Prussia, famous for the manufacture of war munitions and ordnance supplies. The great increase in the German army and navy previous to the World War was due to a great extent to the inventions and factories of the Krupps. The works also supplied munitions of war to other European countries with the exception of France.—See also ESSEN; WARSHIPS: 1893-1914.

Source of Belgium's ammunition supply before the World War. See BELGIUM: 1914: Germany and Belgian neutrality; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: **73, iv.**

KRUPP VON BOHLEN UND HALBACH, Gustav (1870-), German steel manufacturer. Assumed control of the Krupp factories at Essen in 1906 on his marriage with Bertha, the eldest daughter of Friedrich Alfred Krupp; allowed to prefix the name Krupp to his own.

Denies Germany's collaboration with Austria in ultimatum to Serbia. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: **73, i; 73, vi.**

KRUSENSTERN, Adam Johann von (1770-1846), Russian navigator. First Russian to circumnavigate the world. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1764-1850.

KRUSHEVATZ, or Krusevatz, town in Jugo-Slavia, captured by the Bulgarians in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: **b, 4.**

KRYLOV, or Kryloff, Ivan Andreevitch (1768-1844), Russian fabulist. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1800-1852.

KRYLOW, town in Russia, northwest of Przemysl. It was evacuated by the Russians in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: **g, 4.**

KRYPTEIA, secret police and system of espionage maintained at Sparta by the ephors.—G. Grote, *History of Greece, pt. 2, ch. 6.*

KSHATRIYAS, caste of India. See CASTE SYSTEM; RAJPUTS.

K-SHELLS. See POISON GAS: T-shells and K-shells.

KTESIAS, or Ctesias (fl. 401-384 B.C.), Greek historian. See HISTORY: **14.**

KU K'AICHIH, Chinese painter. See PAINTING: Chinese.

KU KLUX KLAN, name of a secret society of southern whites organized in 1865 to prevent the exercise of political rights by the negroes and the depredations of so-called "carpet-baggers." See U.S.A.: 1866-1871. In popular usage the name was applied indiscriminately to a number of associations having similar aims: Knights of the White Camelia, more numerous than the Ku Klux; The Black Cavalry; The Union Guards; The '76 Association; The Pale Faces; The White Brotherhood, and others. The Ku Klux Klan was said to have arisen in 1865 out of a young men's social club in Pulaski, Tennessee. Its members were officially called "Ghouls," and a ghoulish ritual and accoutrements were adopted to work on the superstition of the negroes. The Klan developed and expanded from 1865 to 1868 and was most active from 1868 to 1870; but it began to decline in 1869 when its central organization was disbanded after having been re-organized in 1867 and again in 1868. The "Prescript" or constitution of the Klan is printed as the report of a congressional committee of investigation. It exhibits the plan of organization and the outlandish titles of the officers and sets forth the objects. All of the ex-Confederate states collectively formed the Invisible Empire of the Grand Wizard; any one state was the realm of a Grand Dragon; a congressional district became a Dominion, the head of which was a Grand Triton; a county was the Province of a Grand Giant; and the lowest division of all, a Den under a Grand Cyclops. There were also staff officers with the titles of Furies, Genii, Goblins, Hydras, Magi, Monks, Night Hawks and Turks. They arrayed themselves in white sheets or flowing robes, wore masks, rode horses similarly draped, and carried skulls with glowing coals for eyes. They rattled sacks of bones during night patrols and drills to impress the superstitious blacks. They sent mysterious signs and warnings to negro politicians and ostracized or drove away whites who were held responsible for the negroes' conduct. In 1870 and in 1871 by "Force Acts" Congress adopted extreme measures against their methods and the Ku Klux Klan was broken up. "The present Ku Klux Klan should not be confused with the secret order of that name, which a disorganized system of justice in the South during Reconstruction days in a measure justified. The original Klan disbanded when its purpose had been served. The new order has appropriated . . . the name, the disguises, the mummery of the old,—intended as childish but effective means of terrifying the imaginative and newly emancipated negro,—without appropriating either its aims or its ideals. . . . Among Southerners a romantic tradition of patriotism and terrible justice hallows the memory of

the old Klan. Thoughtless enthusiasts have joined the new because of that tradition. Among the negroes the very name is still a thing of nightmare terror, and such an attitude of mind perfectly suited the plans of the founder of the new order. . . . The Klan excludes from membership negroes, Jews, Catholics, and foreign-born, whether citizens or not. In its own phrase, it is the only Gentile White Protestant American-born Organization in the world. It is secret."—L. Percy, *Modern Ku Klux Klan* (*Atlantic Monthly, July*, 1922).

"It has been in existence, this present-day successor of the old Kuklux, since the latter part of 1915, when it was chartered as a legitimate fraternal organization by the State of Georgia. The originator of the idea of reviving the old institution under the old name was Colonel William Joseph Simmons of Atlanta, now Professor of Southern History in Lanier University. Associated with him in the application for a charter from the State of Georgia were three surviving members of the old Kuklux Klan. By virtue of this fact the new Klan declares itself, in its constitution, to be the only legitimate heir of the original organization, with sole rights to all its signs, symbols, regalias, &c. It is organized on similar lines to the original Kuklux Klan, with similar, though slightly different, titles for its officers. Colonel Simmons is the 'Imperial Wizard' or supreme head of the order, the full title of which is 'The Invisible Empire, Knights of the Kuklux Klan.' The old regalia of white robe and pointed cap covering the face of the wearer is retained by the new organization, which claims to be fully organized throughout the South and to have a considerable number of local nuclei planted in half or more of the States."—F. P. Stockbridge, *Kuklux Klan revival* (*New York Times Current History, Apr.*, 1921).—"Governor Parker of Louisiana came to Washington on Nov. 20 [1922] to confer with representatives of the Department of Justice and President Harding on the activities of the Ku Klux Klan in his State. It was stated that the power of the 'Invisible Empire' was growing in that State, that the Ku Klux Klan was becoming a factor in the Government and that many acts of lawlessness were charged against that organization. . . . After the White House conference, Attorney General Daugherty made this statement in behalf of President Harding: 'It appears that the State of Louisiana will be fully able to take care of the situation. There is nothing at this time for the Federal Government to do except to give assurance to State authorities that whenever Federal interests are involved the Federal authorities are ready to extend full co-operation.'" —*New York Times Current History, Jan.*, 1923, *p.* 683.

Also in: J. M. Beard, *Ku Klux sketches.*—W. G. Brown, *Lower South in American history.*—J. W. Burgess, *Reconstruction and the constitution.*—W. L. Fleming, *Civil War and reconstruction in Alabama.*—Idem, *Documentary history of reconstruction.*—J. C. Lester and D. L. Wilson, *Ku Klux Klan.*—J. W. Garner, *Reconstruction in Mississippi.*—On September 6, 1921, *The World* (New York City), *Knickerbocker Press* (Albany, N. Y.) and several other newspapers in the country began the publication of a series of articles dealing with the modern revival of the Ku Klux Klan.

KUAN YIN, or Kwan Yin, deity, worshiped as the divine virgin in China and Tibet. See Mythology: Chinese.

KUANG-HSU, or Kwang-su (1872-1908), title of Tsai T'ien, ninth Manchu emperor of China, 1875-1908. During his minority, from 1875 until 1889, the empress-dowager was regent. See China: 1898 (June-September); 1908 (November).

KUANZA. See Coanza.

KUBAN, province in the western part of northern Caucasia, Russia, bordering on the Black sea and the Sea of Azov. By a secret clause of the Treaty of Rapallo, 1922, German colonization was permitted. See Rapallo, Treaty of (1922).

KUBAN CAMPAIGNS. See Russia: 1918-1920.

KUBANGO RIVER. See Okavango river.

KUBAS, town in South West Africa. It was captured by the British in 1915. See World War: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1.

KUBLAI KHAN (1216-1294), Mongol chieftain, and emperor of China. He was the most noted successor of Jenghiz Khan and the founder of the Mongol dynasty in China. See China: 1259-1294; 1294-1736; Mongolia: 1229-1294.

KUBRAT (d. 638), prince of the Bulgars. See Bulgaria: 7th century.

KUCHI KHAN, khan of northern Persia. Declared his independence from the sultan and carried on negotiations with the British, the Turks, and the Bolsheviki during the World War. See World War: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: b, 8.

KUCHUK-KAINARJI, Treaty of (1774). See Turkey: 1768-1774; Asia: 1500-1900; Russia: 1768-1796; Bosphorus: 1774-1807.

KUCHWAHA CLAN. See Rajputs.

KUDUR-MABUK, ruler of Elam. See Babylonia: First Babylonian empire.

K'UENLUN, Eastern, mountain range of China. See China: Geography of China proper.

KUFA. See Basra.

KÜHLMANN, Richard von (1873-), German statesman. Councillor of the German embassy in London, 1908-1914; during the World War, councillor of the embassy at Constantinople, minister at The Hague, and ambassador at Constantinople, September, 1916 to August, 1917; appointed secretary of state for foreign affairs, 1917; negotiated the peace treaty with Russia at Brest-Litovsk, March 3, 1918, and the Peace of Bucharest with Rumania, May 7, 1918; resigned July, 1918.—See also Russia: 1917 (November-December).

KÜHNE, Wilhelm (1837-1900), German physiologist. Made extensive researches in the chemistry of digestion, in muscles and nerves and in the chemical influence of light on the retina. See Medical science: Modern: 19th century: Revolutionary experiments and discoveries.

KULANAPAN FAMILY.—"The main territory of the Kulanapan family is bounded on the west by the Pacific Ocean, on the east by the Yukian and Copehan territories, on the north by the watershed of the Russian River, and on the south by a line drawn from Bodega Head to the southwest corner of the Yukian territory, near Santa Rosa, Sonoma County, California."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology, p.* 88.

KULAWAND, Battle at. See World War: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: a, 5.

KULIN, ban of Bosnia, 1180-1204. See Bosnia: 12th century.

KULJA, Treaty of (1851). See Asia: 1500-1900.

KULM, or Culm, town in Poland, about twenty miles northeast of Bromberg. Stronghold of the Teutonic order in the thirteenth century; ceded to Poland, 1466 and to Prussia, 1772. After the World War the town was once more included in Polish territory.—See also Prussia: 13th century.

Battle of. See GERMANY: 1813 (August-October).

KULTUR.—German definition.—"Kultur" is from Latin *colere*, to tend or care for, a German word signifying "partly the activity expended upon an object to improve or adapt it to certain purposes, and partly the result of such activity. Thus we may equally speak of the Kultur [cultivation] of the soil, as making it arable and productive, as of forest conservation; likewise the Kultur [cultivation] of the spirit, or of the sciences, arts, etc.; and finally as *civilization*, comprising the achievements of a people in a certain epoch or in the course of their history: thus whatever may have been accomplished in the task of elevating mankind and perfecting human society."—Brockhaus' *Konversations-Lexikon*.—Kultur means "especially the development and ennobling of human life and endeavor. The word is used only in this sense when speaking of the beginnings or history of Kultur. Kulturgeschichte [Kultur-history] treats of the inner social life of humanity in its social and spiritual development as opposed to . . . political or state history."—Meyer's *Konversations-Lexikon*.

Defined as German collectivism.—"While superior military readiness is immediately a matter of army organization, in the last analysis it is much more than that, it is a matter of organization in general—organization of industry, organization of commerce, organization of agriculture, organization of transportation, organization of any and every national interest capable of instant mobilization in the event of war. . . . The will to organize, involving trained professional leadership with democratic coöperation from every man, woman, and child, we have hit upon as the very essence of the German state and society. And by written and spoken word the teachers and preachers of the nation have performed the feat of fervently enlisting the whole people for this program. In fact it is this program which affects with its ramifications every department of human activity and which cherishes as its ultimate end an alert, intelligent, and prosperous nation that the Germans have in mind when they speak of their *Kultur*. To this simple perception has the confused discussion of this enigmatic word at last boiled down: Kultur means the national program; and when the Germans declare that in this war [the World War] they are defending their Kultur, they are affirming nothing more or less than that they are dedicated heart and soul to the peculiar collectivist form of Progress and Civilization which their past has evolved."—F. Schevill, *Making of modern Germany, p.* 203.—See also PAN-GERMANISM: German presentation of Pan-Germanism.

ALSO IN: M. Prince, *Creed of Deutschtum*.

KULTURKAMPF, name given to the conflict between the German government and the Roman Catholic church which began soon after the establishment of the German Empire in 1870. See GERMANY: 1873-1887; 1904; PAPACY: 1870-1874.

KUM, or Kom, sacred city in Persia, eighty-one miles south-southwest of Teheran. It was occupied by the Russians in 1915 and again in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VII. Persia and Germany; 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 3.

KUM KALE, fort on the south side of the entrance to the Dardanelles. During the World War it was silenced by the Allied fleet. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. TURKEY: a, 3, iii; a, 4, vi.

KUMASI, Kumassi, or Coomassie, capital of Ashanti, British Gold Coast, West Africa. It was besieged and captured by the British in 1896. See ASHANTI: 1895-1900.

KUN, Bela (1886-), Communist dictator of Hungary, March-August, 1919. Overthrew the government of Count Karolyi; driven from power by the Rumanian invasion. See HUNGARY: 1918-1919 (December-March); 1919 (March); 1919-1920.

KUNAXA, or Cunaxa, Battle of (401 B.C.). See PERSIA: B.C. 401-400.

KUNBIS, Indian agriculturists. See CASTE SYSTEM.

KUNERSDORF, Battle of. See GERMANY: 1759 (July-November).

K'UNG AN-KUO, Chinese scholar. Noted for his work in restoring the classics. See CHINESE LITERATURE: Literature after B.C. 478.

KUNG SO GUILD, China. See GUILDS: Modern.

KUO-MING-TON. See CHINA: 1920: Leading parties.

KUPRIN, Alexander Ivanovich (1870-), Russian author. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1905-1921.

KURDISTAN AND THE KURDS.—"Kurdistan, the land of the Kurds, comprises mainly the Taurus mountain range which divides Armenia from Mesopotamia. [See TURKEY: Map of Asia Minor.] West of Kurdistan is Cilicia, to the east of it is the Persian province of Azerbaijan. Of the two million Kurds that lived in Turkey in 1914, more than half inhabited the Taurus highlands. Another [third] million were subjects of Persia and Russia. The Kurds are considered the original inhabitants of Kurdistan, having inhabited the Taurus mountains since the dawn of history. Already in the days of the Assyrian empire they led a separate national existence. Ancient Media was largely a Kurdish power. Later they fell under Persian influence, and absorbed much of the Persian culture. The Kurds, although converted to Islam, resisted the domination of the Bagdad Caliphs in the ninth and tenth centuries. Kurdistan reached its height under Saladin in the twelfth century, when it became a vast kingdom extending as far as Egypt and Yemen in the south and the Black Sea in the north."—I. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations, p.* 254.—See also TURKEY: The land; Diverse peoples of the country.—To trace the origins, however, "it is a long retrospect back to 1200 [and even] to 1500 years B.C., for it is there [in Kurdistan] we are to see the kings of Nairi, who appear to be the forbears of those Medes who later gained renown, and again later, under the name of Kurd, remained a word of terror in the ears of the neighbours. In those days the Assyrians reigned in the lands about Mosul and between the rivers [Great and Little] Zab. Following the course of the Greater Zab, from its middle to its source, was an obscure, little-known land, and here was the heart of the Nairi land. Here, too, later, were the Medes established, and here is still the heart and centre of Kurdistan. Armenia, or Urartu, was tucked away north of all this, behind the mountains and Lake Van, upon its plateau, and the kings of Urartu are not to be confounded with the men of Nairi. Nor were the Nairi lands confined to the upper waters of the Great Zab, for the people between the Tigris headwaters and the Euphrates north of Mount Niphates, that is, in modern times, Kharput and Darsim, in Bitlis and the Taurus range, were mentioned by Tiglath-Pileser and his successors (1100 to 600 B.C.), as the Nairi; that same land that later harbored the invincible Gordyene, whose name appeared im-

mediately after the disappearance of the name Mede at the middle of the Achæmenian dynasty of Persia (about 400 B. C.), and in reference to races inhabiting the lands of modern Kurdistan—which was Media. And since that time it has been [styled] Kurdistan, home of wild races speaking a language the purity of whose ancient forms is one of the best proofs of the occupation by the Kurds of their great mountains ever since the Aryan horde started from its 'land of the Dawn' to people Persia, Media, and part of Europe—of which we ourselves are the descendants, through the Saxons, and so kin to the Kurd, who has never mixed his blood with that of the Arab or Turk, but kept it as pure as his unmixed speech. . . . When it is remembered that this part of Western Asia has been subject to the most wholesale revolution, to invasions by the armies of every nation that ever acquired fame and name in the Eastern world's history—Assyrian, Parthian, Greek, Roman, Persian, the Arabs under Muhammad, and the Mongols—the fine stability of the race stands out, for among all the people of these lands they alone have withstood every army, and retained pure their language and blood, and claim with a pride of race to which none can grudge admiration that they are the pure Aryan, the 'holders of the hills, and the possessors of the tongue.' Within the last century the national spirit awoke four times and asserted itself in attempts to throw off the yoke of the Turks. The first occurred in 1806, when Abdurrahman Pasha, the Baban of Sulaimania, fought long and bravely against the Turks for the independence of southern Kurdistan, being defeated at Darband-i-Bazian in 1808 by the Bagdad Pasha, who, assisted by one of the Kurdish Pasha's relations at feud with him, succeeded in taking him in flank. A few years later, Muhammad Pasha, also of the Baban stock, at Rawanduz, acquired great power, and he too made a bid for national independence and actually possessed himself of Upper Mesopotamia, Erbil, and Kirkuk. His rule was of so cruel and inflexible a nature as to subdue even the most turbulent, and his power such that, aided by his large army of irregular cavalry, he kept his provinces in absolute subjection and excellent order. He was eventually, at an advanced age, lured by the Turks into a snare, and after a journey to Constantinople, where he had been received with great honor, and a restitution, his murder was contrived on his return journey to his provinces. Yet once again, one of the last of the Sulaimania pashas, Ahmad, attempted a revolution against the Turks, and went out to battle against them, marching on Bagdad, to fail. The fourth event, which can be hardly termed quite a bid for independence, was the revolution under Badar Khan Bey in 1847."—E. B. Soane, *To Mesopotamia and Kurdistan in disguise, pp.* 368-369, 371-372.—See also TURKEY: 1481-1520; BAGDAD: 1393-1638.

"What gave a strong impetus to Kurdish nationalism was Armenian nationalism. The latter was encouraged by Russia during and after the war of 1877-78. Turkey therefore proceeded to encourage the Kurdish chief, Sheikh Obeidulla, to set up a Kurdish principality and to propagate Kurdish nationalism, so as to create hatred between the two races, in which alone was there a safety for the Ottoman hold on the Kurdish-Armenian lands. It is an established fact that up to 1877 the Kurds and the Armenians got along well together. But after the race animosity had been aroused, Turkey resumed its oppression of the Kurds, even as Russia had suspended its pro-Armenian policy and began to persecute its Armenian subjects. After the Turkish Revolution of 1908 an agreement was reached between the Armenians and the Kurds to support the Young Turkish government. It is significant that the Kurds were the first to go over to the opposition when the young Turks adopted the policy of Ottomanization for all the races of the empire. Shortly before the outbreak of the war in 1914 the Turkish authorities hanged in Bitlis one of the last semi-independent chiefs in Kurdistan, Sheikh Seyid Ali of Khizan, for fomenting revolution. When early in 1915 Turkish emissaries came to the Kurds to incite them against the Christians, they held out to them again many attractive promises. The Kurdish invasion of the plains of Urumia, in which the Assyrians suffered so much, was perpetrated, writes Philips Price, 'partly with a view to loot, but also, as far as the tribal chiefs were concerned, with the idea of creating a large Kurdish kingdom, with themselves as the rulers. It was undoubtedly a quite spontaneous movement, called forth by the steady growth of nationalism among the Kurds during the last thirty years; but it is curious that it coincided with the plan of Enver Pasha and the Young Turks, set forth at the Erzerum Conference of September, 1914, to create a chain of buffer states under Ottoman suzerainty between Russia and Turkey. Religious fanaticism probably played a much smaller part in the movement than in previous years. The governing factor throughout seems to have been nationality. It was in fact the desire on the part of the Kurds to realize themselves as a unit in human affairs; and that idea was far more powerful than the idea of Jihad (Holy War).' . . . The creation of an autonomous Armenia would cut Kurdistan off from Turkey. The collapse of the Russian empire and the establishment of autonomous Georgian and Tartar republics in Transcaucasia abolished the Russian sphere of influence in Persia. To unite resurgent Kurdistan with weak Persia would be a sure sign of future wars in the Middle East. To let the newly created Armenian state rule Kurdistan would doom Armenia to quick internal destruction. Armenia as it is, drawn along strictly ethnographic lines, would include a large number of Kurds. The incorporation of Kurdistan in it, would mean the creation of an Armenian state in which there were two Kurds to one Armenian. There remains the solution of creating a united Kurdish government in Kurdistan, under the protection, and with the aid, of the Great Powers. Such a solution would stabilize the new Armenia, it would give the Kurds their rights, and would insure the development of a civilization in Kurdistan."—I. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations, pp.* 255-259.—See also TURKEY: 1894-1895.—By the treaty of peace with Turkey, May 11, 1920, Kurdistan became an autonomous state. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF (1920): Contents of treaty: Part III: Political clauses: Kurdistan; TURKEY: 1921 (March-April): Secret treaties.

See also CARDUCHI; CORDYENE.

ALSO IN: W. R. Hay, *Two years in Kurdistan.*—G. R. Driver, *Kurdish question* (*Persia Magazine, Sept.*, 1921).

Language: History and distribution. See PHILOLOGY: 23.

KURIA MURIA ISLANDS, off the south coast of Arabia. See ADEN.

KURILE ISLANDS, in the Pacific ocean between Kamchatka and Yezo. See JAPAN: Name.

1922.—*Status quo* maintained by Washington conference. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

KURILTAI, Mongolian term for assembly of notables. See BAGDAD: 1258.

KURIN LANGUAGE. See PHILOLOGY: 23.

KURINO, Shinichiro, Viscount (1852-), Japanese diplomat. Minister to the United States, 1894-1896; minister at Rome, 1896; at Paris, 1897-1901; at Petrograd until the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War; first Japanese ambassador to France, 1906-1912. See JAPAN: 1895-1902.

KURNA, town in Mesopotamia. It was captured by the British, 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: i.

KURNAUL, Battle at (1739). See INDIA: 1662-1748.

KUROKI, Tamesada, Count (1844-), Japanese general. Took part in the Chino-Japanese War, 1894-1895, and in the Russo-Japanese War, 1904-1905, winning brilliant victories. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

KUROPATKIN, Alexei Nikolayevitch (1848-1921), Russian general. Took part in the Russo-Turkish War, 1877-1878; in supreme command of the Russian forces in the Russo-Japanese War, March, 1902-February, 1904; participated in the World War, 1916; governor-general of Turkestan, 1916-1917. See JAPAN: 1902-1905; WORLD WAR: 1916: III. Eastern front: a.

KURRAT UL'AYN, or Qurratu-l-Ayn (d. 1852), Babist teacher, poet and martyr. Upon accepting the reformed teachings of the Bab, she appeared as a public instructor, and proclaimed that the day of woman's emancipation had come; the first among the women of Mohammedan lands to appear unveiled in public; killed during the violent persecutions of the Babis by the Mohammedan rulers of Persia.—See also BABISM.

KURUCS (Crusaders), name given to the Hungarian peasants who took part in an insurrection against the nobles in 1513. See HUNGARY: 1487-1526.

KUSAN FAMILY.—"The 'Kaus or Kwokwoos' tribe is merely mentioned by Hale as living on a river of the same name between the Umqua and the Clamet [on the coast of Oregon]."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology, p.* 89.

KUSH, KUSHITES. See CUSH.

KUSHANA EMPIRE, India. See INDIA: B.C. 231-A.D. 480.

KUSMANEK VON BURGNEUSTÄTTEN, Hermann (1860-), Austro-Hungarian general. Defended the fortress of Przemysl in the World War; after the failure of a final desperate sortie, he was obliged to surrender to the Russian besiegers, March 22, 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 4; 1915: III. Eastern front: i.

KUSTENDJI. See CONSTANZA.

KUTAIS, former Russian "government" in Transcaucasia, south of the Caucasus mountain range and east of the Black sea. After the Russian revolution, Kutais and the neighboring "government" of Tiflis were incorporated into the new republic of Georgia. See GEORGIA, REPUBLIC OF: 1800-1918; 1920: Foreign relations.

KUTAYAH, Peace of (1833). See TURKEY: 1831-1840.

KUTB-UD-DIN AIBAK (d. 1210), sultan of Hindustan, 1206-1210, and founder of the "Slave Dynasty." See INDIA: 977-1290.

KUTCHINS, Indian tribe. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Mackenzie area; ATHAPASCAN FAMILY.

KUT-EL-AMARA, city in Mesopotamia, on the Tigris river, 120 miles below Bagdad. (See TURKEY: Map of Asia Minor.)

1915.—**Battle of.** See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: c, 3.

1916.—**Siege and surrender to the Turks.** See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theatre: a, 1, iii; a, 1, iv; a, 1, v.

1917.—**Recapture by the British.** See WORLD WAR: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1.

KUTENAI LANGUAGE. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Linguistic characteristics.

KUTENAY, tribe of American Indians. See KITUNAHAN FAMILY.

KUTIR-NAKHKHUNTE (fl. 2280 B.C.), king of Elam. See ELAM.

KUTUSOV, or Koutouzof, Mikhail Ilarionovitch Golenishtchev, Prince of Smolensk (1745-1813), Russian field marshal, administrator and diplomat. Commander of the First Army Corps against the French, 1805; commander of the Allied army under Emperor Alexander at Austerlitz; military governor of Kiev, 1806-1811; commander of the Russian army in the war against the Turks, 1811-1812; victorious over Ney and Davout at Smolensk as commander-in-chief against the French, 1812; harried Napoleon on the famous retreat from Moscow. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September).

KUTZO-WALLACHS, descendants of the Wallachs in Macedonia and Thessaly. See BULGARIA: 12th century; BALKAN STATES: 1899-1901.

KUYPER, Abraham (1837-1920), Dutch theologian and statesman. Instrumental in founding a Calvinistic University at Amsterdam; led the secession of the orthodox Calvinistic Reformed church from the Netherland Reformed church, 1886; head of the Dutch government, 1901-1905. See NETHERLANDS: 1898-1903.

KWAKIUTL INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: North Pacific coast area.

KWAKIUTL-APACHE INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: North Pacific coast area.

KWAKIUTL LANGUAGE. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Linguistic characteristics.

KWAMMU, emperor of Japan, 782-806. See JAPAN: 645-833.

KWAMPAKU, early Japanese office, the duties of which were those of a regent for the emperor. See JAPAN: 833-1050.

KWANG-CHOW-WAN, town on the Lei-Chow peninsula, China. It was leased to France in 1898, and is administered by French Indo-China. See CHINA: 1898 (April-August); INDO-CHINA.

KWANGTUNG PENINSULA, extreme southern portion of the Liao-tung peninsula of Manchuria. It was leased to Japan in 1905. See CHINA: 1905 (December).

KWANGTUNG RAILWAY. See RAILWAYS: 1905-1921.

KWEI FACTION, China. See CHINA: 1920: Leading parties.

KWOKWOOS, tribe of American Indians. See KUSAN FAMILY.

KWOTSZEKIEN, "School for the Sons of the Empire," at Peking, China. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 22nd-6th centuries: China.

KYD, Thomas (c. 1557-c. 1595), English dramatist. See DRAMA: 1558-1592.

KYLON, or Cylon, Conspiracy of. See ATHENS: B.C. 612-595.

KYMRY, or Cymry, name which the Britons of Wales and Cumberland gave to themselves during their struggle with the Angles and Saxons, meaning "Cym-bro (Combrox) or the compatriot, the native of the country, the rightful owner of the soil. . . . From the occupation by the English of the plain of the Dee and the Mersey, the

Kymry dwelt in two lands, known in quasi-Latin as Cambria, in Welsh Cymru, which denotes the Principality of Wales, and Cumbria, or the kingdom of Cumberland. . . . Kambria was regularly used for Wales by such writers as Giraldus in the twelfth century, . . . but the fashion was not yet established of distinguishing between Cambria and Cumbria as we do."—J. Rhys, *Celtic Britain, ch.* 4.—The term Cymry or Kymry is sometimes used in a larger sense to denote the whole Brythonic branch of the Celtic race, as distinguished from the Goidelic, or Gaelic; but that use of it does not seem to be justified. On the question whether the name Kymry, or Cymry, bears any relation to that of the ancient Cimbri, see CIMBRI AND TEUTONES.—See also BRITAIN: 6th century; CELTS: Early history: Principal migrations; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 3rd century; ROME: Republic: B.C. 390-347.

Language. See PHILOLOGY: 11.

KYNOSSEMA, Battle of (411 B. C.). See CYNOSSEMA.

KYNURIANS, or Cynurians, one of the three races of people who inhabited the Peloponnesian peninsula of Greece before the Dorian conquest,—the other two races being the Arcadians and the Achæans. "They were never (so far as history knows them) an independent population. They occupied the larger portion of the territory of Argolis, from Orneæ, near the northern or Phliasian border, to Thyrea and the Thyreatis, on the Laconian border; and though belonging originally (as Herodotus imagines rather than asserts) to the Ionic race—they had been so long subjects of Argos in his time that almost all evidence of their ante-Dorian condition had vanished."—G. Grote, *History of Greece, pt.* 2, *ch.* 4.

KYOTO, or Kioto, city of Japan, situated on the island of Hondo. It was the capital of the country from 794 to 1868, and remains a prominent industrial and educational centre. It is the seat of an imperial university. The population in 1920 was 591,305. See JAPAN: 645-833; 1863-1868.

KYOTO UNIVERSITY, Japan. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1871-1913.

KYRENE. See CYRENAICA.

KYUSHU ISLAND, southernmost of the four principal islands of Japan. See JAPAN: 1542-1593.

KYUSHU UNIVERSITY, Japan. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1871-1913.

KYZICUS. See CYZICUS.

L

LABARUM.—"The chief banner of the Christian emperors [Roman] was the so-called 'labarum.' Eusebius describes it as a long lance with a cross-piece; to the latter a square silk flag was attached, into which the images of the reigning emperor and his children were woven. To the point of the lance was fastened a golden crown enclosing the monogram of Christ and the sign of the cross."—E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans, sect.* 107.—See also FLAGS: Origin.

LABBÉ, Philippe (1607-1667), French Jesuit scholar and antiquarian. See HISTORY: 25.

LA BASSÉE, village twelve miles southwest of Lille, northeastern France. During the World War it was just within the German lines, and was the scene of much fighting. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: t, 1; w, 2; 1918: II. Western front: a, 2; d, 4; d, 5; q, 1.

LA BASSEE CANAL, France. It was the scene of fighting in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: i; i, 3; j, 3.

LA BICOQUE, Battle of (1522). See FRANCE: 1520-1523.

LABOR, American Federation of. See AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.

LABOR, Department of, United States: 1884-1918.—Origin, creation and function.—By an act of June 27, 1884, a Bureau of Labor was established in the Department of the Interior of the United States. In 1888 the bureau became the Department of Labor with a commissioner who was not, however, a Cabinet officer. In 1903 the Department of Commerce and Labor was created and the former Department of Labor became a bureau under the new department's jurisdiction. [See also U. S A.: 1903 (February).] In 1913 an independent Department of Labor, presided over by a secretary who is a member of the Cabinet but not eligible for succession to the presidency, was organized for the purpose of dealing with the problems affecting wage earners in the United States.—"Its four chief divisions are [previous to 1918] the Bureaus of Immigration, of Naturalization, of Labor Statistics, and the Children's Bureau. While the work of all of these bureaus relates in a general way to labor, it also relates more specifically to the personnel of the inhabitants and citizens of the United States, and logically these bureaus might just as well be in the Department of the Interior or of Commerce. These departments, however, are already overburdened, and the creation of the Department of Labor is the most recent illustration of the natural expansion of the Federal Government. The policy of the department is expressed by Secretary Wilson. In his Report for the year ending June 30, 1914, the second annual report for the department, he says: 'It was created in the interest of the welfare of all the wage-earners of the United States, whether organized or unorganized. Inasmuch, however, as it is ordinarily only through organization that the many in any class or of any interest can become articulate with reference to their common needs and aspirations, the Department of Labor is usually under a necessity of turning to the labor organizations that exist and such as may come into existence for definite and trustworthy advice on the sentiments of the wage-earning classes regarding their common welfare. Freely as conferences with unorganized wage-earners are welcome, official intercourse with individuals as such has practical limits which organization alone can remove. Manifestly, then, the Department of Labor must invite the confidence and encourage the coöperation of responsible labor organizations and their accredited officers and committees if it is to subserve its prescribed purpose through an intelligent and effective administration of its authorized functions.' The Secretary, under the organic law of the department, has power to act as mediator and to appoint commissioners of conciliation in labor disputes whenever in his judgment the interests of industrial peace may require it to be done. [See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1888-1921.] It is this power, rather than the routine work of the department bureaus, that gives reason for the creation of the department as a separate branch of the Federal Executive, and . . . similar reasoning underlies the claim that there should be created a Department of Transportation, as an added arm of the President. The Bureau of Immigration has charge of the administration of

all immigration and Chinese exclusion laws. In the archives of the Bureau of Naturalization are filed duplicates of all certificates of naturalization granted by state or federal courts since 1906, as well as the declarations of intention to become citizens,—and annually there are received approximately 400,000 naturalization papers,—and the bureau has charge of all naturalization cases. All manner of vital facts are collected and published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, while the Children's Bureau devotes itself to that most necessary safeguard of the future of the nation—the welfare of the men and women who shall labor with arm and head for the continuance of the national life. [See also CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1904-1916.] Altogether, the Department of Labor is a most useful and necessary branch of the Federal Executive, and no department presents more important possibilities of national usefulness 'in promoting the general welfare.' "—J. P. Hill, *Federal executive, pp.* 179-181.

LABOR, Forced. See SLAVERY; PEONAGE.

LABOR, Imperial Department of, Germany. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1848-1918.

LABOR, International Organization of. See INTERNATIONAL.

LABOR, Knights of. See KNIGHTS OF LABOR.

LABOR, National council of: Instituted in Italy, 1920. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Italy.

LABOR AND CAPITAL: Relations of. See SOCIALISM; CAPITALISM; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1800-1895; LABOR REMUNERATION: Methods of remuneration.

LABOR AND INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS, Bureau of: Created, 1881. See KANSAS: 1881-1885.

LABOR ARBITRATION. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL.

LABOR COLLEGE, England. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: England.

LABOR DISPUTES, Arbitration of. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL.

LABOR DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT (1913). See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: New Zealand.

LABOR FEDERATION, Pan-American (1916). See LATIN AMERICA: 1916-1918.

LABOR LEGISLATION: Lines of development.—Some type of national and local labor legislation has been evolved by every civilized community, varied as the inceptions of different national groups have been. Great Britain, France and the United States have been primarily concerned with protective labor laws for women and children and with the development of machinery for collective bargaining and the exercise of pressure on legislative bodies. Such states as Germany, Austria, Hungary, and the Scandinavian powers have chiefly sponsored social insurance laws for labor in general, i.e. accidents, old age, disease, etc. Australia and New Zealand belong to a group which has become conspicuous for the socialistic trend of its labor legislation. International interests have welded all these tendencies together to a great extent recently, and as regards certain fundamental principles all groups speak with a single voice through international labor organization.

Aids in making and enforcing laws.—Individual suits.—Labor bureaus.—Factory inspectors.—Commissions.—Social insurance.—International organization.—"The early labor laws both in this country [United States] and abroad merely made . . . general statements about what should or should not be done. They provided no officer specifically charged with the duty of seeing that their provisions were carried out. It was left to the person who considered himself aggrieved to complain to the sheriff, policeman, prosecuting attorney, or other official of the court, who was then supposed to prosecute. . . . This is the condition which still exists in some states. . . . The first state labor bureau in the world, established in Massachusetts in 1869, had for its purpose the collection of information on wages, hours and working conditions. Even the labor unions which struggled until they secured its creation did not yet realize the need of giving it power to enforce the labor laws. Similar bureaus have now been established in nearly all the states and by the federal government. As more experience was gained, the functions of these bureaus were expanded. From time to time they were called upon to carry on investigations which would otherwise have been conducted by special legislative commissions. . . . In 1879 Massachusetts again took the lead by appointing the first American factory inspectors. These officials formed a class of special state police, whose duty it was to investigate conditions in the workplaces, to secure their own evidence of any violations, and then to conduct the prosecutions without calling upon the employees to testify. About half the states now have such inspectors, the force in New York, the largest manufacturing commonwealth, numbering more than 150. In most cases the factory inspection bureau has been combined with the bureau of labor statistics, but in some states both of these bodies are in existence side by side. . . . Permanent commissions to deal with special labor matters [i.e. minimum wage, workmen's compensation] . . . usually . . . have been set up in addition to the existing state bureaus of labor statistics, factory inspection, and others dealing with related matters. Sometimes as many as eight or nine independent agencies concerned with labor problems have been in operation at once in a state. The duplication, overlapping, confusion, and wastefulness of this situation were accentuated when the workmen's compensation commissions began to issue rules and carry on inspections in factories for safety. The result was conflict of authority with the factory inspection bureaus. Gradually it was recognized that accident prevention and compensation were parts of the same public function, and should be in the hands of the same public body. The next step was then obvious. It was to combine all the scattered bureaus which handled labor questions into one state industrial commission, and to give to this commission the power to investigate and issue rules to complete and apply the principles laid down in the statute law. Wisconsin, the first state to make this progressive change, was shortly afterward followed by New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and in less complete form by a few others. [Similar devices have been evolved in many other countries.] The industrial commission is on the job continuously, and not only at intervals like a legislature. It is not hurried to put through a mass of legislation before a specified date of adjournment. It can therefore investigate thoroughly and in detail. It can issue different rules for different conditions, and can modify its rules when the conditions change or as soon as it discovers new and more effective remedies. . . . The rules and orders of an industrial commission are not legally conclusive and binding on the courts. . . . The court [may] . . . have to examine into the constitutionality of the rules. But the legislature may limit the grounds on which the court may declare a rule unconstitutional.

It may provide that a rule issued by the commission shall be nullified only for errors in law, and that if new facts are shown the rule shall be referred back to the commission for revision in accordance with those facts. [See also INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION.] It is important that the officials appointed to enforce labor legislation be qualified for their work. . . . The development of civil service has tended to correct . . . [the contrary] situation. In the best states there are careful examinations for all subordinates, tenure of office is secure, and progress is being made toward more just salaries, promotions for merit, and the development of professional standards. [See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM.] As labor conditions become more complex, the task of drawing up progressive and humane legislation becomes more difficult. Specialists are needed to frame measures which will be workable, and which leave no loop-holes for easy evasion. . . . Unless there is a penalty attached to violating a law, it is likely to become a dead letter. At the same time, if the penalty is too severe, judges are likely not to impose it. Sometimes in order to make sure that a violation is not allowed to continue, licenses are revoked, or a machine may be locked so that it cannot be used. After all, the best enforcement of labor laws is secured when the co-operation of employers and employees themselves can be directly enlisted. . . . One of the best methods for thus spurring employers and workmen to act together for industrial betterment is through the constant economic pressure set up by social insurance. When there is a financial interest in reducing industrial evils, greater activity is noticeable in preventive work. . . . Employers have frequently objected to progressive labor measures which affected only their own state. They said they feared the competition of rivals in other states who could operate under lower standards. Actual instances of industries being crippled by scientific labor laws have, however, practically never been proved. Similar arguments are sometimes made when it is proposed to pass a labor law covering the whole country. Then the plea of international competition is raised. For this reason leading thinkers in many countries have advocated the adoption of labor protective standards on an international or worldwide basis. . . . Two international treaties embodying just such humane labor standards were in operation before the world war. One [Berne, 1906] prohibited the use of poisonous phosphorus in the manufacture of matches, the other forbade night work for women. Each had been adopted by a dozen or more leading countries in both hemispheres. Besides these, there were a number of lesser reciprocal treaties dealing with rights of workmen under social insurance laws. The peace treaty of Versailles included a program of basic international standards, created a permanent international labor office at Geneva, and provided machinery for the preparation and adoption of additional protective standards. Several important labor treaties have already been widely ratified with legislation to put them into effect."—J. B. Andrews, *Labor problems and labor legislation, pp.* 125-135.

14th-16th centuries.—Beginning of child labor legislation in England. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 14th-16th centuries.

1558-1603.—English aid to laborers under Elizabeth.—Statute of Laborers. See ENGLAND: 1558-1603: Age of Elizabeth: Industrial regulations; CHARITIES: England: 1553-1601.

1562.—Statute of Apprentices. See APPRENTICES, STATUTE OF.

18th century.—Modification and final abolition of guild system in France. See GUILDS: Modern times.

1800-1872.—Acts regulating relations between master and workmen in England, Scotland and Ireland. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Great Britain: 1562-1896.

1801-1878.—English factory legislation.—Special problem of "hours."—Code of 1878.—"During the 17th and 18th centuries, when the skill of the workmen had greatly improved, and the productiveness of labour had increased, various methods were resorted to for the purpose of prolonging the working day. The noontide nap was first dispensed with, then other intervals of rest were curtailed, and ultimately artificial light was introduced, which had the effect of abolishing the difference between the short days of winter and the long days of summer, thus equalising the working day throughout the year. The opening of the 19th century was signalised by a new cry, namely, for a reduction in the hours of labour; this was in consequence of the introduction of female and child labour into the factories, and the deterioration of the workers as a result of excessive overwork. . . . The overwork of the young, and particularly the excessive hours in the factories, became such crying evils that in 1801 the first Act was passed to restrict the hours of labour for apprentices, who were prohibited from working more than 12 hours a day, between six A. M. and nine P. M., and that provision should be made for teaching them to read and write, and other educational exercises. This Act further provided that the mills should be whitewashed at least once a year; and that doors and windows should be made to admit fresh air. This Act was followed by a series of commissions and committees of inquiry, the result being that it was several times amended. The details of the evidence given before the several commissions and committees of inquiry are sickening in the extreme; the medical testimony was unanimous in its verdict that the children were physically ruined by overwork; those who escaped with their lives were so crippled and maimed that they were unable to maintain themselves in after life, and became paupers. It was proven that out of 4,000 who entered the factory before they were 30 years of age, only 600 were to be found in the mills after that age. By Sir Robert Peel's Bill in 1819 it was proposed to limit the hours to 11 per day with one and a half for meals, for those under 16 years of age. But the mill-owners prophesied the ruin of the manufacturers of the country—they could not compete with the foreign markets, it was an interference with the freedom of labour, the spare time given would be spent in debauchery and riot, and that if passed, other trades would require the same provisions. The Bill was defeated, and the hours fixed at 72 per week; the justices, that is to say the manufacturers, were entrusted with the enforcement of the law. In 1825 a new law was passed defining the time when breakfast and dinner was to be taken, and fixing the time to half an hour for the first repast, and a full hour for dinner; the traditional term of apprentices was dropped and the modern classification of children and young persons was substituted, and children were once more prohibited from working more than 12 hours a day. But every means was adopted to evade the law. . . . After thousands of petitions, and numerous angry debates in Parliament, the Act of 1833 was passed, which limited the working hours of children to 48 hours per week, and provided that each child should have a certain amount of schooling, and with it factory inspectors were ap-

pointed to enforce the law. But the law was not to come into operation until March 1, 1836, during which time it had to be explained and defended in one session, amended in a second, and made binding in a third. After several Royal Commissions and inquiries by select committees, this Act has been eight times amended, until the working hours of children are now limited to six per day, and for young persons and women to 56 per week; these provisions with certain modifications are now extended to workshops, and the whole law is being consolidated and amended. . . . The whole series of the Factory Acts, dating from 42 George III., c. 73, to the 37 and 38 Victoria 1874, forms a code of legislation, in regard to working people, unexampled in any age and unequalled in any country in the world. . . . Outside Parliament efforts have been constantly made to further reduce the working hours."—G. Howell, *Conflicts of capital and labour, pp.* 298-301.—"The question of output in relation to hours of work has been hotly debated for a hundred years or more. In the early days of factory life, it was usual for the cotton mills to be worked 90 to 100 hours per week, or 15 to 16 hours per day, though there were a few notable exceptions. Robert Owen ran the cotton mills of New Lanark 10½ hours a day for the twelve years from 1816 to 1828, and it was found that the output did not sensibly fall below its previous amount, owing to the greater personal exertions spontaneously elicited from the workers. The hours had formerly been 16 per day, and before the final reduction they were lowered first to 12½ and then to 11½ hours, this second reduction causing a very marked improvement in the cheerfulness and alacrity of the operatives. Legislation limiting the hours of work was gradually introduced from 1802 onwards, when the hours of work of certain apprentices were limited to 12 a day. In 1819 an Act was passed which prevented the admission of children to cotton mills before the age of nine, and limited the hours of work of persons under 16 to twelve a day. In 1831 night work in cotton factories was prohibited for persons under 21, and the working week for persons under 18 was limited to 69 hours. This legislation did not apply to wool factories, where children were still being terribly over-worked, but in 1833 an Act was passed which applied practically to all the textile trades. It limited the hours of children aged 9 to 13 to 48 per week, and those of young persons aged 13 to 18 to 68 per week. More important still, it provided for the appointment of factory inspectors to watch over the working of the law. [See also ENGLAND: 1832-1833.] At each stage of factory legislation it was usual for many of the employers to maintain that restriction of hours would deprive them of their margin of profit, and ruin the industry. In 1837 Senior, a political economist, endeavoured to prove that the whole profit of a textile factory, running 12 hours a day, was derived from the last hour's work, and he was strongly supported in Parliament by many of the members. In 1844 Mr. Milner Gibson maintained the doctrine to be 'sound and indisputable'; and the leaders of the Manchester School, Bright, Hume, and Cobden, opposed the interference of the Government as certain to bring ruin upon manufacture. In 1847 the celebrated Ten Hours Bill was passed, which restricted the hours of work of women and young persons to 60 per week, and fixed the legal working day from 5.30 a. m. to 8.30 p. m. No legislation at that time or subsequently was made to control men's hours of work, but in textile and other industries which were run by men and women working conjointly, it meant that the men generally kept the same hours as the women. In 1850 and 1851 legislation provided that women and children were to work only between 6 a. m. and 6 p. m., *i.e.*, 10½ hours work and 1½ hours for meals, and were not to work after 2 p. m. on Saturday. Bleaching, dyeing, and lace manufacture were subjected to similar restrictions by the Acts of 1860 and 1862. A few years later night work in bakehouses was prohibited to young persons under 18, and the manufacture of earthenware, machinery, cartridges and matches was legally controlled, as were iron and copper works, glass works, printing and book-binding shops."—H. M. Vernon, *Industrial fatigue and efficiency, pp.* 59-60.—In 1878 a code known as the "British Factory and Workshop Act" consolidated all the factory acts since Peel's Act of 1802.—See also CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1802-1847; 1874-1905; EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: England: Spread of popular education.

1806-1909.—Creation of Conseils des prud'hommes by Napoleon I.—Arbitration council, France. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: France.

1829-1830. — Influence of New York labor party on labor legislation in the United States. See LABOR PARTIES: 1827-1872.

1834-1900. — Abolition of slave labor in Guiana. — System of importing coolies. See GUIANA: 1834-1900.

1862-1920.—Federal labor legislation in the United States.—"Prior to the Civil War there was no Federal legislation that could be classed as labor legislation, with the exception of a few laws governing the employment of seamen, and laws giving the preference to articles of American manufacture for the use of the Houses of Congress, for furnishing the President's house, and for naval supplies. A law prohibiting the coolie trade was enacted in 1862. . . . The first enactment since the Civil War was in the form of an amendment . . . to the Federal Constitution, prohibiting slavery and involuntary servitude. The fourteenth amendment has had a large effect on labor legislation, chiefly by reason of the clauses relating to due process of law and equal protection of the laws. It can not, however, be classed as labor legislation. In 1867 two laws were enacted which remain on the statute books and may be classed as labor laws, one abolishing peonage, . . . and the other directing that employees in the Government navy yards shall not be solicited for political contributions or discharged for political reasons. . . . In 1868 the first eight-hour law was passed . . . making eight hours a day's work for all laborers, workmen, and mechanics employed by or in behalf of the Government of the United States. This act was directory only and not penal, and had little value. Laws of 1888 directed the Public Printer strictly to enforce the provisions of this law in the work under his charge, . . . and fixed an eight-hour day with extra pay for overtime for letter carriers. . . . A later law (1900) directs that but eight hours, as nearly as practicable, shall be required of letter carriers, and but 48 hours for the six working days of the week in any event; though additional hours not exceeding eight may be required on Sunday if necessary. . . . In 1911 . . . payment of salaries to letter carriers for more than eight hours per day was forbidden, and compensatory time off was directed when Sunday labor was required. . . . A new eight-hour law was passed in 1892 limiting the hours of labor and providing a penalty for exacting or permitting overtime work. . . . A

LABOR LEGISLATION, 1862-1920

workman laboring in violation of this law can recover nothing for overtime. The law applies to laborers and mechanics employed by the Government of the United States or by the District of Columbia, or by any contractor or subcontractor on any of the public works of the United States or the District of Columbia. This act was amended in 1913 . . . so as to make it applicable to the work of laborers and mechanics in connection with dredging or rock excavation in river or harbor work, concerning which disputes had arisen under the earlier act. A closely related law was enacted in 1912. . . . An eight-hour law of limited application fixes a basic eight-hour work day for persons actually engaged in the operation of trains on railroads. . . . War-time waivers of the laws relating to public works are provided for by an act of 1917. [See ADAMSON LAW.] . . . The so-called Carey Act of 1902, . . . providing for irrigation works by joint State and Federal action makes eight hours a day's work on such undertakings. The construction of the Isthmian Canal is exempted from the provisions of the eight-hour law in so far as unskilled alien laborers and the foremen and superintendents of such laborers are concerned. . . . In 1871 a law was enacted calling for the inspection of steam vessels and the examination and licensing of engineers thereon. . . . While this is primarily a public-welfare law, it has considerable effect on the employment conditions of seamen, as it secures their safety as well as that of passengers and freight. Amendments were made to this act from time to time, notably in 1890, . . . 1905, . . . and 1906. . . . In 1872 the seamen's code was revised and extended so as more adequately to protect the hiring and discharge of seamen, to regulate the payment of their wages, their food, quarters, and treatment generally, and to secure their legal rights both at home and in foreign ports. . . . Amendatory and supplementary acts were passed at various times, a very extensive revision and liberalization of the law being made in 1915. . . . The shipping of seamen under false inducements or 'shanghaiing' is prohibited by an act of 1906 . . . amended in 1907. . . . In 1872 . . . it was provided by statute that employees in the navy yards should be selected because of their skill and efficiency and for no other reason. . . . In 1882 the first Chinese exclusion act was passed, suspending the coming of Chinese laborers into the United States during a term of 10 years. . . . Further restrictive and amendatory acts were passed in 1884, . . . 1888, . . . 1902, . . . and 1904, . . . etc. These laws have practically eliminated the Mongolian from competition in the labor markets of this country. The immigration act of 1885 contained a prohibition of the importation of alien laborers under contract. [See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1870-1910.] . . . This act was strengthened by acts of 1888 . . . and 1891 . . . and its provisions in this respect have been carried forward into the immigration acts of 1903, . . . 1907, . . . and 1917. . . . Statutes of 1885, . . . and 1887 . . . granted holidays with pay to per diem employees of the Government. . . . In 1886 Congress authorized the incorporation of national trade-unions, the headquarters to be located in the District of Columbia. . . . Labor organizations are exempt from excise tax on corporations (1909), . . . and from income tax. . . . An act of 1914 also exempts them from action under the antitrust laws, declares labor not a commodity, limits the use of injunctions, authorizes strikes, picketting, boycotts and the payment of strike benefits. . . . The antitrust law of 1890 . . . while not apparently intended to apply primarily to labor has been found to have extensive application to certain combinations of workmen, notably in the way of boycotts. (Modified by Clayton Act, etc.) . . . In 1891 a mining code was enacted to govern employment in mines in the territories and to provide for their inspection until suitable provision should be made therefore by local legislation. . . . This law provides for escape shafts, safety cages, ventilation, the sprinkling of dusty mines, and other safety provisions for miners. The investigation of mine explosions was authorized in 1908, . . . and a Bureau of mines was created in 1910. . . . [In] (1891) a law was enacted favoring the American labor in so far as the composition, plating, engraving, etc., of material for the manufacture of books offered for American copyright is concerned. . . . In 1893 was the first enactment of a law requiring the installation of safety devices in railroad equipment. . . . Power brakes, automatic couplers, and draw-bars of uniform height were provided for by this statute. This law was made more exact and effective by an act of 1903, and a minimum of 50 per cent fixed as the number of cars in a train that must have the required equipment. . . . Tests and reports by the Interstate Commerce Commission as to safety appliances are authorized by an act of 1908. . . . The same act authorized the inspection of mail cars. In this year also locomotives used in interstate commerce were directed to be equipped with ash-pans that can be dumped or cleaned without the necessity of employees' going under the locomotive. . . . By an act of 1901 accidents on railroads must be reported to the Interstate Commerce Commission. . . . Employment in the Government printing office is regulated by acts of 1895, . . . 1896, . . . 1900, . . . 1912, . . . and 1918. These laws relate to rates of wages, night-work, the employment of apprentices and skilled workmen, holidays, the eight-hour day, and leaves of absence. In 1898 a law [Erdman Act] was passed providing for mediation and arbitration in labor disputes affecting interstate common carriers by rail. . . . The law also contained a provision against discrimination by employers on account of membership in labor organizations (declared unconstitutional), a provision against forced contribution to benefit funds, against contracts limiting the employer's liability, and against blacklisting. . . . A new law on this subject was enacted in 1913, providing for a commissioner and an assistant commissioner. . . . Two officials of the government may be designated to act with these, while they have certain functions acting alone. Provision is also made for boards of arbitrators. Action is to be taken on the request of either party and the commission may proffer its services. [See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, Industrial: United States: 1888-1921; U. S. A.: 1898 (June).] The Esch-Cummins Act of 1920, while not formally repealing the act of 1913, created a 'railroad labor board.' [See RAILROADS: 1916-1920; 1920: Esch-Cummins Act.] . . . In 1906 Congress enacted a law fixing the liability of railway interstate carriers for injuries to their employees. . . . This law abrogated the defense of fellow-servant, modified that of contributory negligence, and declared contracts exempting the employer from liability invalid. This law was held to be unconstitutional on account of failure to distinguish adequately between interstate and intrastate commerce, but is valid in the District of Columbia and the territories. A new law was enacted in 1908 . . . and amended in 1910 . . . with the purpose of meeting the criticism as to constitutionality. The essential provisions

are practically the same as in the law of 1906. In 1907 a law was passed limiting the hours of labor of employees engaged in the operation of interstate railways, the limit for trainmen, etc., being 16 hours and for train despatchers 9 hours. . . . The establishment of the basic eight-hour day by the Adamson law [1917] has already been noted. The same Congress provided for the incorporation of a national child labor committee [see CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1904-1916] . . . and the foundation for the promotion of industrial peace. . . . The latter body never functioned and was dissolved in 1918. . . . In 1908 a compensation law was enacted for laborers and artisans employed in the United States in manufacturing establishments, arsenals, navy yards, in the construction of river and harbor fortification work, in hazardous employment, in the construction or management of work in the reclamation of arid lands or under the Isthmian Commission. [See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: United States: 1893-1918.] . . . A much more efficient and inclusive law on this subject was enacted in 1916. . . . In 1910 additional safety provisions for railroads were prescribed . . . supplementing the earlier laws, and a new law was enacted as to the reporting of accidents . . . repealing the act of 1901. The same Congress at a later session (1911) . . . provided for the inspection of locomotive boilers creating an inspection force covering the United States. This act was amended in 1915 . . . extending the powers of the inspectors to the tender and to all parts and appurtenances of the locomotive. The Sixty-second Congress established the Children's Bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor [see CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1904-1916] . . . and taxed out of existence the poisonous white-sulphur match. . . . It also gave postal employees power to form or join unions for bettering their conditions of employment on condition that no strike would be engaged in. . . . The creation of the Department of Labor in 1913 with a Cabinet officer at the head . . . [should be] noted [see LABOR, DEPARTMENT OF, United States], as well as the enactment of a new law for the arbitration of disputes of railroad employees [referred to above]. . . . The Clayton Act has been noted also and is the only law classed as a labor law enacted at the second session of the Sixty-third Congress. [See TRUSTS: United States: 1914.] . . . In 1915 efficiency tests and the payment of bonuses were forbidden in navy yards . . . and in arsenals. . . . Important legislation as to seamen . . . and the amendment to the inspection laws were noted above. In 1916 an attempt was made to restrict the employment of young children in industry by preventing the shipment of the products of their labor in interstate commerce. . . . This act was held unconstitutional [1918, see CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1916-1922; U. S. A.: 1916-1917: Opposition to Owen-Keating child labor law] and a law taxing the products on entry into interstate commerce was enacted in 1919 with the same end in view. . . . The eight-hour standard work-day law of 1916 has already been mentioned. The immigration law of 1917 retains the provisions as to contract labor previously mentioned and provides a literacy test for immigrants above 16 years of age. War conditions are reflected in authorization of waivers of the eight-hour law and in providing for the commandeering of factories for the production of war materials. . . . The Sixty-fifth Congress at its first session undertook to amend the judicial code so as to give maritime workers the power to elect compensation under State laws in case of injury, . . . but the act was declared unconstitutional. . . . The labor legislation of 1918 mainly sprang from war-time conditions, one act . . . providing penalties for sabotage or defective production or damage of war materials, another . . . arranged for a provision of housing for workmen engaged in war production. A third . . . looks toward the rehabilitation of wounded or otherwise injured soldiers and sailors with a view to their return to gainful occupation, while a fourth . . . made appropriations for greatly enlarging the functions and personnel of the United States Department of Labor for war emergency service period. The action of this same (Sixty-fifth) Congress in 1919 in enacting a tax law for the products of child labor . . . has received mention above. The use of the fund for vocational rehabilitation of injured soldiers and sailors was extended by an act of February 26, 1919. . . . The Sixty-sixth Congress in extra session in 1919 extended the compensation law for injured civil employees of the United States, so as to grant its benefits to employees of the District of Columbia. . . . The vocational rehabilitation act for soldiers and sailors was further amended, chiefly in administrative details. At its regular session (second session) Congress restored the railroads to private ownership, . . . the same act establishing the railroad labor board already noted. The status of claimants for damages for death on the high seas due to wrongful act, neglect or default, is a fixed law . . . allowing for the recovery of 'a fair and just compensation for the pecuniary loss sustained.' Under the maritime law no action would lie for the death of a person killed by a maritime tort. . . . Another act of the same Congress gives to seamen suffering injury the same right of action as is granted railroad employees by the liability acts of 1908 and 1910 and provides for the survival of the right of action to the personal representative if the injury is fatal. The same act amends the seamen's payment of wages law of 1915 . . . by making a provision declaring the payment of advances illegal whether made within or without the United States. The retirement of civil service employees of the United States at the ages of 62, 65, and 70, according to occupation, after 15 years of service, was provided for by an act of May 22, 1920. . . . Increased allowances for longer terms of service up to 30 years are available, also retirement for incapacity. Of more direct industrial significance is the act . . . establishing a system of vocational rehabilitation for workers injured in industry."—L. D. Clark, *Federal labor legislation* (*Monthly Labor Review, Apr.*, 1921).

1863.—Founding of compulsory labor establishments in Norway. See CHARITIES: Norway: 1863-1908.

1864-1920.—State labor legislation in United States. — Influence of labor organizations. — Prison and alien contract labor laws.—War-time measures.—Social aspects of recent legislation.—"Not until organizations of workingmen became stronger, more coherent and more permanent, and not until after nearly all desirable free land was taken up, did the demand for laws providing effectively for a shorter working day, for the restriction of child labor, and for the protection of wage earners while at work, become sufficiently strong to prod our legislatures into activity. Nevertheless, the long, insistent agitation must have played an important rôle in preparing the way. In recent years, organized labor has been a leading factor in securing the passage of a multitude of labor laws,—often in the face of bitter opposition from employers of labor. One

LABOR LEGISLATION, 1864-1920

of the chief purposes, if not the chief purpose, of State Federations of Labor is political, to influence legislation. In addition to legislation directly affecting working conditions, organized labor has exerted its influence toward securing such reforms as the Australian ballot system, the initiative and referendum, and civil service reform. . . . In order to meet what the wage earners considered to be unfair competition the labor unions, and especially the Knights of Labor, secured through Congress specific legislation known as the alien contract labor law of 1885, with the amendments of 1886 and 1888. [See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1835-1915.] This federal statute bars from the country aliens who arrive under contract to work for some American employer of labor [and has in several cases reacted on state legislation]. In the eighties, in spite of much opposition, New Jersey definitely 'committed itself to the policy of restricting child employment. But this it did chiefly under pressure from labor organizations.' In Connecticut, 'since 1885, organized labor has been the chief factor in securing labor legislation, either by direct legislative campaigns or by agitation outside the legislature, or by both. It is safe to say that without the influence exerted by organized labor, few of the labor laws would have been passed when they were, and, probably, many of them never would have been passed.' For at least half a century organized labor has demanded changes in the system of labor employed in American prisons. As early as 1864, a vice-president of the molders' union was ordered to work for a bill before the New York legislature 'regulating prison labor.' Year after year representatives of organized labor have been demanding the abolition of the contract convict labor system. The activity of the molders of Ohio in securing legislation abolishing contract labor in the Ohio penitentiary is worthy of mention. Candidates for the legislature were forced to commit themselves upon the proposition; and representatives of the molders' union went to the capitol of the State. 'Whenever lukewarmness or an inclination to "sidestep" was observed, the Business Agent at once informed local unions in each district and they, in turn, saw to it that the doubtful legislators were liberally supplied with communications informing them that their actions must come up to their campaign promises.' A well-informed student of . . . penology gives organized labor much credit for the improvement of prison conditions. 'Organized labor with its long and persistent agitation against the unfair competition of convict goods upon the open market probably has been the strongest force toward the development of the State's function in the care of the prisoner. As the control of the State upon prison industries has become greater, the power of labor to restrict them through control of the State Legislatures has become also greater, and the history of most of our States shows that, when labor is once aroused to an antagonism to any specific form of commodity manufactured in prison, sufficient influence can be brought to bear to abolish its manufacture.' Organized labor also played an important rôle in the long struggle to give seamen rights similar to those accorded wage workers on land. Before the passage of the Seamen's Act of 1915, seamen were treated 'as deficient in that full and intelligent responsibility for their acts which is accredited to ordinary adults.' For a score of years, Andrew Furuseth, president of the International Seamen's Union, had worked with unflagging energy to obtain the passage of a law making 'the sailor a free man.' The attitude of organized labor toward the restriction of immigration, especially Chinese immigration, is worthy of more extended notice. . . . The comparative isolation of California and the constant dread of the Oriental contributed the chief elements which made the labor organizations of that state peculiarly strong and effective industrially and politically. 'From the early fifties to the present time there had been organizations in which all classes of wage workers joined to promote the exclusion of Asiatic labor. It is the one subject upon which there has never been the slightest difference of opinion, the one measure on which it has always been possible to obtain concerted action.' And, on the other hand, the frequent strikes, high wages and the constant agitation of the American workingmen caused the employers in California to look with special favor upon the docile and uncomplaining Chinese coolie who was quite willing to accept a low wage for a long working day. The Chinese coolie was considered by many employers to approximate the ideal employee or hand. Throughout the long and bitter agitation against Chinese immigration culminating in the exclusion act of 1882 the wage earners of the Pacific Coast were aggressive and untiring. At the present time, organized labor would doubtless vigorously oppose any proposition favoring the admission of Chinese laborers on the same terms as those from European countries. [See also RACE PROBLEMS: 1880-1906.] . . . In recent years, the agitation for labor legislation has entered a new phase; many far-sighted employers are to-day [1920] favoring such legislation as workingmen's compensation, old age pensions and minimum wage laws."—F. T. Carlton, *Organized labor in American history, pp.* 108, 122-128.—During the war, legislation in the states, as in Congress, shows the effect of abnormal conditions. Four states authorized suspension of labor legislation during the war, one state prohibited strikes in munition plants, seven passed anti-sabotage acts and eleven made work compulsory for able-bodied males. Other legislation of the period following a more progressive line of development was the adoption of the eight hour day for women in two states, six new workmen's compensation laws, the creation of eight commissions to study workmen's health insurance and the adoption of minimum wage acts for women in Arizona and the District of Columbia (the latter pronounced unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court in April, 1923), making thirteen such statutes effective in the country. In 1919 eleven states and the territories of Alaska and Hawaii passed anti-sabotage laws. Montana and Florida took action against specific strikes, but on the other hand several states, notably Oregon, passed laws legalizing labor unions. During this year arbitration and conciliation was the concern of half a dozen states; vocational reeducation occupied several others anticipating the Federal provision of 1920; workmen's compensation laws were passed by five new states, that in North Dakota being the enaction of the Farmers' Non Partisan League legislature, while Arkansas, one of the five states yet lacking such laws, provided for a commission to look into the subject; Utah adopted the eight hour day and several other states reduced women's hours; while North Dakota, Texas and Porto Rico enacted minimum wage laws for women and children. "Perhaps the most conspicuous item of legislation during the year 1920 is that creating the Industrial Court of Kansas, devised as a means for the determination of rights in the case of industrial disputes. [See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1920-1921: Kansas court.] Legis-

lative action on the same subject was taken during the year in other jurisdictions [Rhode Island, South Dakota, New York and Texas]. Vocational rehabilitation through co-operation of the States and the United States was provided for. The child as an industrial factor also continued to receive attention; while a proportionately large number of the laws under consideration addressed themselves to the subjects of inspection and the safety of work places. . . . Relating to the entire field of industrial hygiene and safety is a proposal of the New Jersey Legislature to establish an industrial museum . . . for the establishment of safety standards, teaching methods of first aid, training for safety, and the like."—United States Department of Labor, *Bureau of labor statistics, Bulletin no. 292, pp. 5-6, 9.*—See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920; CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1879-1921; LABOR REMUNERATION: 1910-1920; ALABAMA: 1886-1907; NORTH CAROLINA: 1890-1900.

ALSO IN: J. H. Bowers, *Kansas court of industrial relations.*

1871-1876.—Trade unions upheld in England. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1800-1875.

1873-1921.—Laws relating to child labor in agriculture in Europe, United States and Canada.—Advance in child labor legislation.—Lack of enforcement in many states. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1873-1921; 1879-1921.

1877.—Swiss Factory Act. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1874-1918.

1881-1911.—India's factory legislation.—"Effective factory legislation in India came into force with Act XII of 1911, though the first Factories Act came into operation on the 1st of July, 1881, . . . by which children between seven and twelve were to work only nine hours a day and to have four holidays in the month. The definition of 'factory' was restricted to works using power and employing 100 persons, and tea, coffee and indigo factories were completely exempted. . . . In 1891 . . . the number of persons necessary to constitute a factory was reduced to fifty . . . and the work [hours] of . . . children (nine to fourteen years) reduced to seven [with protection of women and children] . . . against night work. [In 1911] the government . . . limited adult labour to twelve hours. The proposals for a compulsory interval after six hours' continuous work, and for reducing children's working hours from seven to six in textile factories also were accepted."—P. P. Pillai, *Indian labour problem* (*Asiatic Review, Jan.,* 1923).

1883-1899.—Housing of workers in Germany. See HOUSING: Germany: Difficulties of the housing problem.

1886-1909.—Belgian labor legislation. See BELGIUM: 1886-1909: Labor conditions.

1886-1921.—Compulsory school attendance and child labor in the United States.—Child labor laws in Alabama. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1889-1921; ALABAMA: 1886-1907.

1889.—English Arbitration Act. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Great Britain: 1889-1920.

1889-1900.—French laws for child protection.—Italian criminal laws for minors. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1889-1900.

1890.—Housing of Working Classes Act. See HOUSING: Great Britain: Legislation.

1890-1908.—Legislation regarding hours of labor in Germany.—German industrial arbitration. See GERMANY: 1889-1892; ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Germany: 1890-1908.

1891-1912.—Early labor legislation in Australian states.—Federal legislation.—Commonwealth court established by Act of 1904. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Australia: 1891-1912; NEW ZEALAND: 1890-1909.

1891-1912.—Labor arbitration statutes in Australia. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Australia: 1891-1912.

1894.—Factory inspection law passed in Rhode Island. See RHODE ISLAND: 1893-1898.

1896.—Conciliation Act in England. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Great Britain: 1889-1920.

1897.—Workmen's Compensation Act, England. See ENGLAND: 1897 (May-July).

1900-1902.—Child labor laws of England and Spain compared.—Educational requirements. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1874-1905.

1900-1918.—Industrial arbitration acts in Canada.—Canadian Industrial Disputes Investigation Act (1907). See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Canada: 1900-1918.

1901-1918.—Trade unions and legislation in England.—Hours of labor.—Act of 1901.—War time extensions.—Post armistice demands for shorter hours.—Alarmed by the growing power of the trade unions, "the House of Lords in 1901 handed down the famous Taff Vale decision, whereby employers were able to exact damage compensation from trade unions in consequence of strikes. That year the number of industrial disputes (strikes and lockouts) fell off from 642 to 442. It was for this reason that the resentful trade unions so strongly supported the Labor party, and it was to pacify them that the Liberal government in 1906 passed its Trade Disputes Act, which safeguarded the funds of trade unions from suits for damages, and permitted trade-union 'pickets' to use 'peaceful persuasion' in endeavors to induce their fellow-workmen to strike with them. Again in 1909 the House of Lords attempted to circumscribe trade-union activities by making it illegal for trade unions to collect compulsory contributions for the support of the labor members in Parliament. And again the trade unions triumphed, in 1911 securing the payment of all members of the House of Commons and in 1913 the right to use trade-union funds for political purposes, although the members of the union might not be compelled to contribute to the 'political fund' of the trade union."—C. J. H. Hayes, *Political and social history of modern Europe, v. 2, p. 316.*—Moreover, with the relief of government provision, to some extent, for unemployment, sickness and old-age, the unions have been able to concentrate on and influence inestimably legislation for the rights of labor, shorter hours and increased wages. "Legislative efforts to reduce hours date far back [see above: 1801-1878], but are found in most recent form in the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, which applies to the labor of women, and boys and girls between thirteen and eighteen years of age. The restrictions imposed by this act, summarized, are as follows: (1) The maximum of weekly hours for such persons was 60. (2) Sunday labor was forbidden. (3) Night work was forbidden for women and girls, but was allowed for boys over fourteen years of age in such trades as blast furnaces and iron mills. (4) No woman, boy, or girl, could be employed continuously for more than 5 hours without a meal interval of at least one-half hour. (5) Women, but not boys and girls, might be employed in certain industries for two hours' overtime beyond the ordinary daily hours (which were not to exceed 10½) on any day except Saturday, but not for more than three days in any one week, or 30 days in any one year. No

LABOR LEGISLATION, 1901-1918

restrictions were placed upon the hours of employment of men. Though the legal hours of employment of women and young persons were as high as 60, in actual practice the weekly hours prior to the [World] War were substantially below the limits stated. This was partly due to the action of employers, and partly to the action of trade unions which had forced shorter hours for males, thus automatically reducing the hours for women below the legal limit. The war produced an important extension of the hours of labor. The Health of Munition Workers' Committee (1918) in its Final Report states the position thus: 'At a very early stage of the war the ordinary restrictions on hours of employment were widely relaxed. Sunday labor, previously forbidden for women and young persons, and practically unknown for men save in a few continuous processes, became common. Night employment, which for fifty years had been abolished entirely for women and in the main for boys, became regular. The strain of these hours, in itself severe, was increased through large numbers of men and women taken into employment being unaccustomed to such labor, or being physically less able to bear the strain than the selected body of laborers previously employed. . . . The employment of men for 70 to 90 hours a week was common, for over 90 hours was not infrequent, and there were even cases of hours in excess of 100. The highly skilled workers (tool and gauge-makers, tool-setters, etc.), were generally the most difficult to obtain and were thus most frequently employed for long hours.' Abnormally long hours were purely a war-time measure. . . . The maximum hours worked by women is suggested in a General Order from the Home Office in September, 1915, by which women and boys and girls over sixteen were allowed to work 67½ hours a week. But overtime was allowed, so that in special cases women employed as munition workers toiled for 70 to 80 hours a week. . . . By January, 1916, it was clear that hours should be reduced. In that month the Health of Munition Workers' Committee suggested that the average weekly hours of employment for men should not exceed 65 to 67, exclusive of mealtimes, spread over a 13 or 14 hour working-day; that boys under sixteen should be limited to 60 hours per week, and forbidden to work at night; and that employment for women and girls should be limited to 60 hours. In a general order from the Home Office in September, 1916, the hours for women, boys, and girls were reduced to something approximating the recommendations of the committee. There was also a somewhat general reduction in hours in munition establishments, thus reducing the hours of men. Nevertheless, the Health of Munition Workers' Committee, in its Final Report (April, 1918), advocated that hours of work should be further reduced. . . . With the signing of the armistice, a powerful agitation commenced for shorter hours. . . . The first industry from which the demand arose was the engineering trades, which promptly asked for a 44-hour week, instead of 54-hour week in general vogue. The employer rejected the demand, but the two chief employers' associations, the Engineering and National Employers' Federation and the Shipbuilding Employers' Federation met with the Amalgamated Society of Engineers and the unions affiliated to the Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades' Federation, and agreed upon a 47-hour week without any reduction in wages. This offer was submitted to a ballot of the unionists of the engineering trades, and was carried by 286,545 votes to 148,526. To-day these employers intend to stand firm for no reduction below 48 hours per week. [See also ENGLAND: 1917-1918.] . . . The railwaymen also began to agitate soon after the armistice for an 8-hour day. Early in January, the President of the Board of Trade, who is responsible for the administration of the railways, announced that the principle of the 8-hour day was conceded and would be given effect from February 1st. The several systems of hours in vogue made the application of the principle one of considerable difficulty, and led to protracted negotiations. The question of whether a definite meal period was to be allotted and was, or was not, to be included in the 8-hour day was one of the most vexing problems. The 'advanced' sections of the men sought to obtain an 8-hour day 'over all,' that is, including mealtimes, the equivalent of only about 42 hours duty per week. Eventually, a settlement was reached that the standard week was to consist of 48 hours, the standard week's wages were to be guaranteed, overtime paid for time worked each day in excess of the standard, meal hours and similar arrangements to remain unaltered. The miners, who had had an 8-hour day for several years, preferred at the same time a demand for a 6-hour day. . . . From the Transport Workers' Federation came a demand for a 44-hour week. The employers offered a 48-hour standard week, and the Minister of Labour suggested that the question of hours be submitted to arbitration. Employers refused the latter suggestion. Eventually, after protracted negotiation, the 44-hour week was secured without loss of earnings. In the textile industries a similar movement took place. The woolen and worsted section of this industry dealt with the matter through its Joint Standing Industrial Council, which had been formed before the plan suggested by the Whitley Commission. Representatives of the employees on this council asked for a reduction of hours from 55½ to 44 per week. The employers were ready for a reduction, and no difficulty was experienced in arriving at a compromise of 48 hours per week. In the cotton industry a similar demand was made, that is, for a reduction from 55½ to 44 hours per week. In this case, the trade was in a bad way, because of restrictions and the submarine blockade. Its future, too, was a matter of deep concern. Such a serious reduction threatened to increase the cost of production greatly and to make competition difficult in the world market, because a shortening of hours and the time during which the machinery was running, clearly reduced the quantity of the product. The employers, therefore, offered a reduction to 49½ hours a week. The matter was discussed for months in the joint committees characteristic of this industry. Eventually, a strike precipitated the acceptance of the employers' later offer of a 48-hour week."—National Industrial Conference Board, *Problems of labor and industry in Great Britain, France and Italy, pp.* 151-157.—"During the last two or three years the possibility of a six hour day [with multiple shifts] in industry has been frequently discussed by Lord Leverhulme [and others who hold that] . . . overhead charges for machinery and factory buildings are so great that in some industries they represent 90 per cent. of the cost of production, apart from the cost of raw materials, whilst the human labour engaged represents less than 10 per cent. of the cost. . . . It is [conceded to be] true that the machinery wears out when run more continuously, but in most industries it becomes obsolete long before it is worn out, and is replaced by improved machinery. Lord Leverhulme believes that the worker will be able to produce as much in six hours as in eight hours, and consequently it will

be possible to pay him bigger wages than under the old system."—H. M. Vernon, *Industrial fatigue and efficiency, pp.* 84-85.—See also DEMOCRACY: Progress in the early part of the 20th century.

1902-1915.—Minimum wage laws of Oregon and Pacific coast states. See OREGON: 1902-1915.

1902-1920.—Child welfare legislation in Italy. —Laws of 1902 and 1913. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1902-1920.

1903.—German laws for protection of child laborers.—Age and time limit. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1903-1914.

1903-1911.—English law regulating employment of children.—Children's Act.—Mines Regulation Act. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1903-1920.

1905.—Reforms introduced by Count Witte in Russia. See RUSSIA: 1905 (August).

1906.—Workmen's Compensation Act in England. See ENGLAND: 1906 (December).

1906-1912.—Dwellings for workmen in France. See HOUSING: France: Workmen's dwellings.

1906-1921.—Influence of American Association for Labor Legislation on socialized law making.—Since it was founded as a branch of the International Association for Labor Legislation in 1906 the American Association for Labor Legislation has made specific contributions to the broad field of labor legislation in its emphasis on the protection of workers and uniformity of laws. Chief among the measures it has sponsored are: 1. Federal workmen's compensation law for the Government's half million employees. 2. Bill prepared on official request to restore to longshoremen the protection of state workmen's compensation laws—enacted in 1917. 3. Conditions leading to "phossy jaw" abolished by Congress. 4. Protection of compressed air workers. 5. Prevention of lead poisoning. 6. Uniform laws and schedules for accident and disease reporting. 7. One day of rest in seven for thousands of workers. 8. Co-operation in establishment of public employment bureaus. 9. Basic educational work, through investigations, conferences and publications. 10. Industrial commissions created for unified administration. 11. Ten state commissions for official investigation of workmen's health insurance; tentative bill as basis for standard legislative proposals. 12. Effective participation in campaign to maintain protective standards in war time; active co-operation in restoring industrial conditions to a stable, enlightened peacetime basis.

1909-1918.—Trade boards acts in Great Britain.—"Trade Boards are statutory bodies constituted by the Minister of Labour primarily for the purpose of regulating the rates of wages in the trades or branches of the trades for which the Boards are established. They were first introduced by the Trade Boards Act, 1909, to deal with rates of wages in 'sweated' industries, to four of which the Act was expressly applied, namely, the trades of tailoring, paper-box making, lace finishing, and chain-making. The statute also empowered the Board of Trade to apply the Act to any trade if the Board were satisfied that the rate of wages prevailing in any branch of the trade was 'exceptionally low, as compared with that in other employments,' and that the other circumstances of the trade were such as to render the application of the Act to the trade expedient. . . . Four other trades were brought within the Act by these Orders, confirmed by an Act of 1913. . . . They were the trades of linen and cotton embroidery, hollow-ware making, sugar confectionery and food preserving, and tin-box making. The number of workers employed in the eight trades thus covered by the principal Act was about 419,000, of whom 310,000 were females. The number of firms affected was 17,000. Between 1909 and 1918 it had become much more generally recognised than formerly that the wages of all workers should be such as to secure them a satisfactory standard of living in comfort and respectability. Under these circumstances it was no longer reasonable to restrict the operation of Trade Boards to trades in which the rate of wages was 'exceptionally low, as compared with that in other employments.' In the second place, the ever-increasing experience of the operation of conciliation boards had established the fact that industrial problems affecting rates of pay, hours of labour, conditions of working, and other matters in which employers and employed have a common interest, can often be more adequately and amicably discussed and settled by voluntary effort than by legislative or departmental interference. . . . For those trades in which there is a lack or incompleteness of organisation on the side of employers or employed, or both, the second Whitley Report recommended an extension of the machinery of the Trade Boards Act, pending the development of such degree of organisation as would render feasible the establishment of National or District Industrial Councils. . . . In the meantime, the powers of the Board of Trade in respect of Trade Boards had been transferred to the Minister of Labour by the New Ministries and Secretaries Act, 1916, . . . such transfer operating as from the 10th of January 1917. . . . Under this condition of things the Trade Boards Bill of 1918 was introduced and, on the 8th of August 1918, was passed. The Act is expressly applied to the eight trades already within the principal Act, and for which Trade Boards were in existence. It discards the original test of 'exceptionally low' rates of wages, and empowers the Minister of Labour by 'special orders' to apply the principal Act to any specified trade, 'if he is of opinion that no adequate machinery exists for the effective regulation of wages throughout the trade, and that accordingly, having regard to the rates of wages prevailing in the trade, or any part of the trade, it is expedient that the principal Act should apply to that trade.' It also enables him to alter or amend the description of any of the trades specified in the Schedule to the principal Act, to repeal or vary an Act confirming a Provisional Order made under the principal Act, . . . to vary or revoke any special order made by him, and to withdraw from the operation of the Acts any trade in which in his opinion the conditions of employment have been so altered as to render their application unnecessary. Trade Boards as established under the new provisions are the Legislature's conception of 'adequate machinery for the effective regulation of wages throughout the trade' for which they are respectively constituted, and to this extent they supply the lack of appropriate National or District Industrial Councils; but . . . except to a slight degree, effect has not been given in express terms to the suggestions of the Whitley Committee [already] mentioned. . . . Only to a limited extent, and for a defined purpose, have Trade Boards any power to deal with hours of labour, while in matters affecting industrial conditions they are restricted to making recommendations. Notwithstanding the limitation of their powers . . . the deliberations of the Trade Board may have effects which more nearly approximate to the proceedings of Joint Industrial Councils than the language of the statutes expressly indicates."—W. A. Willis, *Trade boards at work, pp.* 1-5.—See also LABOR REMUNERATION: 1894-1922.

1910.—Danish arbitration court for industrial disputes. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Denmark.

1910-1920.—Minimum wage legislation in the United States. See LABOR REMUNERATION: 1910-1920; MASSACHUSETTS: 1911-1912.

1911.—Minimum wage legislation in Alaska. See ALASKA: 1911.

1911-1917.—Workmen's compensation acts, Illinois. See ILLINOIS: 1911-1917.

1911-1918.—Labor legislation in Yucatan under Governor Alvarado. See YUCATAN: 1911-1918.

1912.—Liberal measures adopted by Arizona legislature. See ARIZONA: 1912.

1913-1919.—Reduction of working hours in France.—"The prevailing hours in French industry before the war were from 10 to 10½ hours per day. In the language of the labor code, in which the hour named was fixed as and from March, 1913, the day's work of an adult man in factories was not to exceed 10 hours of effective labor. For women eighteen years of age and over the same regulation was in force, except that periods of rest not less than an hour in all were to be allowed in the course of the day. By a decree of June 30, 1913, women employed in certain seasonal industries could be employed at night for a maximum of 10 hours. This night work must not be prolonged beyond 12 hours out of the 24, nor exceed 60 days in the course of the year. In contrast, miners and underground workers had the 8-hour day by a decree dated December 31, 1913. With the opening of the year 1919, the question of the 8-hour day came up, chiefly through political influences. Left to themselves no very active demand would have come from the workers themselves. It came in connection with the resolutions of the Commission on International Labor Legislation attached to the Peace Commission. In addition, the political influence of the recommendations made by the National Industrial Conference in Great Britain and those which the Government in Italy brought to bear on employers, were used to affect the French action. Indeed, as regards the United States, it was wrongly stated that a national 8-hour day was already in force. On this basis, they argued that France could not remain behind these other countries. Thus the pressure in favor of the law was largely political."—National Industrial Conference Board, *Problems of labor and industry in Great Britain, France and Italy, pp.* 159-160.—The French Labor Code of April 23, 1919, contains a general eight-hour provision.—See also FRANCE: 1919-1920.

1914.—Effect of the war on child laborers in Germany. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1914.

1914-1916.—Laws against strikes in Norway. —Child welfare legislation. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Norway; CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1915-1920.

1915.—Alien labor law, Arizona. See ARIZONA: 1915.

1915.—Munitions of War Act, England. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Great Britain: 1889-1920; ENGLAND: 1915: Ministry of munitions.

1916.—Formation of Pan-American Federation of Labor at Washington, D. C. See LATIN AMERICA: 1916-1918.

1916-1922.—Federal child labor laws in the United States.—Declared unconstitutional. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1916-1922.

1917.—Mexican laws on hours of labor per day. See MEXICO, CONSTITUTION OF.

1917.—United States Supreme Court decisions regarding workmen's compensation laws. See SUPREME COURT: 1917.

1917-1918.—Turkish regulation of industrial arbitration. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Turkey.

1918.—Creation of Imperial Labor Department, Germany. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Germany: 1915-1919.

1918.—Geneva system of industrial arbitration.—Prohibition of strikes. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Switzerland.

1918.—Expansion.—Acute problems and situations brought on by the World War caused a marked expansion of the department's activities. During the year 1918 Secretary of Labor Wilson was appointed war labor administrator and the resulting agenda for the department developed a war labor policies board; a national war labor board; an information and education service working in coöperation with the committee on public information; a bureau of industrial housing and transportation, for the benefit of laborers working on government contracts; and other temporary war-time measures. More permanent divisions created were a woman's bureau, or women in industry section, and the United States employment service, formerly a part of the immigration bureau.—See also UNITED STATES BOYS' WORKING RESERVE; INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION.

1918-1919.—Italian post-war movement for shorter hours.—"Up to the month of February, 1919, the day's work in most Italian industries ranged from 10 to 10½ hours or from 60 to 66 per week. After the close of the [World] War, the demand for an 8-hour day arose. This demand may have been due to the reaction from the long hours previously worked, but its two chief grounds lay in the fear of unemployment due to the demobilization of the troops and in the general movement in labor circles in Great Britain and France in favor of an 8-hour day. The strength of the fear of unemployment is shown by the unreadiness of the Italian Government to demobilize its troops. By June, 1919, in which month a majority of American and British soldiers had been demobilized, Italy had demobilized only 2,200,000 of her troops, and still had nearly 2,000,000 in service. Her industries were not ready to absorb these troops; hence the demand on the part of the workers for reduced hours. The earliest of the recent efforts to obtain an 8-hour day was initiated at the congress of the *Confederazione del Lavoro* (Confederation of Labor) held at Milan in September, 1918. This gathering adopted the 8-hour day as one of the post-war demands. From the signing of the armistice, the various trade unions affiliated began to take steps to approach employers. In February, 1919, a meeting was held with employers in the metal trades, and an agreement arrived at. A working week of 48 hours was to be introduced in the engineering section from May 1st, and in continuous processes from July 1st. The agreement specifies that in engineering establishments, shipbuilding yards, and allied trades, hours were to be reduced from 60 to 55 or 48 per week. In foundries, where continuous processes were worked, a two-shift system of 12 hours each was to give way to a three-shift system of 8 hours. It was agreed that the shifts were to be worked, where possible, without an increase in the work force. The weekly schedule in the case of each shift of workers could be varied from the 48-hour week, but was not to total more than 144 hours in three weeks. The next industry in which the 8-hour day was asked was the textile industry. In this

industry the position of the manufacturers was exceedingly difficult. It was generally understood that the unions were taking advantage of the critical situation produced by the difficulties in securing the peace terms demanded by Italy, and were threatening strikes and disorder. Under the pressure of the Government, who seemed anxious to prevent an upheaval at this time, the employers reluctantly acquiesced. Already the costs in the cotton mills, as compared with pre-war times, had been trebled. The shorter hours would add to this disability."—National Industrial Conference Board, *Problems of labor and industry in Great Britain, France and Italy, pp.* 165-166.—See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Italy.

1918-1920.—Child welfare legislation in Austria, Czecho-Slovakia and Russia. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1918-1920.

1918-1921.—Post-war efforts for labor legislation in France.—At the close of the war the labor situation in France was thus expressed: "The working class elements share the general feeling of elation over the collapse of German militarism, the liberation of French territory and the occupation of Alsace-Lorraine. War weariness and the relief of having come through the crisis successfully also contribute their share to the momentary calm. Underneath the surface, however, is the ferment of complex social economic forces. In part the unrest is due to the uncertainties of the economic readjustment necessitated by peace, and in part to the important political questions connected with the peace settlement. The problems of economic reconstruction have given rise to a program of demands on which all labor forces unite. This program includes a minimum wage law, a general eight-hour day, special safety and sanitary provisions for women workers, a general raise in wages to meet the increased cost of living, protection against uncontrolled importation of foreign labor, equal pay for equal work, Saturday half-day holiday, etc. The program has been formulated in repeated resolutions passed by numerous labor conferences since July, 1918."—United States State Department, *Report on labor situation in France, pp.* 8-9.—During 1921 efforts were being made by Socialists to extend the basic eight hour day adopted in 1919 (see above: 1913-1919) to agriculture, but with the conservative government in power, there was little hope of success.

1918-1921.—Child labor legislation in England and the United States. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1918-1921; 1919.

1919.—Canadian attitude on eight-hour day.—Minimum wage legislation for women. See CANADA: 1919 (September).

1919.—Comparative study of working age throughout the world. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1919.

1919.—Workers' councils in Germany. See GERMANY: 1918-1919 (December-January).

1919.—Child welfare legislation in China and Japan. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1911-1919.

1919-1920.—Italian boards of industrial arbitration. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Italy.

1919-1920.—United States industrial conferences. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1919-1920.

1919-1922.—Accomplishments of international labor conferences.—The first official labor conference under the League of Nations (see LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1919: International labor organization) "was convened by the United States Government and met at Washington, October 29-November 29, 1919. Forty-one countries were represented through governmental employers and labor delegates. The conference adopted draft conventions and recommendations for ratification by the various countries in accordance with the labor section of the Treaty of Versailles and the Treaty of St. Germain. The conference arrived at a number of decisions with regard to labor laws which each country is pledged to enact. Many exceptions were allowed for countries such as Japan, Persia, Siam, Greece, and others. The decisions were concerned with the limitation of hours of labor to 48 in the week, regulating employment of women and children, establishment of free employment agencies, insurance against unemployment, etc. The second conference, held at Genoa during June and July, 1920, was occupied with questions affecting seamen. The third meeting was called at Geneva, April 4, 1921. The agenda included the reform of the constitution of the Governing Body, agricultural topics, sanitary questions, the weekly rest day, the prohibition of the employment of any person under eighteen as trimmer or stoker, and compulsory medical examination of all children employed on shipboard."—*American Labor Year Book,* 1921-1922, *pp.* 207-208.—The fourth conference met at Genoa October 18-November 3, 1922, with representatives present from thirty-nine of the fifty-five governments which are members of the League of Nations. Questions considered aside from the reorganization of the governing body and the plan of alternative sessions of "preparation and of decision" for the conference were recommendations regarding international reporting of emigration and immigration statistics, the eight hour day, distribution of raw materials and unemployment. Resolutions adopted called for investigations of living and working conditions in the orient and in Central Europe and for a more intensive program against the traffic in women in connection with the problem of emigration. The Washington conference convention on hours was ratified by Greece in 1920, by Czecho-Slovakia, India and Roumania in 1921 and by Bulgaria in 1922; that on unemployment, by Greece in 1920, by Denmark, Finland, Great Britain, India, Norway, Roumania and Sweden in 1921, and by Bulgaria, Esthonia, Italy, Japan and Switzerland in 1922; that on childbirth, by Greece in 1920, by Roumania in 1921 and by Bulgaria and Italy in 1922; that on night work for women, by Greece in 1920, by Czecho-Slovakia, Great Britain, India, Roumania and South Africa in 1921 and Bulgaria, Esthonia, Netherlands, Italy and Switzerland in 1922; that on the minimum age for workers by Greece in 1920, by Czecho-Slovakia, Great Britain and Roumania in 1921 and by Bulgaria, Esthonia and Switzerland in 1922; that on night work for young persons, by Greece in 1920, by Great Britain, India and Roumania in 1921 and by Bulgaria, Esthonia, Italy and Switzerland in 1922; and that on white phosphorus, by Australia and India in 1919, by Austria and Sweden in 1920, by Czecho-Slovakia, Finland, the Free City of Danzig, Japan, Poland and Roumania in 1921 and by Belgium in 1922. By March, 1922, at least twenty countries had enacted eight hour legislation and various countries had made legal application of the other draft convention measures. The Genoa conference convention on minimum age for seamen was ratified by Great Britain and Sweden in 1921 and by Roumania in 1922; that on employment for seamen, by Norway and Sweden in 1921 and by Finland and Japan in 1922. The Geneva conference conventions were all with the exception of that on the weekly rest in industry, ratified by Esthonia

LABOR LEGISLATION, 1920

in 1922. India ratified the conventions referring to persons employed at sea. Under this conference there is an extended period not expiring until May, 1923, before which time the ratification of several other countries is possible.

1920.—Code of labor laws of Soviet Russia.—"The issue of 'Soviet Russia,' the official organ of the Russian Soviet Bureau located at New York City, dated February 21, 1920, reproduces a code of laws enacted for the regulation of labor under the Soviet Government. The code applies to all persons receiving remuneration for their work and is binding upon all enterprises, institutions, and establishments, public or private, as well as private employers. Co-operative workers, workers in communal enterprises, farmers, and independent artisans are subject to other forms of regulation. . . . The first article of the code relates to compulsory labor. All citizens of the republic are subject to compulsory labor except those under 16 and over 50 years of age, and those who have become incapacitated by injury or illness. Temporary exemptions are made in case of persons temporarily disabled and of women for eight weeks before and after childbirth. Questions of permanent and temporary disability require medical certification. Labor may be rendered in the form of organized co-operation, individual personal service, or individual special jobs. The conditions of labor are to be regulated by rules drawn up by the trade-unions in agreement with the directors or owners of establishments or enterprises, and approved by the People's Commissariat of Labor. Individual personal service or special jobs are subject to trade-union rules to be approved by the commissariat. . . . The second article declares that all citizens able to work have the right to employment at their vocations and for remuneration fixed for such classes of work. This right belongs first to workers subject to compulsory labor. Persons over fifty come next, while persons under 16, those incapacitated by injury or illness, and women given vacations on account of childbirth are barred. No female and no male under 18 shall have the right to work at night or at especially hard or dangerous occupations. . . . Article 3 takes up the subject of the methods of labor distribution. Departments of labor distribution, trade-unions, and all institutions of the Republic are to co-operate in enforcing the right to work; while the assignment of wage earners to work is to be carried out through the departments of labor distribution. Only these departments may summon a wage earner to work unless he be chosen for a position by a Soviet institution or enterprise. A system of election is provided where special qualifications are required. Unemployed wage earners are required to register in the local department of labor distribution to which application is to be made by those in need of workers. Persons meeting the requirements of the employment shall be assigned to work, and may not refuse the same if the working conditions conform to the standard fixed by the proper authorities. If the local list does not contain a suitable supply of workers, application must be made to the district bureau, and if this is found deficient, workmen of a class most nearly approaching the requirements of the trade may be sent, upon agreement with the proper trade-union. A workman offered work outside of his vocation is obliged to accept it on the understanding, if he so wishes, that it is only temporary until he can secure work at his vocation. If the employment is outside the district of the worker's residence, the number shall be made up from volunteers, if possible; otherwise, unemployed workers shall be assigned in the order of their registration. Acceptance for permanent employment requires a period of probation of not more than six days, though in Soviet institutions the probation period shall be two weeks for unskilled and less responsible work, and one month for skilled and responsible work. Report is to be made to the department of labor distribution as to the acceptance or rejection of the worker, who retains his place on the list of unemployed until the expiration of the probation period. A rejected worker may appeal to the trade-union of which he is a member, which may then negotiate with the employer. If the negotiations fail, the matter shall be submitted to the local department of labor, which makes a final decision. If the rejection seems to the department to have been without sufficient reason, the employer must furnish the workman with work, and may also be required to pay for time lost. Article 5 relates to the transfer and discharge of wage earners. Transfers may be made only by decision of the proper organs of management, and if it involves a shift to another enterprise or establishment, the consent of the department of labor distribution must be obtained. Appeals may be taken to the district department of labor or to the People's Commissariat of Labor whose decision is final. These last-named agencies may, in agreement with the respective professional unions, transfer a whole group of wage earners in cases of urgent public work, either in the same or a different locality, if a sufficient number of volunteers can not be found. Discharges may take place only in case employers go out of business or certain orders of work are canceled, or if work is suspended for more than a month, or in case of the completion of a temporary contract, or where there is an evident unfitness for the work as determined upon the organs of management in agreement with the proper union, or, finally, by request of the wage earner. Two weeks' notice is required, except in cases of termination of temporary employment or where the wage earners request release. Appeals may be taken in case of discharge, first to the local department of labor and, finally, to the district department, whose decision is final. Discharges by request of the wage earner must be passed upon by the proper works or other committee representing the workmen's self-government system. If these find the resignation unjustified, the worker must remain at work, but may appeal to his union. The remuneration of labor is considered in article 6. It is directed that remuneration of all paid labor and the detailed conditions and order of payment shall be fixed by tariffs worked out for each kind of labor by the Soviet authorities, the trade-union, and the People's Commissariat, in agreement with the directors and owners of establishments and enterprises. The standard shall at least cover the minimum living expenses as determined for each district by the People's Commissariat of Labor. The character of the labor, its dangers, complexity, the degree of independence and responsibility involved, as well as standard of education and experience required, shall be considered in fixing wages. The daily rate shall be the standard, and piecework shall be compensated according to the number of pieces determined to constitute the production standard. Overtime work shall be remunerated at a rate not exceeding time and a half, and, excepting such excess, no additional pay above the standard fixed shall be permitted in any form or under any pretext. Payments for steady work must be made periodically, at least once in every fortnight, and no payment may be made in advance. Payments

in kind may be made only on special permission. Wages must be paid during working hours, at the place of work, and only for actual work done. The payment of wages is continued during leaves of absence, illness, and unemployment; but in the two latter cases payment is made from special funds. Working hours are regulated by the same bodies as those fixing wages. Eight hours is the maximum for a normal working day, and seven hours for night work. Persons under 18, and those employed at specially difficult or dangerous employment, may not work more than six hours per day. As a general rule, overtime work shall not be permitted, and in no case shall females or males under 18 do overtime work. An uninterrupted rest of 42 hours must be allowed each week, and, if the working day exceeds six hours, it shall be reduced by two on the day preceding rest days. Workers who have been engaged without interruption for not less than six months shall be allowed two weeks' leave with pay, and if for one year, one month's leave with pay. A wage earner shall not be allowed to work for remuneration during his leave of absence. The eighth article establishes methods to assure efficiency of labor. A standard output for normal working conditions is required of all workers, this standard to be determined by commissions of the representative trade-unions and approved by the proper department of labor jointly with the Council of National Economy. A worker falling below the standard may be reduced to a lower group at a lower rate of wages; or, if his failure is due to lack of good faith and negligence, he may be discharged without the prescribed two weeks' notice. Rules of internal management must also be drawn up by the Soviet authority for Soviet institutions, and by the trade-unions for other undertakings, to be approved by State authorities in both cases. The concluding article considers safety regulations. The protection of life and health lies with technical inspectors and the representatives of sanitary inspection. Labor inspectors are to be elected by the councils of professional unions, and are under the jurisdiction of the People's Commissariat of Labor and its local branches (departments of labor). The inspectors have full authority to enter establishments and all buildings provided for the workmen, to examine books, and to secure cooperation of representatives of both employers and employees. They are to enforce the provisions of this code and all orders, instructions, etc., of the Soviet Bureau intended to safeguard the life and health of the workers. They may also adopt special measures to meet special dangerous conditions. Appendixes provide rules concerning the unemployed and the payment of subsidies, concerning labor booklets, and for the determination of disabilities for work. Unemployed persons are to receive the remuneration paid to their class under the findings of the authorities, but must submit evidence as to their status, and the extent and causes of their unemployment must be ascertained through the department of labor distribution. Payments are to be made from an unemployment insurance fund levied on all enterprises employing paid labor, including fines imposed for default in the payment of such levies, and any casual amounts accruing. Every citizen of the Republic on being assigned to his labor group and category is to receive a labor booklet or pass book, a copy of which is also to be kept by his employer. This book must be presented to his employer on entering any employment, and all payments, fines, absences, etc., must be entered therein. This book must be held open to inspection of the authorities as well as of his employer and his trade-union. Disability for work shall be determined by a bureau of medical experts in urban districts; or by provincial insurance offices, accident insurance offices, and institutions acting as such. Surgeons, officials, mechanical engineers, and trade-unions are to be represented on the staff of the bureau of experts. Reexaminations may be had to determine changes of conditions. Sick benefits shall be the same as the wages payable to the group to which the wage earners belong. Payments are to be made from hospital funds sustained by enterprises employing paid labor. The absolutely dominating nature of these regulations is shown by the following preliminary article: 'IV. All labor agreements previously entered into, as well as all those which will be entered into in the future, in so far as they contradict the regulations of this code, shall not be considered valid or obligatory, either for the employees or the employers.' "—*Monthly Labor Review, Apr.*, 1920, *pp.* 210-214.—See also RUSSIA, SOVIET CONSTITUTION OF.

1920.—Labor conscription law in Bulgaria. See BULGARIA: 1920-1921.

1920.—Trend of labor movement in France.—Economic council of labor. See FRANCE: 1920 (January).

1920.—Creation of Railroad Labor Board by Esch-Cummins Act, United States. See RAILROADS: 1920: United States.

1920-1922.—Great Britain.—Other European countries.—India and Japan.—Great Britain's Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act passed in 1920 permits women and young persons to work on double shifts sixteen hours between 6 A. M. and 10 P. M. on issuance of special order from the Home Office. Another act prohibited or regulated employment in industries necessitating lead processes. The Mining Industry Act, 1920, set up a Mine's Department of the Board of Trade. During this year too the Shops (Early Closing) Act specified eight o'clock (nine o'clock on Saturdays) as the closing hour of all shops not specifically excepted. The Industrial Courts Act extended, to September 1920, provisions of former acts relating to minimum wage rates. The Old Age Pensions Act of 1919 was extended by the Blind Persons Act of 1920 which entitles the blind man of 50 to benefits normally due at 70. A National Health Insurance Act of 1920 also amended a previous measure, regulating the scales of payments and benefits. Late in 1920 the Emergency Powers Act was passed, supplementing the Police Act of 1919 and giving the government power to suppress action or threatened action likely to interfere with the public weal. The bill for the general 48 hour working week introduced by the Minister of Labor in 1921 did not meet with success in 1921. In this regard, " 'According to the British factory inspector's report for 1921 (p. 83) the 48-hour week is now almost universal, and it is seldom exceeded. Moreover, it has been found that where the reduction in hours is continued in a considerable period output tends in the majority of cases to attain the old level and that the beneficial effect of increasing leisure on the workers is making itself apparent.' "—*Monthly Labor Review, Oct.*, 1922, *p.* 69.—The extreme gravity of the unemployment situation during 1920 and 1921 resulted in the Employment Insurance bill of 1920 and its two amendments of 1921, the first to increase and second to reduce the benefits, both far from meeting the demands of labor. The British Education Act of 1918 in operation in July, 1922, means no exemption from school to any child between five and fourteen years of age. Australia

made her conciliation and arbitration act more flexible by amending it in 1921 in the Federal Parliament. South Australia amended her industrial code with regard to basic wages. In Queensland subcontractors were given protection and the workmen's compensation act amended by giving the state exclusive control of the insurance and by broadening the class of those enjoying the compensation. New Zealand's Shops and Offices Act of 1921 relates to protective measures for the employment of mercantile employees. A significant bill relating to New Zealand's progressive attitude in social problems is the Motherhood Endowment Bill introduced in August, 1922. Starting from a basic wage which was calculated for the average family, consisting of husband and wife and two children, the bill proposes to give an endowment of ten shillings a week for every child above two years and under fifteen.

As a result of the part played in the general strike of 1920 in France by the General Confederation of Labor, early in 1921 the government ordered the dissolution of the C. G. T. which, while declaring its intention of ignoring the order, at the same time adopted a more conservative policy, thereby losing numerous groups to Communist organizations. "By a Decree dated 15 September 1922 new regulations regarding hours of work on the French railways were issued replacing the decisions made in 1919. . . . As a temporary measure, working hours would for 7 years be limited, not to 2,504 per year which is the equivalent of 8 hours a day for 313 working days, but to 2,804 hours. A margin of 300 hours was thus established, covering the transition required by the Act of 23 April 1919, but nevertheless effecting a reduction of 952 hours per annum on the former legal working hours."—*International Labor Review, Feb.-Mar.,* 1923, *pp.* 328, 330.—Italy established a system of compulsory insurance against involuntary unemployment in 1920. In Germany during 1921 there were submitted to the preliminary Federal economic council drafts of laws relating to employment exchanges, the settlement of labor disputes, the hours of labor and regulation of wages. At the beginning of 1922, legislation was pending concerning a projected labor court and questions on home labor. German labor is much encouraged (1922) by the reference to the eight hour law made by the minister of labor, especially the mine workers who have recently been compelled to accept longer hours. Switzerland introduced the eight hour day in principle by Federal laws of 1919 and 1920 regarding factories and transportation and by various cantonal regulations in the arts and trade and in commerce. Reaction in the country against the principle is exemplified by a bill of 1922 passed in the National Council, providing that in certain industries in time of crisis the hours may be extended on the authority of the Council. The bill which had not passed the State Council late in 1922 was slated for a referendum vote. In Spain the eight hour day was made effective on railroads by a decree of October 12, 1921. The anti-revolutionary law of 1920 in the Netherlands was passed over the protests of all the labor organizations except the Catholic unions. A 48 hour week was substituted in 1922 for the 45 hour week. Until October 1923 workers over 16 years old may be employed ten hours a day and 55 hours a week in the building industry and public works. The Belgian parliament, which since the armistice has passed such reform measures as universal suffrage, old age pensions and miners' pensions, established in 1921 the eight hour day within certain limitations with the result that large sections of workers are reported to remain unbenefited by it. A law of 1922 regulates labor contracts in Belgium. Denmark's old age pension law of 1922 supersedes the law of 1908, allowing pensions to persons of 62 years whose earning capacity has been reduced two-thirds or more and who are not entitled to invalidity insurance. In 1921 Denmark amended the law of 1910 establishing a court for industrial arbitration and conciliation to meet new conditions. There are now three conciliators instead of one and the jurisdiction of the court is extended to industry, handicrafts, agriculture, transportation and (since 1919) to commerce and general office work. In 1921 Denmark also passed a new law regulating employment exchanges and unemployment. (See also DENMARK: 1921.) Poland passed in July, 1920, a provisional law for the establishment of works councils in industrial concerns and a law for the redistribution of land among the agricultural population. Jugo-Slavia has recently passed legislation dissolving most of the trade unions which, under the reactionary methods of the government, had thought themselves justified in adopting radical tactics. Rumania created, by a decree of 1920, a Minister of Labor and Social Welfare and during the same year expropriated and redistributed land for the benefit of the peasant population. In 1921 Russia's change in her practical economic policy from communism to acknowledged state capitalism led her to abolish the system of forced membership in "governmentalized" labor unions and to concentrate industrial authority in the hands of the factory manager who is to have full authority to determine wages, rations, housing, etc., in accord with the collective union agreement. Any direct interference on the part of the labor unions is strictly banned. Norway's compulsory arbitration law of 1922, effective April 1, 1923, is in the main the same as her law of 1919 which was allowed to lapse in 1921. A recent law of Greece relates to protective measures in factories, child labor, etc. Turkey's first legislation for laborers was the enaction of a law in 1922 which pertains mainly to the improving housing and other conditions among coal miners. In India the government of the Bombay Presidency established a Labor Office in 1921. Important changes in factory laws are brought about in the Indian Factories Act Amendment, effective July 1, 1922. An increased number of workers are protected in the application of the name "factory" to smaller concerns than previously. Hours are limited to sixty a week and eleven a day for adults and four continuous work hours for children, the age of child labor being raised from nine to twelve years. Workers of fifteen instead of fourteen years of age are considered adults. Fifty-two weekly holidays a year and an hour for the luncheon period are required. Mines only are exempted from this legislation. In Japan the propaganda for universal suffrage so long stressed by Socialist groups has been omitted of late since it was felt that other political groups are recognizing the principle. The government, however, has (1922) failed to pass the measure.

1921-1922.—United States.—Federal labor legislation.—State measures.—An act of Congress relating to labor during 1921 provided that rates of wages of civilian employees paid out of the Army appropriation are not to exceed those paid by private employers in the same locality. Another act limiting immigration to three per cent of 1910 resident nationality populations while not strictly a labor measure may be said to affect the labor supply. "Only two bills of importance

in the social and labor field were passed by Congress during [1922] . . . —the Maternity and Infancy Protection Bill and the bill restoring the protection of state workman's compensation laws to longshoremen and other harbor workers. The three per cent immigration law was extended until 1924. The failure of two important bills is of great significance. The Kenyon Bill, providing for the planning and execution of public works for the relief of unemployment failed and sufficient appropriation was not made for the United States Employment Service. The Workmen's Compensation Law for the District of Columbia is still an open issue in Congress."—A. H. Campbell, *Human relationships in industry during 1921-1922, pp.* 50-51.—Many state legislatures during 1921 busied themselves with laws relating to labor and with methods of enforcing and administrating such laws, the tendency being toward a consolidation of agencies. "One noticeable effect of the general movement in favor of compensation is a falling off in the enactment of laws relating to employers' liability, though in a few cases action on this subject was taken last year [1920]. The regulation of the employment of women and children continues to be a matter of general interest, a very apparent movement being that of providing for continuation schools [during working hours] for the further education of employed children who have not attained an approved standard of educational training. . . . A very noticeable bit of legislation is that found in a large number of States, accepting the provisions of the Federal statute with regard to the vocational rehabilitation of injured workers."—United States Department of Labor, *Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin no.* 308, *p.* 1.—In 1922 social labor legislation was extended by very few states, and in several, measures coming under that head were restricted. Practically no headway was made in limitation of hours of working or minimum wage laws. Bills relating to the former subject failed in Rhode Island and New Jersey and on the latter in Massachusetts. New York and Massachusetts refused to accept the Federal maternity and infancy protection act and in the latter state a standard unemployment bill was introduced and failed. Missouri defeated workmen's compensation for the second time. Some progress was made in child labor laws, Virginia and New York broadening the scope of their measures. In spite of the serious crisis in unemployment, negligible action was taken by state legislatures to improve matters.—See also Housing: United States: New York state legislation.

1921-1922.—Canada.—Mexico.—South America.—Canada's dominion legislation during this period has related mainly to Chinese immigration. The tendency of provincial Canadian legislation during 1921 was to lower wage rates. Nova Scotia authorized the government operation of mines when expedient or necessary with compulsory service under penalty of fine or imprisonment. The Municipal Strike and Lockout act in Quebec relates to wages, hours and union membership and prescribes submission of disputes to a board of arbitration. Ontario and other provinces passed laws on vocational education and amended the minimum wage act so that its enforcement could be temporarily waived when changes or special conditions warranted. Provision was made for employment service councils, and the factory inspection law was made more stringent. Several acts of British Columbia include a proviso that they shall only come into effect when similar laws shall have been enacted in other Provinces. The subjects of these laws include hours of labor, employment of children and night employment of women. A new law is the superannuation act for provincial, municipal and school board employees and open to employees who fulfill the conditions.

Almost all labor legislation now (December, 1922) in force in Mexico and its constituent states has been enacted since the promulgation of the Federal constitution on February 5, 1917. (See also Mexico, Constitution of.) Provisions relative to labor and social welfare afford definite protection for the worker's eight hour day. Special legislation for women and minors, equality of sexes in wages, sanitary provisions, compulsory arbitration boards, social insurance and coöperation are advocated.

In South America where race problems and climate enter in, considerable progress along the line of social and labor legislation has recently been made. In several countries definite steps to regulate prices and reduce the cost of living have been taken by the governments, while several conciliation and arbitration laws have been enacted. Argentina passed a minimum wage and wage increase law in 1921. The eight hour day prevails in most sections, though no Federal law has established it. Peru, where the eight hour day was confirmed by law in 1919, passed a compulsory arbitration decree in 1920. Chile's proposed code of labor in 1921 included social legislation measures and the creation of a department of labor. Uruguay is said to have the most advanced social legislation of any Latin American country. In May 1921 she added two new sections to the National Labor Office to deal with child labor and industrial accidents. Columbia enacted in 1921 a law to safeguard the health of petroleum workers and Bolivia is engaged in drawing up a program of legislative reforms. Ecuador's action of emancipating her peons in 1919 has been followed up by further protective legislation for these workers such as the workmen's compensation law of 1921. In Brazil, notwithstanding the difficulties of unity among the workers due to the great extent of the country, labor has been making forceful demands and has received concessions from the government relative to several forms of social legislation. Recently the eight hour day question has been stressed and legislative consideration assured by the President of the Republic. In Venezuela peonage, although illegal, still exists, the nine hour day is in force and there are no laws protecting workmen from accident.

See also Arbitration and conciliation, Industrial; Child welfare legislation; Social insurance.

Also in: J. R. Commons and J. B. Andrews, *Principles of labor legislation.*—F. J. Warne, *Workers and the war.*—M. B. Hammond, *British labor conditions and legislation during the war.*—I. F. Ayusawa, *International labor legislation.*—*American Labor Legislation Review.*—B. E. Lowe, *International protection of labor.*—G. S. Watkins, *Introduction to the study of labor problems.*—B. G. De Montgomery, *British and continental labour policy.*

LABOR OFFICE, International: Case before Permanent Court of International Justice. See International Justice, Permanent Court of.

Library of International Labor Office. See Libraries: Modern: International libraries.

LABOR ORGANIZATION: Introduction.—"A Trade Union, as we understand the term, is a continuous association of wage-earners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions

of their employment. . . . We have, by our definition, expressly excluded from our history any account of the innumerable instances in which the manual workers have formed ephemeral combinations against their social superiors. Strikes are as old as history itself. The ingenious seeker of historical parallels might, for instance, find in the revolt, B.C. 1490, of the Hebrew brickmakers in Egypt against being required to make bricks without straw, a curious precedent for the strike of the Stalybridge cotton-spinners, A.D. 1892, against the supply of bad material for their work. But we cannot seriously regard, as in any way analogous to the Trade Union Movement of today, the innumerable rebellions of subject races, the slave insurrections, and the semi-servile peasant revolts of which the annals of history are full. . . . When, however, we pass from the annals of slavery or serfdom to those of the nominally free citizenship of the mediæval town, we are on more debatable ground. We make no pretence to a thorough knowledge of English town-life in the Middle Ages. But it is clear that there were at all times, alongside of the independent master craftsmen, a number of hired journeymen, who are known to have occasionally combined against their rulers and governors. . . . After detailed consideration of every published instance of a journeyman's fraternity in England, we are fully convinced that there is as yet no evidence of the existence of any such durable and independent combination of wage-earners against their employers during the Middle Ages. There are certain other cases in which associations, which are sometimes assumed to have been composed of journeymen maintained a continuous existence. But in all these cases the 'Bachelors' Company,' presumed to be a journeymen's fraternity, formed a subordinate department of the masters' gild, by the rulers of which it was governed. It will be obvious that associations in which the employers dispensed the funds and appointed the officers can bear no analogy to modern Trade Unions. The explanation of the tardy growth of stable combination among hired journeymen is, we believe, to be found in the prospects of economic advancement which the skilled handicraftsman still possessed. . . . The apprenticed journeyman in the skilled handicrafts belonged, until comparatively modern times, to the same social grade as his employer, and was, indeed, usually the son of a master in the same or an analogous trade. So long as industry was carried on mainly by small masters, each employing but one or two journeymen, the period of any energetic man's service as a hired wage-earner cannot normally have exceeded a few years. . . . Under such a system of industry the journeymen would possess the same prospects of economic advancement that hindered the growth of stable combinations in the ordinary handicrafts, and in this fact may lie the explanation of the striking absence of evidence of any Trade Unionism in the building trades right down to the end of the eighteenth century. When, however, the capitalist builder or contractor began to supersede the master mason, master plasterer, &c., and this class of small entrepreneurs had again to give place to a hierarchy of hired workers, Trade Unions, in the modern sense, began, as we shall see, to arise. We have dwelt at some length upon these ephemeral associations of wage-earners and on the journeymen fraternities of the Middle Ages, because it might plausibly be argued that they were in some sense the predecessors of the Trade Union. But strangely enough it is not in these institutions that the origin of Trade Unionism has usually been sought."—S. and B. Webb, *History of trade-unionism, ch.* I.

Also in: G. D. H. Cole, *Introduction to trade unionism.*

1720-1800.—Origin of trade unions in England.—Relation to medieval craft guilds.—Journeymen tailors.—"For the predecessor of the modern Trade Union, men have turned, not to the mediæval associations of the wage-earners, but to those of their employers—that is to say, the Craft Gilds. [See Guilds.] . . . The supposed descent of the Trade Unions from the mediæval Craft Gild rests, as far as we have been able to discover, upon no evidence whatsoever. The historical proof is all the other way. In London, for instance, more than one Trade Union has preserved an unbroken existence from the eighteenth century. The Craft Gilds still exist in the City Companies, and at no point in their history do we find the slightest evidence of the branching off from them of independent journeymen's societies. . . . We have failed to discover, either in the innumerable trade pamphlets and broad-sheets of the time, or in the Journals of the House of Commons, any evidence of the existence, prior to 1700, of continuous associations of wage-earners for maintaining or improving the conditions of their employment. And when we remember that during the later decades of the seventeenth century the employers of labour, and especially the industrial 'companies' or corporations, memorialised the House of Commons on every conceivable grievance which affected their particular trade, the absence of all complaints of workmen's combinations suggests to us that no such combinations existed. In the early years of the eighteenth century we find isolated complaints of combinations 'lately entered into' by the skilled workers in certain trades. As the century progresses we watch the gradual multiplication of these complaints, met by counter-accusations presented by organised bodies of workmen. . . . If we examine the evidence of the rise of combinations in particular trades, we see the Trade Union springing, not from any particular institution, but from every opportunity for the meeting together of wage-earners of the same trade. Adam Smith remarked that 'people of the same trade seldom meet together, even for merriment and diversion, but the conversation ends in a conspiracy against the public, or in some contrivance to raise prices.' And there is actual evidence of the rise of one of the oldest of the existing Trade Unions out of a gathering of the journeymen 'to take a social pint of porter together.' More often it is a tumultuous strike, out of which grows a permanent organisation. . . . If the trade is one in which the journeymen frequently travel in search of work, we note the slow elaboration of systematic arrangements for the relief of these 'tramps' by their fellow-workers in each town through which they pass, and the inevitable passage of this far-extending tramping society into a national Trade Union. . . . We find that at the beginning of the eighteenth century the typical journeyman tailor in London and Westminster had become a lifelong wage-earner. It is not surprising, therefore, that one of the earliest instances of permanent Trade Unionism that we have been able to discover occurs in this trade. The master tailors in 1720 complain to Parliament that 'the Journeymen Taylors in and about the Cities of London and Westminster, to the number of seven thousand and upwards, have lately entered into a combination to raise their wages and leave off working an hour sooner than they used to do; and for the better carrying on their design have subscribed their respective names in books prepared for that purpose, at the several houses

LABOR ORGANIZATION, 1800-1875

of call or resort (being publick-houses in and about London and Westminster) where they use; and collect several considerable sums of money to defend any prosecutions against them.' Parliament listened to the masters' complaint, and passed the Act 7, Geo. I. st. 1, c. 13, restraining both the giving and the taking of wages in excess of a stated maximum, all combinations being prohibited. From that time forth the journeymen tailors of London and Westminster have remained in effective though sometimes informal combination, the organisation centring round the fifteen or twenty 'houses of call.' "—S. and B. Webb, *History of trade-unionism, ch.* 1.

1800-1875.—Struggle of the trade unions in England for a legal existence.—During the 18th century, "the employers succeeded in passing a whole series of laws, some of them of Draconian severity, designed to suppress combinations of working men. In England they are called the Combination Laws, and culminated in the Act of 40 George III., c. 106, which was passed in 1800 in response to a petition from the employers. It made all trade combinations illegal. . . . The result of this law, which was expressly designed to put an end to strikes altogether, is an instructive example of the usual effect of such measures. The workmen's associations, which had frequently hitherto been formed quite openly, became secret, while they spread through the length and breadth of England. The time when the books of the Union were concealed on the moors, and an oath of secrecy was exacted from its members, is still a living tradition in labour circles. It was a time when the hatred of the workers towards the upper classes and the legislature flourished luxuriantly, while the younger generation of working men who had grown up under the shadow of repressive legislation, became the pillars of the revolutionary Chartist movement. The old struggle against capital assumed a more violent character. . . . It was the patent failure of the Combination Laws which gave the stimulus to the suggestion of repeal soon after 1820," and the repeal was accomplished by the Act of 1824. "The immediate consequence of this Act was the outbreak of a number of somewhat serious strikes. The general public then took fright, and thus the real struggle for the right of combination began after it had received legal recognition. In 1825, the employers rallied and demanded the re-enactment of the earlier laws on the ground that Parliament had carried their repeal with undue precipitation. . . . The Act of 1825 which repealed that of the previous year, was a compromise in which the opponents of free combination had gained the upper hand. But they had been frustrated in their attempt to stamp out the Unions with all the rigour of the law, for the champions of the Act of 1824 were in a position to demonstrate that the recognition of combination had already done something to improve the relations between capital and labour. It had at least done away with that secrecy which in itself constituted a danger to the State; and now that the Unions were openly avowed, their methods had become less violent. Nevertheless, the influence of the manufacturers strongly predominated in framing the Bill. . . . The only advance on the state of things previous to 1824 which had been secured was the fundamental point that a combination of working men was not in itself illegal—though almost any action which could rise out of such a combination was prohibited. Yet it was under the Act of 1825 that the Trade Unions grew and attained to that important position in which we find them at the beginning of the seventies. Here was emphatically a movement which the law might force into illegal channels, but could not suppress. . . . The most serious danger that the Trade Unions encountered was in the course of the sixties. Under the leadership of one Broadhead, certain Sheffield Unions had entered on a course of criminal intimidation of non-members. The general public took their action as indicating the spirit of Trade Unions generally. In point of fact, the workmen employed in the Sheffield trade were in a wholly exceptional position. . . . But both in Parliament and the Press it was declared that the occurrences at Sheffield called for more stringent legislation and the suppression of combinations of working men. . . . But times had changed since 1825. The Unions themselves called for the most searching inquiry into their circumstances and methods, which would, they declared, prove that they were in no way implicated in such crimes as had been committed in Sheffield. The impulse given by Thomas Carlyle had raised powerful defenders for the workmen, first among whom we may mention the positivist Frederic Harrison, and Thomas Hughes, the co-operator. . . . The preliminaries to the appointment of the Commission of 1867 revealed a change in the attitude of the employers, especially the more influential of them, which marked an enormous advance on the debates of 1824 and 1825. . . . The investigation of the Commission of 1867-1869 were of a most searching character, and their results are contained in eleven reports. The Unions came well through the ordeal, and it was shown that the outrages had been confined to a few Unions, for the most part of minor importance. It further appeared that where no combination existed the relations between employers and hands were not more friendly, while the position of the workers was worse and in some cases quite desperate. The report led up to proposals for the legislation of Trade Unions, and to the legislation of 1871-1876, which was supported by many influential employers. The attitude of Parliament had changed with amazing rapidity. . . . The Trade Union Acts of 1871 and 1876 give all Unions, on condition that they register their rules, the same rights as were already enjoyed by the Friendly Societies in virtue of earlier legislation, i.e. the rights of legal personality. They can sue and be sued, possess real and personal estate, and can proceed summarily against their officers for fraudulent conduct. They also possess facilities for the transfer of investments to new trustees. The Act of 1871 was extended by that of 1876, framed expressly with the concurrence of the Trade Union leaders. . . . The working men, now that they are left to conduct their meetings in any way they choose, have gradually developed that sober and methodical procedure which amazes the Continental observer. . . . At Common Law, any action of Trade Unionists to raise wages seemed liable to punishment as conspiracy, on the ground that it was directed against the common weal. The course run by the actual prosecutions did, indeed, prevent this doctrine from ever receiving the sanction of a sentence expressly founded on it; but it gathered in ever heavier thunders over the heads of the Unions, and its very vagueness gave it the appearance of a deliberate persecution of one class of society in the interests of another. The Act of 1871 first brought within definite limits the extreme penalties that could be enforced against Trade Unionists either at Statute or Common Law. . . . By the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act of 1875 the workmen's economic aims were at last recognised on precisely the same

footing as those of other citizens."—G. von Schulze-Gaevernitz, *Social peace, pp.* 86-102.

ALSO IN: Le Comte de Paris, *Trades' unions of England.*—W. Trant, *Trade unions.*—National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, *Report of Committee on Societies and Strikes,* 1860.

1806-1909.—Conseils des prud'hommes of France. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: France.

1825-1875.—Early trade unions in America.—National Trades' Union and National trade unions.—National Labor Union.—Knights of St. Crispin.—"Modern trade unionism was practically non-existent previous to 1825. Certain rudimentary organizations are found, but these were purely local, ephemeral, and confined to members of one trade. The early isolated organizations were called trade societies. 'Modern trade-unionism as an industrial and political force,' writes Professor Commons, 'began with the coming together of previously existing societies from several trades to form a central body on the representative principle.' These were called trades' unions, not trade unions. To the then largest city of the United States, Philadelphia, and not to England, as commonly stated, belongs the honor of being the birthplace of the modern trades' union,—that is, a union or association of trade unions or labor societies. The Mechanics' Union of Trade Associations was organized in that city in 1827, and antedates by two years the first similar organization in England. During the succeeding ten years three forms of labor organizations may be noticed: (1) The Trades' unions in different towns and cities. (2) The first form went into politics (1827-1831), and formed workingmen's parties in various cities. [See LABOR PARTIES: 1827-1872.] (3) After the close of the rocket-like career of the workingmen's parties, events moved slowly for a few years. Then, with the era of swiftly rising prices which preceded the panic of 1837, came the rapid growth of trades' unions and the organization of several national trade unions and of the National Trades' Union, which held three annual meetings in 1834, 1835, and 1836, and possibly one more in 1837. . . . The period 1834-1837 was one of extraordinary trade-union activity. General Trades' Unions were formed in the large cities. New York and Philadelphia had strong organizations. A contemporary newspaper states that the Trades' Union of Philadelphia consisted in 1836 'of forty-eight trade societies or associations, sovereign and independent in themselves, but bound by ties of honor and interest to support and assist each other in cases of aggression or danger.' Two of these societies boasted of a membership of over nine hundred each, and four of more than seven hundred each. Among the trade unions or labor societies belonging to the Trades' Union were the Society of Journeymen Tailors, the Society of Cordwainers, the Journeymen Printers, the Society of Journeymen Hatters, and the Society of Cotton Spinners. A 'Society of Female Operatives,' having a membership of about four hundred, is also reported from Philadelphia. This organization was similar to other trade societies. The Boston Trades' Union, on July 4, 1834, had two thousand men in a procession. The printers organized societies in not less than twenty-four cities in the decade of the thirties. Catalogs of 'rats' or non-union men are reported to have been occasionally published by the organized printers; and picketing was not unknown. In 1836 the New York General Trades' Union complained that the Employing Leather Dressers had declared for what we now call the 'open shop,' and were refusing to hire men belonging to a labor organization. This was denounced as 'an attempted violation of the constitutional and natural rights of American citizens.' Many of the methods used today by organized labor were employed by the ephemeral and premature unions of the thirties. The pioneer national organization of wage earners on American soil was the National Trades' Union which first met in the city of New York in August, 1834. At this time it was estimated that there were 26,250 members of American trades' unions. . . . At the first convention about thirty delegates were present. The second convention also met in New York City, and was attended by forty-eight delegates. The third convention met in 1836 in Philadelphia. A fourth convention was called to meet in 1837; and it is probable that a few delegates attended. With the panic, the national organization passed out of existence. The National Trades' Union was a union of local unions and of the central trades' unions in different cities. It began merely as an advisory body with no disciplinary powers; but in 1836 the constitution of the body was so changed as to allow it to exercise some authority over the bodies united in the national organization. . . . In 1836 at least five trades had formed national trade unions,—that is, formed national organizations within a single trade. These trades were the cordwainers, the comb-makers, the carpenters, the weavers, and the printers. Other organizations recognized the desirability of national organization. The printers held at least two annual meetings, in 1836 and 1837. The National Trades' Union and the national trade unions of the thirties were national unions at least three decades ahead of their time. The railway and the telegraph had not yet extended the market area. Competition over wide areas was as yet little felt. Only the extraordinary increase in the cost of living in the years immediately preceding the panic of 1837 could bring into life even an ephemeral national organization. As soon as that pressure was removed the national organizations disappeared and were soon forgotten. . . . A short period of rising prices dates from 1843. A few 'sporadic' unions were called into existence, and here and there minor strikes occurred. For the first time in American history the factory and the factory operative began to figure in labor disputes. Soon, however, the level of prices began to move downward, and labor agitations and organization assumed modified forms. From about 1845 to 1851 purely trade-union methods were rarely employed; and the doctrine of class harmony was persistently preached. The main points in the labor demands were not wages and hours. The humanitarian element was in control; labor unionism and humanitarianism were curiously mixed. Various Labor Congresses and Workingmen's Associations were formed; and many organizations of women workers came into being. . . . The New England Workingmen's Association was organized in the spring of 1845. Its object was declared to be 'union for power, power to bless humanity.' In New York the National Reform Association was formed in 1844. This body wished to restore man to his 'natural right to land.' The first Industrial Congress convened in New York City, October 12, 1845. . . . In the decade of the fifties, however, indications are not lacking of the divorce of unionism from humanitarianism. 'Pure and simple' trade unionism began to appear. . . . In the autumn of 1853 an attempt was made to federate the unions of New York City. Only workingmen were entitled to act as delegates to the central body. All the labor movements of the pre-Civil

War period were ephemeral and soon disintegrated. . . . After 1862 labor agitation became considerable; concerted effort was necessary in order to force increases in wages commensurate with the rise in prices. In the period of the sixties, however, the supply of labor was reduced until the close of the war, then it was suddenly expanded. In the thirties, few labor-saving devices came into use. In the sixties, labor-saving devices multiplied rapidly; and the employing classes were more strongly united than in the earlier period. On the other hand, the wage earner might become a soldier or move to the farming or the mining districts of the West or of the middle West. Thus the growth of organization among the wage earners met certain obstacles which were not important in the thirties. The decade of the fifties witnessed the organization of several national trade unions and of an indefinite number of local unions. For example, the cigar makers of Cincinnati are reported to have organized a local in 1843; another was formed in Baltimore in 1851. In succeeding years, additional locals were formed in New York and other cities. In 1850 a national union for printers was organized. None had existed since the ephemeral national organization of the thirties disappeared amid the chaos of the panic of 1837. The National Trade Association of Hat Finishers was organized in 1854. The iron molders and the machinists and blacksmiths formed national unions in 1859; and the ship carpenters and the coal miners in 1861. The period of the fifties had been marked by little labor legislation except of the humanitarian type. With the issuance of paper money the workingman awoke to find himself menaced by rising prices and opposed by an alert, capable, and strong employing class. From 1863 to 1865 the working people organized and carried on strikes in much the same manner as from 1834 to 1837. . . . New national organizations naturally appeared; several were formed before the surrender of Lee. Among those organized were the Brotherhood of the Footboard, the forerunner of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, the Cigar Makers' International Union, and the Bricklayers and Masons' International Union. Before the close of the year 1865, at least thirty city central unions were organized. 'Finally, in September, 1864, when the membership of the unions was estimated at two hundred thousand, the trades' assemblies endeavored to form a national, or, rather, the International, Industrial Assembly of North America. The uppermost questions in this first national gathering were strikes, the store-order or truck system of paying wages, coöperation, prison labor, and woman's work.' From 1863 to 1866 the insistent demands of organized labor were for higher wages, a shorter working day, and the right to organize without interference on the part of their employers. The aims of the wage earners at this time were predominatingly practical.

"With the return of the soldiers looking for employment, the zeal for unionism increased in strength; but the methods and ideals of labor organizations were gradually modified. . . . In 1866 a National Labor Congress was held in Baltimore. The National Labor Union, the second successful attempt to form a national organization of all labor unions, seems to have been an outgrowth of the Congress of 1866. Annual conventions of the National Labor Union were held in 1867, 1868, 1869, 1871, and 1872. The National Labor Union was a weak federation of local, state, and national organizations. . . . The meeting held in 1872 closed the career of this weak advisory national organization. Only seven delegates attended the last meeting. . . . The important demands and recommendations in the platform adopted in 1868 by the National Labor Union, were: (1) Since the money monopoly was the parent of all monopolies, the national banking system should be abolished, and the capital stock of banks and government bonds should not be exempted from taxation. (2) The establishment of coöperative stores and workshops was favored. (3) The organization pledged itself to aid women wage earners. (4) The abolition of the contract system of convict labor was demanded. (5) The platform asserted that poverty, vice, and crime invariably accompanied bad housing conditions; and it asked for better dwellings for workers. (6) The establishment of mechanics' institutes, lyceums, and reading rooms for the education and enjoyment of the wage earners was recommended. (7) As a remedy for unemployment, emigration to Western lands was advocated. Other demands made by organized labor during the latter half of the sixties were (1) for an eight-hour day, (2) that no land grants be made except to actual settlers, (3) for the establishment of a national labor bureau, (4) that the importation of cheap labor be restricted, (5) for the reduction or abolition of tariff duties on the necessities of life, (6) that only a small standing army be maintained, and (7) for the early payment of the national debt. [See also U. S. A.: 1866-1872.] The demands of labor at this time were primarily political and required the passage of legislation by the national and state governments. The demands which could be obtained by purely trade-union methods were few. Unionism in the period 1866 to 1870 was political rather than business unionism. By 1870 or 1875 the factory system was well developed. The Knights of St. Crispin [made up of shoemakers] were first organized in 1867; and the first meeting of the Grand Lodge was held in 1868. In form it was a secret organization with a ritual. Within five or six years this organization became the most powerful labor organization formed up to that time; and then it quickly melted away. . . . A New York newspaper in 1869 stated that the first lodge of St. Crispin in that city was organized in 1868 in an attic room; but the union had grown until it was said to include in its membership nearly all the skilled shoemakers of the city and to control practically all the shops of the city. At the height of its power the order had a membership of at least 40,000, or it contained about four times as many workers as any other labor organization then in existence. The order practically disappeared soon after the panic of 1873."—F. T. Carlton, *History and problems of organized labor, pp.* 30, 34-41, 57, 59-60, 65.—For the later history of labor organizations in the United States, see KNIGHTS OF LABOR; AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR; INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD.

1836-1875.—**Report of National Trades' Union on women in industry.—Women admitted in trade unions.** See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1800-1875.

1843-1894. — **Consolidation in British labor movement.** — The process of strengthening the British labor movement by closer organization in various trades is thus described: "In the fifties, . . . the need for consolidation was asserting itself. . . . In 1851 the Amalgamated Society of Engineers was established. This organization pioneered the way, not only with respect to amalgamation of local unions on the craft basis, but also in the elaboration of what came to be regarded as a 'model' constitution. . . . In 1851 this society possessed a membership of 5,000. In 1890 it num-

bered over 67,000. It soon became the richest union in the country. Some idea of its resources, at the same time illustrating the predominance of the 'friendly side' over the 'trade side,' may be gathered from a comparison of its expenditure on each side in the year 1894, when £246,388 was spent on benefits and £1,568 on strikes and lock-outs. The strike in the London building trades in 1859, which arose out of the demand for a nine-hour day, and caused the employers to retaliate with their old weapon of the 'document,' led to the formation of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners in 1860. The A. S. E. served as 'model' for this new amalgamation of hitherto existing local combinations. In a short time—although it did not conquer the whole field of its craft, and has not even to-day [1919]—the A. S. C. & J. came rapidly into prominence and stood next to its pattern saint, the A. S. E., in influence and wealth. In 1866 an amalgamated society was established among the tailors and followed closely the A. S. E. 'model,' while in a number of other trades the same influence was at work, and the new 'model' structure and policy was materialised to a greater or lesser degree. Among the miners attempts at effective organisation had been made in 1843, and again in 1850, but nothing durable had resulted. In the early sixties, under the powerful leadership of Alexander Macdonald, a movement for consolidated organisation was taking place among the pit-clubs in the North of England, and at the close of 1863 the Miners' National Union was established. The miners had for years been labouring under many disabilities, and these grievances, together with the influence of successful organisation in other branches of industrial production, promoted the revival of organising work in the coalfields. Among some of the demands put forward were: reduction of hours, weekly wages, abolition of truck, and a check on weighing. The National Union was, however, unable to organise the miners on a national basis. A rival organisation arose in Lancashire in 1869, where and when a series of strikes and lock-outs had taken place. This was the Amalgamated Association of Miners, which, in the course of time, extended its influence throughout the Midlands and into South Wales. This association collapsed in the crash of 1878-1879—a period of acute stagnation in trade. The National Union survived, but its scope was confined to the North-Eastern counties. In the eighties, the Miners' Federation of Great Britain had arisen, and the National Union collapsed before this giant rival, which from 1888 to 1891 quadrupled its membership. Along structural lines similar to the Miners' Federation, durable organisation developed among the Lancashire cotton operatives. Among the latter, trade unionism had long been periodic and more or less local. After 1869 the Amalgamated Association of Cotton Spinners—established in 1853—was able to overcome most of the local barriers to consolidation. Like the miners', this became an association of federated district organisations. Among the weavers, complete consolidation was not accomplished until 1884, when the Northern Counties Amalgamation was formed. The Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing-Room Operatives was established in 1866. While the consolidation of the respective crafts or trades in *national* trade unions was taking place, consolidation was expressing itself *locally* in the form of trades councils. The local delegate-meetings which were summoned from the beginning of the nineteenth century to assist in some common cause or to render aid to local trade unionists on strike or locked out, may be regarded as the most elementary condition of the later trades councils. Such councils were already in existence at Sheffield, Liverpool, Glasgow and Edinburgh, in 1860. The London Trades Council was formed in 1861, and arose out of the delegate meetings called together for the support of the building workers in the strike of 1859-60. This council became very prominent during the political agitation for a legal status to the trade unions. The foremost leaders at this time—Howell, Odger, Allan, Applegarth, and others—were actively associated with this council. The holding of the first Trades Union Congress at Manchester, in 1868, was another and significant achievement in the building up of the British Labour Movement."—W. W. Craik, *Short history of the modern British working-class movement, pp.* 51-54.—See also DEMOCRACY: Tendencies of the 19th century.

1845-1876.—Prussian miners' societies.—Miners' provident funds. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Germany: 1845-1876.

1848-1918.—Development of trade unions in Germany.—Organized labor during World War. —"The handicraft guilds and educational societies which flourished in Germany before 1848 are in no sense antecedents of the trade union movement. Although they represent a working-class effort, they lack the essential characteristic of trades unions in that they made no distinction between employers and workers. Trade unionism began with the development of industry on a large scale. The first trade union was founded about 1848 by the printers. Early attempts of workers to organize, however, were hampered by the law prohibiting combinations and associations. It was not until the removal of this restriction in 1861 by Saxony, followed by its removal in the majority of the German States in 1868 and 1869 that trades unions began to develop freely. The organization of workers was greatly stimulated by a flood of knowledge on the development of trades unions in England which reached Germany about this time. Opposing movements were set on foot to found trade unionism in Germany. On the one hand, the radical movement, consisting of groups of Marxists or Lassalleans, favored political activity and the ultimate triumph of socialism [see also SOCIALISM: 1862-1864], while the so-called 'Hirsch-Duncker' trades unions on the other, believed in the ultimate harmony of capital and labor and advocated peaceful reform methods. In 1875 the radical movement was strengthened by the formation of a Social Democratic Party composed of a union of Marxists and Lassalleans. Three years later, the anti-Socialist law was passed which destroyed the Social Democratic Party. Though the law was directed against the revolutionary methods of the Social Democratic movement, its effect was to cause the voluntary dissolution of unions which were not forced by the law to disband. Within a year from the passage of the law the whole labor movement had apparently disappeared. The disappearance was more apparent than real, however. Trade union activity soon translated itself into the printing of trade journals which served as a cementing medium among workers. The 'Shoemakers' Journal' appeared in 1878; the 'New Carpenters' Gazette,' the 'Shipbuilders' Messenger' and the 'Trade Unionist' issued by the tobacco workers, were launched the following year. Cautious attempts at organization were also made under the guise of friendly societies. These flourished in such large numbers that the suspension of the anti-Socialist law in 1890 disclosed 58 full-fledged trade unions. The

LABOR ORGANIZATION, 1848-1918

development of trade unionism proceeded with vigor from this point. A movement was started to create a central trade union organization, for which purpose a trades union convention was held at Halberstadt in 1892. Subsequent conventions of this central organization were held thereafter every few years. At the 1899 convention in Frankfort, trade union representatives from Denmark, Austria and Switzerland were present. In 1902, ten European countries were represented. Trade union relations with workers in other countries were an important consideration at these conventions. A brief analysis of the various trade union developments between 1890 and 1914 will serve further to describe the period. The most important trade union group is composed of the free or social democratic trades unions. Their central organization is called the General Commission of Trades Unions, which consists of a committee of thirteen members elected by a congress of delegates from the 47 centralized unions. The main purpose of the Commission is to encourage trade union organization. Connected with it are two secretariats, one to promote trade unionism among workers, the other to assist trade union members in the presentation of their claims for Government insurance. In 1910 a department of social research was established for the purpose of preparing social legislation to be presented by socialist and labor members of the Reichstag and State parliaments. The Commission co-operates closely with the Social Democratic Party in its efforts on behalf of social reform. The free trade union movement rests its strength largely on its elaborate educational program. The General Commission has established a Trade Union School at Berlin supported and managed by trade unionists. The School provides a six weeks' course of instruction for about sixty selected members of unions, who are given a full maintenance grant by their unions for the term of study. The Commission has also elaborated an educational program for the affiliated federations. The average trade unionist of this class is therefore highly self-conscious by comparison with trade unionists in other countries. This group of unions represents a development away from social democratic trade unionism and is much influenced by the Roman Catholic Church. Its growth has been greatest in regions dominated by Catholicism and has been characterized by a tendency to break up into local industrial groups rather than to form one cohesive organization. The movement is founded on a belief in the ultimate harmony of employers and employees and is relentlessly opposed to social democratic ideas, although members of Christian Trades Unions have occasionally joined with members of social democratic unions in strikes and lockouts. The clerical leaders of the Christian Unions look askance on such combinations, being jealous alike of the influence of other industrial as well as other religious groups. The membership of these unions is taken mainly from the engineering and factory trades. Each trade or industry has its own national organization which is represented in an association of all the national federations called the Central Council. The Council determines the membership policies of the unions and manages the general Congresses which are held regularly. The Hirsch-Duncker Unions, like the Christian Trades Unions, believe in social betterment by peaceful means. They are opposed to the strike but favor arbitration and the wage agreement. They allow themselves to become affiliated with social reform organizations and eschew the social democratic movement. They have no political alliances and prefer free competition to State interference. During the period of the enforcement of the anti-socialist law, this body of trade unionists was unmolested and grew rapidly in number. Their influence on the labor movement, however, has never been strong. The first 'yellow' trade union was organized among machine workers in 1905. The name originated in France and is applied to labor organizations opposed to violent methods. The French 'yellow' syndicalists and German 'yellow' trade unions, while similar in fundamental principle, exhibit sharp differences however. Profit sharing, which is an important tenet of the French movement, has little foothold in Germany. The German 'yellow' movement, like the Hirsch-Duncker and Christian unions, aims to find the points of contact between employer and employee and is opposed to social democracy. It has no central organization, however, and is, on the whole, one of the weaker movements. In addition to the well-defined trade union development described above, there are a number of organizations of a miscellaneous character. Such are the various independent, local associations of clerks, commercial travellers and officials of various kinds, which have a certain trade union character and yet are not accurately described as trades unions. There are the co-operative organizations always related in spirit and purpose to the labor movement. The most important group are the industrialists, who grew up partly to oppose the power of the social democratic unions. The industrialists are close to the government and share the latter's desire to stem the tide of social democracy by timely social legislation. . . .

"Without access to confidential sources, information concerning the German labor movement during the years of the war is necessarily meagre. Such as can be obtained may be summarized as (A) The development of machinery for dealing with labor problems; (B) Trade Union activity with reference to domestic affairs, and (C) with reference to the international situation. Special machinery created by the war to meet the industrial needs of the time [is briefly described] . . . as follows: 1. Labor Community Councils. These Councils represent a mutual effort of employers and workers at the beginning of the war to obviate the ills of an unevenly distributed labor supply. Each industry had its own Labor Council, consisting of an equal number of representatives of employers and trade unions. As the war progressed, the care of disabled soldiers was added to the Council. 2. In the spirit of these Councils, agreements were often made between employers and employees of a given industry whereby both pledged themselves to adhere to a given wage scale and to refrain from labor disputes for a given period of time. 3. In order to meet the shortage of labor, especially of skilled labor in transportation, a limited liability company was formed in 1917 by certain commercial and industrial interests in the Leipzig district. The company rented the services of its skilled workers for a limited time, paying them according to an agreed scale, and was in turn paid by the employer a sum equal to the wage plus an additional amount. The municipal labor exchange supervised the administration of the company, but there was no representative of labor in its organization. 4. The National Auxiliary Service Law of December, 1916, establishing workshop committees in certain industries which had not already done so in pursuance of the Industrial Code, is the most important piece of labor legislation of the war period. 5. In October, 1918, an Imperial

Labor Department was created to deal with social and economic questions. Herr Gustav Bauer, a Social Democratic member of the Reichstag, was appointed to preside over the Department. The change was one which Social Democrats had desired for many years, and was a further extension of the reform which took place the preceding July when the Imperial Economic Department was created. At the time organized labor demanded that during the period of transition from a war to a peace regime, representatives of all branches of labor should be consulted in matters considered by the Department involving the interests of the working classes. The same was demanded with respect to the preparation of future commercial relations. It was requested that the National Economic Advisory Council should include representatives of labor from industries or trades involved in commercial agreements. 6. On November 15, 1918, an agreement was made between employers' associations and trades unions containing the following provisions:—a. A standard eight-hour day. b. Acceptance by employers of the principle of collective bargaining. c. Establishment of committees of employers' and employees' representatives to see that agreements are carried out in each trade. d. Establishment of a central committee of employers' and employees' representatives to superintend general problems of industry.

"The first year of the war increased the prestige of trades unions. So effective was the co-operation of the trades unions in emergency measures, particularly in regard to the food supply, that in 1915 the German Chancellor declared 'trades unions have, since the beginning of the war, shown a most commendable and disinterested spirit of self-sacrifice in coming forward to help the Fatherland in both internal and external demands.' In March, 1917, a joint Memorandum bearing on monopolies was presented to the Chancellor by three labor groups—the free, Christian, and Hirsch-Duncker trades unions. The subject of monopolies and their effect on labor engaged considerable attention in 1916 and 1917. In 1917 and 1918 the problems incident to demobilization and the return of peace conditions were much discussed by employers' and employees' organizations. A Reconstruction Committee was formed by social-economic and trade union organizations. A Peoples' League for Liberty and Country was also organized. Groups of disabled soldiers formed an organization to have oversight of the industrial needs of men incapacitated by the war for full participation in industry. This organization, called the Association of Disabled Soldiers, had the sympathy and co-operation of the trades unions. Two reform programs were laid before the Reichstag by trade union groups in 1917 and 1918. The first was presented by the General Commission of Trades Unions and bore on the problems of reconstruction. A complete reorganization of government offices dealing with labor was urged, including a Ministry of Labor, compulsory establishment of workshop committees in all plants having more than 20 employees, repeal of all legislation discouraging the right of combination, establishment of a system of arbitration courts for industrial disputes, an international code of labor legislation, and many other important and far-reaching measures. The program was adopted in its entirety by the Austrian labor groups and by them presented to the Reichstag in 1918. The origin of the German program may possibly be traced to the conference of free trade union federations in July, 1917. The second reform program was presented to the Reichstag by the Central Association of German Forestry, Agricultural and Vineyard Workers in 1918. In politics the trade union movement has been represented by the Social Democratic Party since 1906 when a definite agreement was made between the Party and the unions. The split in 1914 between pro-war and anti-war factions of the Party resulted in labor's following the pro-government element and expressing itself in vigorous opposition to the Independents. Great bitterness was aroused by attempts of the latter to win adherents from the ranks of the unions. In the spring and summer of 1916 the effect of the blockade caused considerable industrial unrest. The majority of the unions remained loyal to the old Social Democratic Party, but a few of their leaders went over to the Independent Socialists. In Leipzig, where the Minority was strong, seven trade unions were induced to leave the General Commission of Trades Unions and form an Independent Trades Union Center. This separation lasted until December, 1917, when the insurgents returned to the central organization."—United States State Department, *Report on labor situation in Germany, pp.* 5-11.

1862-1872.—International association of working men. See INTERNATIONAL: 1862-1872.

1864-1920.—Influence of labor organizations in securing the passage of labor laws.—Labor reforms in the United States.—Child labor legislation. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1864-1920; CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1879-1921.

1867-1912.—Syndicalism and labor organization in France.—C. G. T.—"The French Confederation of Labor or, as it is currently designated, the C. G. T. (Confédération Générale du Travail) was not organized until 1902 but the spirit of New Unionism had begun to manifest itself in France many years before. In March, 1867, on the occasion of the tailors' strike, the French section of the International showed itself rather hostile to the strikers, explaining its attitude thus: 'As the strikers employed in fashionable shops at a high wage refuse to concern themselves with the pitiable condition of the workers in the ready made clothing shops the International couldn't sympathize with them.' When in 1869 the Elboeuf woolen workers and in 1870 the Creusot steel workers, went on strike, many unions in different trades showed their spirit of solidarity by contributing to the strike fund. After the Commune, France witnessed a severe reaction against labor associations. The National Assembly passed a law penalizing all attempts at organizing the workers. It is therefore useless for us to review the history of French syndicates before March 21, 1884, when a law was passed 'authorizing all workers, laborers or employers to create temporary or permanent associations for the defense and study of their professional, economic, commercial and agricultural interests.' This law merely sanctioned an order of things established in the teeth of ferocious reaction. While it recognized the legal existence of the syndicates or trade unions, it aimed in reality at damming up the revolutionary current in motion among the laboring masses. For as early as the year 1879 the Marseilles congress had decided to study the General Strike. Various kinds of syndicates or trade unions began to spring up all over France and in 1886, the Lyons congress approved the organization of the 'Federation of Syndicates and Corporative Groups of France.' The new organism was little more, however, than an electoral machine for the labor party. New combinations of unions were formed in more or less open opposition to the Federation's policy.

LABOR ORGANIZATION, 1867-1912

In 1887 the Paris municipality placed at the disposal of the local unions a building where all crafts could meet and discuss their common interests and which was the first *Bourse du Travail* or Labor Exchange. A dozen cities or industrial centers followed the example set by the capital. Socialists set to work at uniting all the Bourses in a common effort. In February, 1892, the Federation of Exchanges was officially created and became a powerful rival of the Federation of Syndicates. At the Marseilles congress in September, 1892, the Bourses immediately revealed themselves as militant organisms. . . . The Federation of Syndicates at its next congress entered a formal protest against the adoption of . . . a resolution [advocating the general strike rather than a bloody revolution; offered by Briand]. Encouraged by these differences within the ranks of labor, the authorities decided to close the Paris Labor Exchange. At the Nantes Labor congress held in 1894 the Briand motion coming up once more for discussion was endorsed by sixty-five votes against thirty-seven and the parliamentary section of the congress dominated by the Guesdists withdrew from the hall. The Federation of Syndicates was wiped out by that defeat due to the anti-political agitation of young Pelloutier. To Fernand Pelloutier more than to any other leader is due the present revolutionary connotation of the word syndicalism. In the course of his short life (1867-1901), he showed himself an unremitting foe of parliamentary action. In 1897, he coined the term which now sums up the methods of New Unionism, 'Direct Action.' Pelloutier held that modern socialism must be founded upon an absolute cleavage between classes and must give up all hopes of a social regeneration through political means. He considered the Labor Exchanges as the most perfect medium of expression of the workers' desiderata. . . . Fernand Pelloutier did his best to gather the anarchists into the syndicates. He showed them how they could carry out practically the social war of which they were constantly speaking; those new recruits taught their co-workers not to shrink from direct action; thus far the socialists had always shown themselves apologetic in regard to strikes; the men from 'the party of the street' held that strikes were mere incidents in the class war; trade union methods became discredited. All his life Pelloutier adhered to this militant policy. When Millerand came forward with a programme of reforms, Pelloutier attacked savagely what he called 'the half-baked projects of that self-styled socialist.' Although suffering from tuberculosis in an advanced stage he did not hesitate in the last years of his life to court persecution. His book *La vie ouvrière en France* called upon his head governmental thunder and he died a pauper in 1901. The congress of Limoges, in 1895, saw the establishment of the first C. G. T. The syndicates decided to form national federations and to unite themselves anew in a confederation; the C. G. T. proceeded immediately to shut its doors to politicians by declaring that it would keep itself aloof from any political affiliation. At every succeeding congress—Tours, 1896, Toulouse, 1897 (when a committee on sabotage was first appointed and sabotage endorsed by the Confederation), Rennes, 1898, Paris, 1900, Lyons, 1901—efforts were made to unite the Federation of Labor Exchanges and the C. G. T. At Montpellier in 1902 this fusion was accomplished. The Montpellier congress appointed twenty-five delegates to settle the differences between the two Federations. A compromise was reached: The Confederation was to consist of two distinct sections: on one side the Federation of Trades and Industries, on the other the Federation of Exchanges, the aims of both sections being harmonized by a confederal committee. Besides a few modifications of detail the policy of the Confederation did not change from 1902 to 1906. In 1906 a decision was taken which defined unequivocally the attitude of the Confederation. Without excluding any of the affiliated craft federations the Confederation decided at the Amiens congress to admit in the future only industrial federations. Thus the Confederation pledged itself to a frankly industrialist policy. All shades of opinions, however, are represented in the Confederal Committee. Like the French parliament it is divided up into a Right, a Center, a Left and an Extreme Left. The party of the Right includes the anti-revolutionists and independents, leaders of the Federation of the Printing Trade and also the Guesdists, anti-militaristic and opposed to the General Strike, who lead the Federation of Textile workers. The Center is made up mostly of railroadmen dominated by Jaurès' ideas. To the Left belong the Simon pure syndicalists (*les purs*) led by Pouget, Griffuehles, Jouhaux, and the editorial board of *La Voix du Peuple*, organ of the C. G. T. Further to the Left, led by Yvetot, sit the anti-militarists, whose opinion was mirrored by Hervé's paper *La Guerre Sociale* before Hervé declared himself for parliamentary action. Finally there are a few anarchists whose organ is Jean Grave's *Les Temps Nouveaux*. It is the Left which has steadily directed the destinies of the Confederation since the fusion in 1902. The revolutionary wing carried two signal victories at the Amiens congress in 1906 and at the Marseilles congress in 1908. One thousand syndicates represented at the Amiens congress refused to enter into relations with the Socialist party which they considered as altogether too conservative; by 834 votes against thirty-four a resolution was adopted pledging the Confederation to the orthodox syndicalist programme: to bring about through the general strike the expropriation of the capitalists and to reorganize society upon the basis of the syndicate which from a unit of resistance would transform itself into an organ of production and distribution. At the Marseilles congress, 670 syndicates against 406 pledged the C. G. T. to anti-militarism and to rebellion in case of war. Then it was that Messrs. Pugliesi-Conti and Paul Deschanel endeavored to have the Confederation dissolved as illegal. The government realized that such action would have only temporary consequences as far as the Confederation was concerned and that, furthermore, it might precipitate a civil war. And the Confederation was left in peace. . . . The organization of the C. G. T. seems at first glance to be extremely complex. The unit of organization is the syndicate or craft union. In every city and town the various craft unions combine and meet in a building placed at their disposal by the municipality and called *Bourse du Travail* or Labor Exchange. Certain municipalities, however, have attempted to exploit the syndicates for political purposes and therefore, in order to retain their independence, the syndicates maintain in such cases, besides a Labor Exchange another organization called Union of Syndicates. Both have the same membership and the same officers; the work of administration is carried on at the Exchange; the work of agitation at the Union of Syndicates. When the Exchange is allowed perfect political freedom by the municipality, it is affiliated with the C. G. T. In the contrary case it is the Union which is affiliated with the

C. G. T. Besides being free employment agencies for their members, the Exchanges help workers out of work, supply them with free transportation to parts of the country where labor is scarce, organize courses in technical instruction and give free legal advice. They also carry on, when unhampered by the municipality, the work of organization and propaganda. The Exchanges of the south of France have propagated the syndicalist idea among the agricultural workers of the region and organized many syndicates of wine growers. The Bourges Exchange organized the lumbermen of central France. The Brest Exchange triumphed over Brittany's stubborn resistance to all progress in matters of labor organization. The work of the local Exchanges is centralized by the Federation of Exchanges. The Federation of Syndicates centralizes the work of the craft and industrial unions. The industrialist form, however, will soon displace all others for . . . the C. G. T. while leaving to the older organizations their autonomy, no longer admits to its membership any organization which is not conducted along industrial lines. The federations of industries are as yet far from being of a uniform type. Some are administered by a federal committee made up of one delegate for each affiliated syndicate. To this type belong the federations of the alimentation of the leather industry, of the metal industry. Then there is the centralized type to which belongs the Federation of the Printing Trades; it is administered by a central committee elected for several years on the American ticket system. Finally there are the National Syndicates which seem to be at present the only lawful form of organization for Government employés. While the syndicates belonging to the various federations retain the greater part of the funds collected, paying only between two and eight cents a month per member to the federation, a National Syndicate retains almost the totality of the monthly dues collected by the affiliated syndicates which vests the 'governing body' with extended powers. . . . The growth of the C. G. T. while relatively slow, has been constant. In 1902 it comprised some 1000 syndicates; in 1903, 1220; in 1904, 1792; in 1906, 2399; in 1908, 2581; in 1910, 3012; in 1912, 2837. The figures for 1910 and 1912 should not be compared, as they have been by several opponents of syndicalism, to point out a decrease in the membership of the C. G. T. On the contrary the number of adherents in good standing has grown from 355,000 in 1911 to 455,000 in 1912 with a total membership of about 600,000. This is the more remarkable when we consider that over 7000 members were lost by the Federation of the Building Workers and the National Railroad Syndicate as the consequence of unsuccessful strikes."—A. Tridon, *New unionism, pp.* 67-76.—For more recent development of the C. G. T. and French unionism, see below: 1914-1921.

1869.—Opening of International Telegraphic Union. See Bern: Bern conferences.

1869.—Organization of Knights of Labor. See Knights of Labor.

1880-1900. — Use of boycotts by Knights of Labor.—Labor organizations allied with American Federation of Labor against the Knights of Labor. See Labor strikes and boycotts: 1880-1900.

1881-1886.—Organization of American Federation of Labor. — Relations with Knights of Labor. See American Federation of Labor: 1881-1886.

1884-1917. — Eight-hour day agitation by American Federation of Labor. See American Federation of Labor: 1884-1917.

1886. — Formation of the Australian Labor party. See Labor parties: 1886-1906.

1887-1889.—Development of the "New Trade Unionism in Great Britain." — "The elements composing what is termed the New Trade Unionism are not to be found in the constitution, organization, and rules of the Unions started within the last two or three years. In these respects they either conform to the experience of modern Unions, or they revive the practices of the older Unions. There is scarcely a feature in which any of them differ from types of Unions long in existence. In what, then, consists the 'New Trade Unionism,' of which we hear so much? Mainly in the aspirations, conduct, modes of advocacy, and methods of procedure of, and also in the expressions used, and principles inculcated by the new leaders in labour movements, in their speeches and by their acts. This New Unionism has been formulated and promulgated at Trades Union Congresses, at other Congresses and Conferences, and at the meetings held in various parts of the country; and in letters and articles which have appeared in the newspapers, press, and public journals from the pens of the new leaders. . . . The institution of Labour Bureaus, or the establishment of Labour Registries, is one of the acknowledged objects of the Dockers' Union. Singularly enough this is the first time that any such project has had the sanction of a boná-fide Trade Union. All the older Unions repudiate every such scheme. It has hitherto been regarded as opposed in principle to Trade Unionism. . . . At the . . . Trades Union Congress held in Liverpool, September 1890, the following resolution was moved by one of the London delegates representing the 'South Side Labour Protection League'—'That in the opinion of this Congress, in order to carry on more effectually the organization of the large mass of unorganized labour, to bring into closer combination those sections of labour already organized, to provide means for communication and the interchange of information between all sections of industry, and the proper tabulation of statistics as to employment, &c., of advantage to the workmen, it is necessary that a labour exchange, on the model of the Paris Bourse des Travail, should be provided and maintained by public funds in every industrial centre in the kingdom.' . . . The mover said that 'not a single delegate could deny the necessity for such an institution, in every industrial centre.' The Congress evidently thought otherwise, for only 74 voted for the resolution, while 92 voted against it. . . . The proposal, however, shows to what an extent the New Trade Unionism seeks for Government aid, or municipal assistance, in labour movements. The most astonishing resolution carried by the Congress was the following—'Whereas the ever-changing methods of manufacture affect large numbers of workers adversely by throwing them out of employment, without compensation for loss of situation, and whereas those persons are in many instances driven to destitution, crime, and pauperism: Resolved, that this Congress is of opinion that power should at once be granted to each municipality or County Council to establish workshops and factories under municipal control, where such persons shall be put to useful employment, and that it be an instruction to the Parliamentary Committee to at once take the matter in hand.' . . . The proposal of all others which the new Trade Unionists sought to ingraft upon, and had determined to carry as a portion

of the programme of the Trades Union Congress, was the 'legal Eight Hour day;' and they actually succeeded in their design after a stormy battle. The new leaders, with their socialist allies, had been working to that end for over two years."—G. Howell, *Trade unionism, new and old, ch.* 8, *pt.* 2.—"The contradiction between the requirements of the new economic situation and the old trade union policy became translated into a criticism of the 'old school' by the exponents of what came to be called the 'New Unionism.' The influence of the rising Socialist organisations was considerable in promoting the growth of the 'New Unionism.' In the eighties, John Burns and Tom Mann were among the foremost critics of the 'model' organisations, with their miserly solicitude for funds and their apathy and lack of vigour in prosecuting the industrial struggle. It was among the so-called unskilled workers, and notably in the East End of London, that the New Unionism made most progress and won its first successes. The Gasworkers' and General Labourers' Union was established in 1889, and soon won an eight-hour day for the London gas-stokers. The Dockers, the Sailors, and Firemen, the General Railway Workers and other organisations, were soon formed into line, and thousands of hitherto unorganised men and women were brought within the ranks of trade unionism. The great London Dock Strike of 1889 was fought and won in a few weeks, and accomplished a revolution in the conditions of employment for the dock-workers. [See also LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1889.] These new organisations had, in the circumstances, to adopt the same basis of organisation as that already in existence and thus make a craft of the *lack* of handicraft skill. They were, however, able to start free from many of the traditional burdens which overweighted the older trade unions."—W. W. Craik, *Short history of the modern British working-class movement, p.* 60.—See also LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1893.

1890-1916.—Use of boycotts by American Federation of Labor.—Decisions of the Supreme Court against boycott. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1881-1916.

1894.—Organization of American Railway Union.—Coxey movement. See U. S. A.: 1894: Strike at Pullman, Coxey movement.

1898.—Creation of Industrial commission. See U. S. A.: 1898 (June).

1899-1918.—Growth in British organized labor.—"It is a well known fact that trade unions increase in numbers and financial strength during years of industrial prosperity and generally show a diminution in the number of members in good standing during years of industrial depression and unemployment. The membership of British trade unions had with few fluctuations shown a steady increase during the fifteen years ending with 1913. In 1899 the number of trade unions, exclusive of a few unimportant ones for which the figures were not available, was 1,310 and their combined membership was 1,860,913. By 1913 the number of unions had fallen to 1,135, chiefly as a result of amalgamation, but the total membership had more than doubled, being 3,933,769 at the close of that year. This was an increase of 21.5 per cent over the membership for 1912. 'This membership,' said a writer in the *Labour Gazette*, 'is greatly in excess of any hitherto recorded, and the rate of increase is little below the high rate of 1911 (23.4 per cent). The expansion in membership was common to practically all trades, but was especially marked in the transport and general labor groups. Some of the increase is attributable to trade union activity in connection with the National Insurance Act.' 'The total membership,' the writer goes on to say, 'of all trade unions in 1913 increased by 109 per cent compared with 1904 and by 175.1 per cent compared with 1895, when the membership was lower than at any time during the period 1892-1913, for which the Department has comparable statistics.' One of the most remarkable facts connected with this movement was the increase in the number of female members. Their numbers had grown from 129,084 in 1904 to 318,607 in 1913, an increase of 176.4 per cent. 'Nearly three quarters (258,732) of the total female membership were engaged in the textile trades, the cotton industry accounting for 212,534 or 60 per cent.' "—J. A. Fairlie, *British war administration, pp.* 27-28.—"The position of the trades-unions [was] greatly strengthened [immediately after] the war. Their total membership according to . . . figures . . . of 1917, was then 5,287,522, an increase of 167 per cent since 1900. The Government . . . recognized the necessity of dealing with them, and the strongest unions . . . made the greatest economic progress. The reform act of 1918, which established full manhood suffrage and woman suffrage after 30 years of age, has probably increased their voting strength. [See ENGLAND: 1918.] From one grave danger, also, in the near future they will be free. The Education Act of 1918 abolishes all child labor, and after 1925, continuation schools are made compulsory from the ages of 14 to 18. [See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General: England.] With the new facilities for technical education that are offered this will probably mean that the age of entrance into industry will be gradually raised and the supply of labor thus diminished."—United States State Department, *Report on labor situation in Great Britain*, 1919, *p.* 14.—See also LABOR LEGISLATION: 1901-1918.

20th century.—Workers' education in England, France, Germany and United States, etc. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education.

1901.—Appeal to President of the United States by delegate of Federation of Labor in Porto Rico. See PORTO RICO: 1901 (April).

1901.—Improved condition of laborers in Italy. See ITALY: 1901-1918.

1904.—Resolution of American Federation of Labor regarding Japanese immigration. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1904-1909.

1904.—Organization of Industrial Workers of the World. See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD.

1904-1905.—Achievements of the Association of Factory Workers in Russia. See RUSSIA: 1905 (January).

1904-1914.—Propaganda of the Industrial Workers of the World.—Mining unions. See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD: Recent tendencies.

1906.—Guild Socialism in England. See SOCIALISM: 1906.

1906.—Organization of American Association for Labor Legislation. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1906-1921.

1909.—Osborne judgment regarding right of trade unions to pay salaries to members of Parliament. See ENGLAND: 1909 (July-December).

1909-1914.—Organized labor in Ireland. See IRELAND: 1909-1914.

1910.—Protocol system in garment makers' industry. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1910-1916.

1910-1911.—Agitation for labor organization in the United States. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911.

1910-1913.—New Zealand Federation of Labour, United Federation of Labour, and other organizations. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1906-1913.

1910-1919.—Growth of world-wide trade unionism.—"In a brochure [issued February 16, 1921] the International Labor Office at Geneva . . . made an attempt to illustrate by statistics the growth of trade unionism in the different countries of the world during the decade ending in 1919. In nearly every case the statistics used are based on returns voluntarily made by the trade-unions to the Government of their country. They therefore vary both in completeness and accuracy. For some countries, it is explained, especially those in which the trade-unions have central organizations, the returns are almost complete, while for other countries, in which the trade-unions consist of numerous small local bodies, the returns are much less complete. The returns usually become more nearly complete from year to year, and part of the increases in trade-union membership shown in the following tables is due to the greater completeness of the returns, and not to an increase in trade-unionism [figures for only three years are quoted]. . . .

	000's omitted		
	1910	1914	1919
Australia	302	523	628
Austria	200	147	772
Belgium	139	203	750
Canada	120	166	378
Czechoslovakia	100	55	657
Denmark	124	156	360
Finland	15	31	41
France	977	1,026	2,500
Germany	2,960	2,271	9,000
Great Britain	2,400	4,199	8,024
Hungary	86	107	500
Italy	817	962	1,800
Netherlands	154	227	625
New Zealand	57	74	100
Norway	47	68	144
Roumania	8	?	?
Serbia (Jugoslavia)	7	14	20
Spain	41	121	211
Sweden	115	141	339
Switzerland	75	50	224
United States of Am	2,100	2,672	5,607

End of year	Membership in 20 countries
1910	10,835,000
1914	13,222,000
1919	32,680,000

"During the [World] war unionism received a check, especially in the belligerent countries. The decline was especially great in Germany, Austria, Hungary, Italy, and Czechoslovakia, but in all these countries trade-union membership began to increase in 1917. The end of the year 1919 saw a phenomenal increase, especially in the central European States. For European countries only the membership at the end of 1919 may be put at 26,000,000 at least, as compared with about 8,500,000 at the end of 1910. Of the total membership of 32,680,000 shown above, it is interesting to note that for 5 of the 20 countries included, namely Great Britain, Germany, the United States, France and Italy, the total trade-union membership in 1919 amounted to nearly 27 million, leaving about 5½ million for the remaining 15 countries."—*Growth of trade-unionism, 1910-1919* (*Monthly Labor Review, May*, 1921, *pp.* 167-169.)

1911. — Shipping Federation, Seamen's and Firemen's Union, and Dockers' Union, England. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1911.

1911-1920.—Organized labor in Italy.—"Some idea of the strength of the labor movement may be gained by a study of the census. In 1911 the population of Italy was 34,813,957, of whom 26,580,048 were adults. The agricultural population numbered 9,085,597, the industrials 4,945,994, while the balance was taken up largely by the commercial elements, the clergy, the professions and the government. Eleven per cent of the total population held landed property. Of the industrial population, only half are actually connected with industrial establishments, and of these half a million properly belong in the employer class. This leaves an industrial population of 1,814,421. Of these 1,220,459 are males. 473,292 of the male industrial poulation are organized in labor groups, and of these 70,000 belong to Catholic and similar independent unions. The C. G. L. [Confederacione Generale del Lavoro] claimed in 1914 a paid-up membership of 195,858 industrial workers. This number has fallen off considerably during the war. The number of agricultural workers is difficult to gauge because of the difficulty of distinguishing between the agricultural laborer and the small proprietor. Organization among agriculturalists totalled more than 600,000 in 1911, of whom some 200,000 belong to Catholic and independent unions. The C. G. L. in 1914 claimed a paid-up membership of 125,000 [agriculturalists], which by 1917 had dropped to 87,000. On the basis of these figures the Italian proletariat consists of: roughly, between a fifth and a quarter of the active population, the larger figure holding true where small land-owners and industrial employers are included. Of this total about 900,000 are organized."—United States State Department, *Report on labor situation in Italy, p.* 14.—See also ITALY: 1901-1918.

1912.—Dynamiting of non-union structures by union laborers in Indiana. See INDIANA: 1911-1918.

1913-1921.—Triple Industrial Alliance in Great Britain.—"The Triple Industrial Alliance is a labor combination for direct action to achieve trade union purposes incidentally and politico-economic purposes ultimately. It aims beyond wages and welfare clear to nationalization of certain industries and internationalization of certain social principles. The alliance is made up of the Miners' Federation of Great Britain (650,000 members), and the National Union of Railwaymen (400,000) and the National Transport Workers' Federation (275,000). Its basic principle of organization is: 'Recognition of the fact that in the case of the miners, railwaymen and transport workers, an injury to one is in a very special sense an injury to all.' The alliance began systematic joint action in 1913. By experience in the strikes of 1910-12 the lesson had been learned that a stoppage by one of the three bodies led to an involuntary stoppage in one or both the others. After conferences in 1914-15, the constitution of the alliance was ratified in December, 1915. Joint meetings of the three executives were held on two occasions in 1916. At a meeting in April of that year resolutions dealing with the after-war problems were passed, demanding that departures from trade union practices should terminate on the resumption of peace and that substituted workers should be given employment at standard rates or full maintenance by the State, and making certain proposals in connection with demobilization. . . . In June, 1917,

the alliance, at a conference attended by 280 delegates, passed resolutions against industrial conscription and for the conscription of wealth and property, to bring about equality of sacrifice."—Commission on Foreign Inquiry of the National Civic Federation, *Labor situation in Great Britain and France, pp.* 185-186.—By its refusal to support the striking coal miners in 1921, the Triple Alliance weakened itself.

1914-1921.—Attitude in general strike of 1920. — Dissolution ordered. — Other federations. — Significance of agricultural situation (1914-1921).—Changes in French unionism.—Moderate policy of C. G. T.—"Since the war the whole doctrine of the C. G. T. [Confédération Général du Travail] has undergone modifications, and it is now the revolutionaries who form the opposition. The doctrines of French Syndicalism arose out of conditions in which both industry and union organization were localised; the extent of organization only covered a small number of militant workers. In both respects the situation has changed. As large-scale grows, the unions tend to become national in scope. At the same time the influx of members since the war, bringing the numbers at one point (the beginning of 1920) up to nearly two millions, has made the movement more similar in character to the trade union movements of other countries. The tendency in tactics has been towards greater caution and moderation, especially since the disastrous railway strike of 1920. . . . When the war came [1914], the C. G. T. abandoned its old anti-militarism and adopted the principle of national unity. . . . The formation of an Economic Council of Labour to represent all types of producers and consumers [see below: 1919: Economic Council of Labor in France] has been the main positive achievement of the C. G. T. in recent years. . . . The division between the majority and the minority in the C. G. T. has become increasingly acute. . . . In the spring of 1920 the left wing secured control of the Railwaymen's Federation and declared a national strike on May 1st, 1920; the C. G. T., although complaining that they had not been consulted, responded with declaring a general strike, but the whole movement was a fiasco and constituted the most serious set-back suffered by the C. G. T. since its inception. . . . In December 1920, the courts ordered its dissolution. Meanwhile . . . the left wing had . . . organized a Revolutionary Trade Union Committee (*Comité Syndicaliste Révolutionnaire*) to be affiliated to the Third Trade Union International and to work within the C. G. T. The official elements responded by proposing and in some cases carrying out, the expulsion of communists within the Trade Unions. . . . (As to present organization) on the one side are the National Federations by craft or industry . . . ; on the other side the Departmental Unions (which since 1914 have replaced the Bourses du Travail). . . . Membership of the C. G. T. is returned at one-and-a-half millions (December, 1920), but is unofficially reported to have fallen considerably below this figure."—*Labour International Handbook,* 1921, *pp.* 238-240.—"The Federation of Christian Workers (formed November, 1919) at its Congress at Paris in May, 1920, was said to include 578 unions with a total membership of 140,000. It claims to be loyal to labor interests, but its activities are limited to the defense of occupational interests. It helped to defeat the general strike in the spring of 1920, believing that it was not declared from economic motives; but opposes strike-breakers such as the National Confederation of Labor, an organization with patriotic leanings composed largely of ex-soldiers, which stands against the class struggle, and is opposed to continual strikes. This Confederation held its Fifth Congress at Paris, November 27-28, 1920, with 200 delegates representing 93,000 workers. The Congress declared that it would affiliate neither with Moscow nor Amsterdam. It demanded a system of profit-sharing, minimum wage, compulsory apprenticeship, and industrial pensions. A General Federation of Reformist Trade Unions was formed in February, 1919, with headquarters in Paris, and is said to have received subsidies from the Paris Municipal Council. This Federation is regarded by the C. G. T. and the Christian Trade Union Federation as 'yellow.' At a Congress held October 22-24, a report was presented that there were fifty-six unions with 27,935 members in the Federation. The Congress declared in favor of the eight-hour day, with numerous reservations; and approved compulsory arbitration, profit-sharing, and co-partnership. The progress of the C. G. T. since the conclusion of the war has been marked by the inclusion of non-manual workers. A large number of teachers' associations have affiliated with it and the Civil Servants have maintained their right to do the same, although it has been denied by the government. . . . The circumstances of French agriculture are especially important to the labor movement in view. of the fact that France is so largely an agricultural country and that the peasantry has so decisive an influence. Before the war there were 5,279,000 agricultural workers or small farmers, one million of which were carried off by the war. By 1920 government departments, industry, and commerce having taken 600,000 more, the number was reduced to about 3,700,000, two million being without land of their own and likely to be attracted by town life. Since the autumn of 1919, membership in agricultural unions has greatly increased. Before the Federation of Agricultural Workers was formed (in October, 1919), there were about forty unions with a membership between five and six thousand. By April, 1920, there were 200 unions, affiliated with the Federation having a combined membership of about 30,000. The congress of the Federation opened at Limoges, April 4, 1920. A report was adopted extending membership to all workers directly dependent on agriculture and to small proprietors not employing labor."—*American Labor Year Book,* 1921-1922, *pp.* 258-259, 261.—See also FRANCE: 1919-1920.

1915. — Demands of Miners' Federation of Great Britain.—Treasury conference. See ENGLAND: 1915: Munitions fabrication.

1915.—Decision in Coppage vs. Kansas case. See COPPAGE VS. KANSAS.

1915-1920.—Workers' education in the United States.—Rand school.—Unity centers. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: United States.

1916.—Industrial Union becomes unit of industrial Workers of the World. See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD: Constitution.

1916.—Pan-American Federation of Labor. See LATIN AMERICA: 1916-1918.

1917.—Council of Workmen's and Soldiers Delegates, Russia. See RUSSIA: 1917: Disintegrating propaganda; 1917 (July).

1917.—Whitley councils in Great Britain.—Organization and method. See WHITLEY COUNCILS.

1917-1919. — American Federation of Labor and the World War.—American Alliance for Labor and Democracy.—War labor boards. See AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: 1917-1919.

LABOR ORGANIZATION, 1917-1921

1917-1921.—Soviet Russia's change of policy toward trade unions.—"The Communist leaders were inclined to attempt the rehabilitation of Russian industry and agriculture by utilizing to the fullest possible extent the principle of compulsory labor which had been identified with the Soviet state. Trotzky pinned great hopes upon the achievements of the labor armies. . . . The early reconstruction policy of the Soviet Government is admirably explained in the following statement by Trotzky: 'The extensive application of the principle of *labor duty* as well as the measures for the militarization of labor may play a decisive rôle only if they are applied on the basis of a unified economic plan, embracing the entire country and all the branches of industrial activity. This plan must be calculated for a term of years, to cover if possible an entire epoch. . . . The first portion of the plan, therefore, is to improve transport, or at least, to prevent its further decline; to obtain the most necessary supplies of foodstuffs, raw materials and fuel. The entire period following will be completely occupied with a concentration of labor power on the solution of these fundamental tasks, and thus in turn the necessary conditions for all further work will be attained. This task was particularly set down for our labor armies. . . . The second period is one of machine construction for transportation, of gaining raw materials and foodstuffs. The locomotive occupies the foreground in this period. . . . The third period is that of machine construction for the purpose of producing commodities for nation-wide consumption. The last period, which will be based upon the achievements of the three preceding periods, will permit of a transition to large scale production of objects of personal use.' This is not a mere expression of Trotzky's personal viewpoint; it also embodies the main features of the Soviet economic reconstruction policy which accompanied and immediately followed the years of civil war. Theoretically the plan is admirable. In actual practice, however, it has proved impossible to delay the production of 'commodities for nation-wide consumption' and 'objects of personal use' until the mechanical foundation of Russian industry is completely restored. The scheme of dividing the task of rehabilitating Russia's industry into watertight compartments has broken down; and reconstruction is proceeding more modestly and more closely in accordance with immediate needs. Communist theory and practical necessity clashed again in the vigorous debate within the ranks of the Communist Party as to the proper function of trade unions in the Soviet state. Three divergent viewpoints were set forth by Shliapnikov, Trotzky and Lenin. Shliapnikov, claiming that the Soviet system suffered from excessive bureaucracy, proposed to turn over the supervision of production to the trade unions. Trotzky, at the other extreme, emphasized the crying need for production, insisted that trade unions had no reason for separate existence in a working class state, and recommended that they be merged with existing governmental organs. Lenin held the balance between the two extremes. He regarded Shliapnikov's proposal as unwise, because serious confusion would certainly result from the taking over of industries by individual unions, without responsible direction and subject to jurisdictional disputes and local demands. Moreover, it seemed doubtful whether technical and managerial efficiency would be assured, if the unions were made the sole masters of industry. On the other hand, Lenin felt that the trade union had a useful function to perform in combating bureaucracy and in representing the interests of the workers, as distinguished from those of the peasants. Lenin's viewpoint, in substance, was indorsed by Zinoviev and Radek. . . . The trade union question came up at the Communist Party Congress in March, 1921; and the theses of Lenin and Zinoviev were adopted by a large majority."—A. A. Heller, *Industrial revival in Soviet Russia, pp.* 92-96, 100.—"By the end of 1921 it became evident that the working-class dictatorship in Russia could not remain unimpaired, that the capitalist world was as yet too strong, and that for a certain period it would be necessary for the two to live together. Moreover, the backwardness of the country's industrial and technical development and the economic effects of the years of imperialist and civil war made it necessary to consider the question of concessions to foreign capitalists so that at least part of the natural resources of Russia might be exploited. Further questions arose over new forms of taxation, new ways of securing the peasant's surplus production of food—the food tax—and over giving a freer rein to private initiative. The concessions though given to foreign capitalists, naturally created capitalist tendencies within the country itself. During the years of revolution, the bourgeoisie had been suppressed, but capitalism was not altogether destroyed; for the small landowner and the self-employing artisan remained, and there continued trading and the circulation of money. . . . There followed, therefore, a number of decrees recognizing the freedom of trade, permitting the leasing of non-utilized industrial plants, permitting Russian and foreign capitalists to furnish goods needed by the people, creating trusts and admitting contractors. With the growth of this capitalist structure in competition with the direct operations of the state, the trade unions have been faced by a whole series of new problems. There was, first of all, the need for defending the interests of the working class against the new capitalists; the need of preserving the eight-hour day and the social laws that had been passed. For instance, before this new regime all expenditure connected with the insurance of the workers against the risks of unemployment and sickness had been placed entirely upon the shoulders of the state. Now, with the reappearance of private industries and employers, the attempt was made to place all such charges upon the employer. With the growth of private enterprises, the old weapons in the struggle of labor against capital were once more brought into the light. The trade unions were forced once more to organize with a view to the possibility of strikes. They realized that their relations with the employers would be the more favorable for the workers the stronger they were organized. This does not mean that the method of strike has come into sudden favor. Before the declaration of a strike, the union uses every possible other method of terminating the conflict. For this purpose boards of conciliation, courts of arbitration, mutual agreements have been created; only when all these peaceful means are exhausted do the workers resort to the strike as their last weapon. . . . During the first years of the revolution, with its continuous change in the structure of the state organs, the trade unions were directly engaged in the organization of the industries. On the one hand the economic organs, composed of trade union representatives and of the representatives of the labor council, were charged with running the industries. On the other hand, these same unions also interfered in their

character as organizations for the defense of the workers. The result of this state of affairs was a dualism and parallelism which made the management of the industries unstable. To make an end to it, it was necessary to define the jurisdiction both of the economic organs and of the trade unions. This division of functions was natural. The economic organs centered attention upon the management of the industries, their technical improvement; the trade unions theirs upon the organization of labor, the raising of the material and cultural level of the workers. With this division of functions conflicts between the economic organs and the trade unions are, of course, quite possible, and in so far as such conflicts will arise, they will have to be solved by special organs and bodies; if they are not solved by peaceful means, direct action by the unions against various organs of the state is not out of the question." —A. Lozovsky, *New economic policy and the trade unions* (*Survey: Graphic Number, Mar.* 1, 1923).

1918.—Survey of organized labor in Canada. See CANADA: 1918: Survey of organized labor.

1918.—Lloyd George's speech to trade unions stating war aims. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: a.

1918-1921. — Sindicato Unico of Spain. See SPAIN: 1921.

1918-1921.—German unionist movement since the World War.—General Federation.—General Workers' Union.—Other unions.—Works' Council Law.—"The Allgemeiner Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund or General Federation of German Trade Unions was constituted at the Tenth Congress of Trade Unions held at Nuremberg June 30 to July 5, 1919, and takes the place of the former General Commission which was founded in 1890. The number of national unions affiliated with the Federation is fifty-two with a combined membership of eight-and-a-half millions, according to the latest returns. At the end of 1919, the latest date for which detailed returns are available the membership was 7,338,132, distributed among 23,862 local branches; 1,612,636 were women. By far the most important union is that of the Metal Workers, which numbered 1,605,401 members at the end of 1919. The Agricultural Workers' Union comes second with 624,935 members, followed by the Factory Workers', Transport Workers' and Miners' Unions with 602,003, 520,883 and 436,527 members respectively. Unions with over 100,000 members constitute 82 per cent of the total Federation membership. The membership in 1920, was approximately 9,000,000. The chief Trade Union organ is the *Korrespondenzblatt,* published weekly by the Federation which has a circulation of about 30,000. The affiliated unions are national associations based on craft and in some cases on industry. They include both skilled and unskilled, men and women workers, and every effort is made to secure adequate representation of sectional interests. By the new constitution, the former Local Trade Union Councils (Gewerkschaftskartelle) have been replaced by local Committees (Ortsausschüsse) of the A. D. G. B., whose work is confined to pure trade union matters and which form a link with the local Workers' Councils to which the social and municipal activities of the old Councils have been transferred. The method of election of delegates to the Federation Congress, held every three years, is left to each union, the number they are allowed to send being one delegate for every 10,000 members. The Congress elects an Executive (Vorstand) of fifteen members, which reports to a Council (Ausschuss) composed of one representative of the executive of each affiliated union, who meet as occasion arises, but not less than half-yearly. The Nuremberg Congress declared the neutrality of the unions towards the political parties, thereby dissolving the Mannheim agreement. Under the auspices of the Communist Labor Party, a General Workers' Union (Allgemeine Arbeiter-Union) has been organized, which has enrolled slightly over 200,000 workers in its ranks. It is committed to the policy of destroying the existing labor organizations because of their conservative tendencies and re-organizing them along revolutionary lines. The General Federation of German Trades Unions are affiliated with the Amsterdam International. The Communists are attempting to carry out the policy of the Communist International, that is of transforming the unions into revolutionary bodies by working from within the existing trade unions. They claim to have the support of between one and a half to two million of the organized workers for affiliation with the Red Trade Union International. The total membership of the Hirsch-Duncker Trade Unións in 1919 was 189,831, of whom 18,086 were women. The figure for 1918 was 102,108. The number of organizations included in this group is nineteen, the chief being that of the metal workers. There were 1,728 local branches. An important development has been made by the Christian Trade Unions, whose combined membership at the end of 1919 was 1,000,770. The average for the year was 858,283, as against 404,682 in 1918. There are twenty-six unions, with 9,918 branches. The metal workers with an average membership in 1919 of 192,513, and the miners with 146,097, are the most important organizations. In 1919, the Christian Unions, together with the Trade Unions of Non-Manual Workers and the Union of German Officials, formed a Federation of German Trade Associations, with a combined membership of 1,700,000. The membership of the Independent Unions (Selbständige Vereine) was 214,360 at the end of 1918, of whom 90,000 belonged to the Berlin Railwaymen's Association. The organization of clerical workers has advanced rapidly in recent years, and in 1917, the Alliance of Clerical and Technical Employes was formed by several existing associations. The combined membership at the beginning of 1918 was 270,000."—*American Labor Year Book,* 1921-1922, *pp.* 267-269.—"The work's council law, passed on January 18, 1920, by the 'German National Assembly,' has been called the 'acid test' for the new German Government. This Government, being revolutionary and socialist, started forth with the most honest intentions of socializing industry; perhaps not all industry and perhaps not all at once, but nevertheless the 'socialization of the means of production' (to use the old Marxian phrase) was to replace the capitalistic order. Bit by bit the program of socialization has been abandoned, first, because the German Government, which is strongly anti-Bolshevik, was frankly terrified at the results of the socialization of industry as reported from Bolshevik Russia and Bolshevik Hungary, and second, because the industrial state of the country seemed to the Government so entirely abnormal and so extremely unpromising that it did not venture to embark on any big industrial schemes which would in all probability be foredoomed. Yet for 60 years the German socialists had talked socialization. With the advent of revolution no power on earth could prevent a renewed outburst of scheming, planning, and contriving as to the best methods of socialization. Some of these schemes are very in-

teresting; only a few of them have been realized, and one of these laws is the works' council law. A discussion of the law may be preceded by a few remarks on the origin of the works' councils. As is well known, at the outbreak of the revolution there were formed in the big German industrial and commercial concerns workers' councils (*Arbeiterräte*) which bore an essentially political character. They set themselves the task of converting society from its old institutions into new forms, and their work seems indeed to have been very useful in many instances. But when, after the revolution, the new régime had established itself and the task of the workers' councils was thus accomplished, these councils were not very much inclined to dissolve. . . . The councils had not limited themselves to the field of politics, but were active upon economic grounds as well. They had stood before the employers as the representatives of the workers, and in those tumultuous times which immediately followed the downfall of the old régime had often wrung important concessions from the frightened employers by means of 'wild' (unauthorized) strikes. These successes of the workers' councils turned the workers away from the tactics of the old trade-unions and created a strong distrust of the experienced union leaders. The German trade-unions have not let the revolution carry them away from the path which they have steadily followed for many years. In November, 1918, they had concluded a working agreement with the united employers' associations whereby, among other things, the right was extended to the workers of a voice in the management of the business in which they were employed, as well as of the 8-hour day and other improvements in the conditions of labor. A large proportion of the workmen, however, were not content with these results obtained by peaceful means. They saw the opportunity opened to them by means of the workers' councils to turn to advantage the straits in which many employers found themselves and to introduce the most extraordinary demands. When they saw that the leaders of the trade-unions were not inclined to support them in their destructive policy, opposition arose to the old line and conservative organizations. The latter had achieved their task and could vanish from the scene; the workers' councils were to take over their prerogatives. Even when the Government itself decided that the workers' councils had become superfluous now that normal conditions were more nearly restored, it soon became evident that they could not be reduced to their former place. It was when enthusiasm for a socialization program was somewhat waning, and the Government was being pushed into a conservative position, that Vorwärts, the leading socialist paper, declared that the workers' council law should be the acid test; if the Government were to give way on this last point, then it might as well save itself the trouble of calling itself socialistic at all. Yet the Government, for all its good will, might have been forced to give way had not the workers taken precautions. In the spring of 1919 they bound the Government by a kind of signed contract to certain fundamental principles. The Goverment issued a statement which assured the continuance of the workers' councils. The statement was as follows: 'The workers' councils are fundamentally recognized as representatives of economic interests and are grounded on the constitution.' The curious thing about this guaranty is that it was hastily given before the rest of the constitution had been even discussed. Afterwards it was embodied, somewhat enlarged, as article 165 of the new German constitution. This article embodies two basic principles: Absolute equality of representation as between employers and employed on all industrial bodies of whatsoever kind, from the top to the bottom of industry, to be established as an inviolable constitutional principle. This is really a kind of base-defense line; if hard pressed the workers could always fall back on it; protected by entire parity of representation on all joint bodies, they could not be ousted from all their positions in industry. The worker is to be recognized as an active and conscious agent of production, endowed with the power to offer or withhold his co-operation in making the productive system work. The constitutional principles are sometimes the most shadowy of safeguards, and the workers had the prudence to bargain for certain definite machinery as well. This machinery has an apex, a middle and a base. The apex, the national workers' council (*Reichsarbeiterrat*) is to be 'chamber of labor,' i.e., a great parliament of all workers called together to advise the country in a professional capacity on industrial and social legislation. The middle is to be a system of district workers' councils (*Bezirksarbeiterräte*), feeders to the national council; but the foundation is to be the works' council (*Betriebsarbeiterrat*), i.e., councils in the individual establishments, the worker in the factory itself, so to say. The system, then, is to be worked from the inside outward. First, the worker is to establish himself as a controlling agent in his own factory, and then to advance to organize national production. No one is yet [May, 1921] troubling much about the rights and duties of district councils or of the national workers' council, though the Government is said to have worked out a complete scheme. It is too obvious that the first step of establishing control over the employer within the factory will be so stupendous a task as entirely to dwarf all others. Or, to put it this way: The great fight of the nineteenth century was for the protection of the workers; the great fight of the twentieth century will be for control by the workers, and it is this fight which has been inaugurated on the Continent by the German works' council law."—*Monthly Labor Review, May*, 1920, *pp.* 172-174.—See also GERMANY: 1918 (November); 1919-1920: Question of socialization.

1919.—Thirty-ninth annual convention of American Federation of Labor. See AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: 1919.

1919.—Economic Council of Labor in France.—"Economic difficulties of every kind, which had accumulated in consequence of the war, induced the working masses to demand from the Government in the course of the year 1919 the institution of a National Economic Council. Such a Council was to unite in common discussion workman and employer, producer and consumer. At that time M. Clemenceau was at the head of the Government, which seemed inclined to make trial of the suggestion; it was even discussed for some weeks. Then the Government appointed a Commission, on which it conferred the title of Economic Council, and this Commission, I believe—never met even once. The General Confederation of Labour itself took the initiative in setting up a body which should correspond to its desire. In order to do this, it applied on the one hand to the National Federation of State Employes, on the other to the Trades Union of Industrial, Commercial, and Agricultural Technical Workers, and thirdly to the National Federation of Co-operatives. The National Federation of State Employes includes the greater number of State employes, both

LABOR ORGANIZATION, 1919

those workers and employes of the public services who are already members of the General Confederation of Labour and also those who by the Trades Union Law of France are still debarred the full rights of association. The Trades Union of Technical Workers (U. S. T. I. C. A.), which has recently been formed, unites those who until lately, with a few exceptions, seemed to hold aloof from social propaganda, namely engineers and intellectual workers engaged in productive processes, whose brains co-operate with manual labour in making the forces of capitalism function. This union between the expert and the manual worker is clearly a sign of the times. The first problem which the Economic Council of Labour has attacked is that of nationalisation. Just at the moment when the May strikes broke out the Economic Council was engaged in drawing up definite suggestions which were on the eve of being published, and which dealt more especially with railways, mines, and maritime transport. The characteristic feature of these proposals is that they assign to producers and consumers as such, represented by Trades Union and Co-operative bodies respectively, that share in the management of industry which the community ought to give them if interests are to be reconciled and the public welfare consulted by a really good administration of the public services. Events may be said to have taken the Economic Council by surprise; this is one of the criticisms which labour circles themselves are giving vent to against those who, by over hasty action, launched the railway strike without waiting until there had been time to instruct public opinion on this problem in the manner proposed by the Economic Council of Labour. The General Confederation of Labour could not dissociate itself from the call for solidarity which the strike evoked; but the best informed militants in it were well aware that public opinion was insufficiently prepared."—P. Renaudel, *Socialist and labour movement in France* (*Contemporary Review, Sept.*, 1920).

1919.—British labor movement.—Organization and politico-economic character.—Shop stewards.—Industrial unionism.—Joint industrial councils.—National guilds.—Progressive employers.—"The British labor movement . . . is politico-economic in character. It has [1919] four separate major organizations, differing in type and purpose: (1) The Trade Union Congress, meeting annually to decide principally upon the several measures to be asked of Parliament and to elect its 'Parliamentary Committee,' whose mandate is 'to watch all legislation affecting labor.' Of recent years, under the pressure of events, the field of discussion at the Congress has somewhat widened. The Secretary's Report of the 1918 meeting gives the total membership for which delegates' Congress fees were paid as 4,532,085; the number of delegates 881, representing 262 societies. (2) The 'General Federation of Trade Unions,' described by its Secretary as 'the largest purely trade union organization outside of the United States,' and as having March 31, 1,215,107 of a gross membership, with 140 affiliated societies; a mutual insurance and strike benefit organization of trade unions, most of them also in the Congress, which does not pay strike money; of recent years becoming also an approved society under the government's social insurance. (3) The Co-operative Union, its fraternal delegate to the Congress reporting a membership of 3,500,000, the great bulk trade-unionists; associated since 1917 in the Labor Party. (4) The British Labor Party, its membership composed of wage-workers and other citizens, mixed, polling a vote equal to somewhat more than half the total membership claimed for the trade unions in the Congress and represented in Parliament by 59 out of 707 members."—National Civic Federation, *Labor situation in Great Britain and France, pp.* 112-113.—The growing importance of the British labor party calls for specific data as to its makeup. It is a federation consisting of trade unions, the Independent Labor Party, the Fabian Society, the Women's Labor League one coöperative society and many trade councils and local labor parties.—See also LABOR PARTIES: 1869-1919.—"The swing toward the left in British labor . . . in its organized front in foreign and domestic politics, showed itself still earlier in the economic field in the new movements for workers' control. We have long had outreachings toward democracy in industry in the thrust of craft unionism, in the socialist movement for state ownership of the means of production, in the more recent syndicalist movement for producers' ownership. But there is something at work in England which can be differentiated from all three. It is manifesting itself spontaneously in the insurgency of the shop stewards. [See also SHOP STEWARDS.] It is manifesting itself organically in the rise of industrial unionism. It is manifesting itself deliberately in the recommendations by the Whitley Committee for industrial councils which have been adopted by the British government as the basis for its policy for industrial reconstruction [see also WHITLEY COUNCILS]; and deliberately, also, in the plans of far-sighted employers and the propaganda of the guild socialists. . . . The impulse of which the shop steward is an expression is from the rank and file of the labor movement. He came at a moment of arrest, when the trade union officials had been blocked by war legislation. . . . The tendency is toward industrial organization in the big coherent industrial fields . . . for example, the mines. . . . Slowly the many unions (over 1100) are coming into effective industrial combination. The labor movement is not weakening toward a split. It is amalgamating. In 22 organizations are found three-quarters of all trade union membership. . . . The Whitley reports . . . call for joint industrial councils [not compulsory] representing management and workers in ever-widening spheres of co-operation, local, district, national. . . . [They] were issued by a subcommittee of the Reconstruction Committee, which later became the Committee on Relations between Employees and Employed, to the Ministry of Reconstruction. . . . The matters to be dealt with by these joint bodies of managers and workers are improvements of processes, machinery, organization, industrial experiments, the settlement of the general principles governing the conditions of employment, including the method of fixing, paying and adjusting wages. The Federation of British Industries . . . and the British Trades Union Congress . . . accepted the Whitley Report. The Congress of 1918 called on the government to apply it to all department of state service. . . . Bonar Law said that it had been decided to adopt in principle the application of the Whitley Report to government Departments and an Inter-Department Committee, presided over by the Minister of Labour, had been appointed to consider what modifications were necessary. This applied to the Post Office, the Railways, and the dock yard employees. At the close of 1918, so rapid had been the movement, he [the Minister of Labor] could report; 'National joint industrials councils have been established . . . in twenty industries.' . . . The National Guild is an extension of the trade union till its structure covers an industry,

LABOR ORGANIZATION, 1919

embracing both managers and workers. . . . In popular phrase, its program is ownership by the state, and management by the workers. . . . Its direct conscious followers are not many. Its indirect influence is wide. Its organ, *The New Age,* has a limited but choice circulation. Its advocates, Orage, Mellor, Cole, and S. C. Hobson, are clear-thinking men whose ideas will continue to infiltrate the industrial population."—P. U. Kellogg and A. Gleason, *British labor and the war, pp.* 149, 164, 175-176, 180-181, 185-186, 188-190.—"British employers are urged by Lord Askwith—the dean of European arbitrators—in the direction towards which our own forward-looking employers are headed; namely, a degree of frankness regarding the facts of a business which would have been considered revolutionary a few years ago but which by the mere force of truth would be almost certain to disarm prejudice. Mr. B. Seebohm Rowntree, who is regarded in America as England's most progressive employer, has already exemplified this (in his) 'The human factor in business,' 1921. In fact, through different experiences and practices the best representatives of good industrial management . . . using the scientific method, have arrived at practically the same conclusion, as the following extract from Lord Askwith: recent autobiographical survey of his twenty years of successful mediation shows:—. . . 'The time has passed when employers can afford to ignore the fact that, unless there is to be continued hostility between two opposing forces, they must show the worker the real objective to which the employer is working; they must consider the comfort and well-being of the worker as a human being; they must have suitable methods of listening to and redressing valid complaints, either by the workmen themselves, or by the workmen with the aid of the management; they must endeavor to insure to all workmen a direct interest in the result of their work, and enlist their activity in mutual success; and see that the curtailment of advancement or chance of advancement to the youth does not reduce the worker to the position of a machine. A new atmosphere is required in which men can breathe more easily.' "—J. Calder, *Capital's duty to the wage earner, pp.* 69-70.—See also ENGLAND: 1919-1920: Labor crisis.

1919.—Organized labor in Spain.—"While the great proletarian masses of Europe were engaged in waging war, the working classes of neutral Spain had ample time and opportunity to perfect a system of social organization which established Spanish labor upon a strong basis. The highly organized body which has arisen in the peninsula was grouped by a Madrid correspondent of The London Times on April 23 [1919] as follows: 1. The Confederacion General del Trabajo, (General Confederation of Labor). 2. The Union General de Trabajadores (General Union of Workmen), and 3. The independent, mostly Catholic, syndicates or guilds. The doctrines professed by the first group, said this correspondent, are fundamentally anarchical, and their confessed object is the abolition of capital. Their mode of campaign is the declaring of continual strikes. This group is reported to be in touch with representatives of Bolshevism in Barcelona. The second group is the representative body of socialism in Spain. Its press organ is El Socialista; and its strongholds the mining districts of Biscaye and Asturias, with many recruits from the railway and building trades. Parliamentary pressure is applied, but more peaceful means are also adopted. The successes of the Barcelona organization have won it new adherents, in consequence whereof the General Union of Workmen is said 'to be broadening its outlook.' The Catholic syndicates, at present in course of reorganization, hold as an axiom that the Spanish social crisis can be solved only with the help of Roman Catholicism. The Primate, Cardinal of Toledo, is the visible head of Catholic syndicalism in Spain, and his delegates are the parish priests. Of the three groups mentioned, the first—the Barcelona organization—is by far the most effective. The supreme advantage of unity of command learned from the European war has been taken to heart by the devisors of the system. Sindicatos únicos, or group syndicates, unify the multiple industries of Catalonia under thirteen heads. By means of general strikes, conceived as successive waves of attack, the General Confederation of Labor has developed into a formidable force arrayed openly against the continuance of the capitalist system in Spain."—*New York Times Current History, July,* 1919.—See also SPAIN: 1921.

1919.—International labor organization.—"The labor sections of the covenant of the League of Nations provide for a permanent organization for dealing with labor conditions internationally. An international labor conference composed of delegates representing governments, employees, and employers from the several countries belonging to the League, is to meet annually to discuss and pass upon proposals submitted regarding labor standards. A permanent international labor office is also established, with a governing body consisting of 24 members, 12 representing governments and 6 each the employees and the employers. The permanent office staff under the direction of a director and such assistants and heads of divisions as may be found necessary is provided for. The new international labor office has already [1919] been partially organized with Mr. Albert Thomas as director, Mr. H. B. Butler, deputy director, and Mr. Lomercier acting as private secretary, and is in operation with offices at the temporary seat of the League of Nations in London. A periodical bulletin, to be published in French and English and such other languages as the governing body may think desirable, will be issued shortly. In the meantime, the office issues statements of its initial activities to the members of the governing body, the delegates to the Washington conference, and others who are interested in or in sympathy with the work. The inquiry into Bolshevism projected by the League of Nations is in charge of Dr. Pardo, who has made preparations for the inquiry and the preliminary questions connected with it. The executive work and preliminary organization of conferences are in the hands of Mr. Phelan and Mr. Pône. Mr. di Palma Castiglione has charge of the study of agricultural problems, and questions relating to seamen are being handled by Commander Crimms of the British mercantile marine. The first duty devolving upon the international labor office under article 405 of the peace treaty was the official notification of all the governments, through the secretary general of the League of Nations, of the text of the conventions and resolutions which were adopted by the Washington conference. It is also the duty of the international labor office to see that the governments bring the conventions before their competent authorities within a year, or in special cases within 18 months, with a view to their ratification."—*Monthly Labor Review, May,* 1920, *pp.* 197-198.

See also LABOR LEGISLATION: 1919-1922; LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Establishment of the Secretariat; Achievements of the council; Second meeting of the assembly; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part XIII: Section I; INTERNATIONAL.

1920.—Fortieth Annual Convention of American Federation of Labor. See AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: 1920.

1920.—Vote against Sovietism in Italy. See ITALY: 1920.

1920.—Industrial unions of the Industrial Workers of the World.—Centralization and growth. See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD: Organization and membership.

1920-1921.—Permanent trade union school.—Work of Catholic organizations. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: Italy.

1920-1922.—Recent aspects of labor organization in various countries.—Notwithstanding the strides taken in industrial unionism in the United States of late years and the significance of such organizations as the railroad "Brotherhoods," the Industrial Workers of the World and the "outlaw" unions in the textile and other industries, the strength of the country's labor union movement still rests in the conservative American Federation of Labor. (See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD: Organization and membership.) In Canada the majority of the organized workers are connected with the Trade and Labor Congress, associated with the American Federation of Labor, officially recognized by the Dominion Government and affiliated with the International Federation of Trade Unions (Amsterdam). The Canadian Brotherhood of Railway Employees with a membership of about 8,000 was expelled from the Trades and Labor Congress in 1921 as the result of a long drawn out dispute with other transportation unions. The Congress favors the supporting of the organization of a Dominion Labor Party, remaining itself a non-political body. The Canadian Federation of Labor and the Catholic unions were reported in 1920 to have a membership of 45,000 as against that of 173,463 of the Trades and Labor Congress. The strength of the One Big Union movement lies in the west where it has shown itself extremely radical and where, with the odds of both external and internal repudiations, it has lost ground since 1919. Mexico's organization is along industrial lines. Her Federation of Labor has a membership estimated at 500,000 working for the socialization of natural resources, worker's control in all industry and the setting up of communistic shops. Central America has a number of associations but lacks practical organization. In South America "On the western coast labor organization is just beginning to emerge from the mutual benefit society stage, becoming more advanced and more like real trade unions in the more southern countries. The fact that there has been comparatively little immigration to these countries also has its influence on the labor movement, as the impulse to organize must therefore come from within. In Argentina and Uruguay, on the other hand, countries which have had a large foreign immigration, settlers from northern Italy and Spain predominating, the impulse to labor organization came largely from the foreign influence. . . . The labor movement of South America differs greatly from that of the United States because in so many of the countries the great mass of the laboring class is uneducated, unskilled, and of a different race from that of the ruling class. The difference in climate, the rich undeveloped natural resources open to exploitation, and the fact that manufacturing is only in its infancy are other factors to be considered. . . . Labor is inclined to be somewhat radical, as is shown by the votes of adherence to, or at least sympathy with, radical international organizations. Ultraradical and revolutionary tendencies, in evidence in several countries, have led to the organization of 'patriotic leagues,' as in Argentina, Brazil, and Bolivia."—M. Dobbin, *Labor unrest in South America* (*Monthly Labor Review, Jan.*, 1922, *pp.* 20, 41).—The Argentine Syndical Union was formed in March, 1922, as a national federation of trade unions by the uniting of the two branches of the Federación Obrera Regional Argentina which split in 1905.

Great Britain, where union membership was more than doubled between 1914 and 1919, found in 1920, that her "trade union atmosphere was already different from that of 1919. Although membership was still growing the sense of weakness was returning and the first after war impulse to aggressive action had passed away. [The Trade Union Congress refused to support the Miners' Federation to enforce mines nationalization in March 1920, and] recommended political action and education in preference to 'direct action.' With that decision definitely died the menace of aggressive action by the trade union movement as a whole in support of demands involving substantial modification of the capitalist industrial system."—G. D. H. Cole (*Review of Reviews, Feb.*, 1922, *p.* 203).—The tendency of British labor is distinctly toward amalgamation and federation in moving toward industrial unity. The transport workers federation is a case in point. The unemployment situation of 1921-1922 developed a special Joint National Conference which condemned the government's failure to act in the crisis and demanded immediate unrestricted trade with Russia, the stoppage of reprisals in Ireland and military exploits in the East, prohibition of all overtime work and other measures of a foreign and domestic nature calculated to increase employment. An effort on the part of the Red Trade Union International to detach the British trade unions from affiliation with the Amsterdam International, resulted in over 200 branches of trade unions passing resolutions instructing their central executives to affiliate with the Red Trade Union International. In July, 1921, the South Wales Miners' Federation voted to affiliate with the Third International. "What, finally, can be reported of the spirit and temper of the six million men and women who . . . make up the labour, or trade union movement of Great Britain? We find them at the close of 1922 in the depths of economic depression, suffering more severely than has ever before been recorded from the extreme penury produced by successive reductions of wages to the extent of £500,000,000 a year, and from the privation, amounting often to semi-starvation, resulting from involuntary unemployment on a gigantic scale. This unparalleled depression has resulted in the disbursement of practically all the accumulated funds of the unions and in a severe decline in membership. But it is not marked in 1922, as it was in 1879, by any collapse of trade union organization or disappearance of trade union structure. On the contrary, the internal organization of the principal societies has continued to improve; the process of amalgamation of overlapping or competing unions or of isolated local societies has gone on steadily if only slowly; the smoothing out of inter-union differences by federation and joint committees has become general; the central machinery of the Trades Union Congress has at least started on the path of regeneration; while the political organizations of the movement, both local and national, has grown from strength to strength and proceeded from triumph to triumph. This relatively satisfactory position in organizations is the outcome of the intellectual development of the wage-earning

LABOR ORGANIZATION, 1920-1922

class. [See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: England.] . . . At no previous period has the general level of political intelligence among the British workmen been so high or economic knowledge so widely diffused."—S. Webb, *British labour and the depression* (*International Labour Review, Feb.-Mar.,* 1923, *pp.* 228-229).—Ireland's Trade Union Congress, meeting at Cork in August 1920, comprised 300,000 workers organized in 54 unions and 40 councils—practically one-half the wage earning population. The dominant labor body is the Irish Transport and General Workers' Union founded by James Larkin and held to be one of the most militant labor organizations in Europe. Its membership in 1921 was about 150,000. (See also IRELAND: 1922.) The amalgamation in August 1922 of the Australian Workers' Union, made up of workers in pastoral, building and manufacturing industries, with the miners and transport workers forms a new combination, numbering about 200,000, in industrial unionism in Australia, officially known as the Australasian Workers' Union. In New Zealand where the movement toward larger units of organization is also progressing, the two predominating groups are the New Zealand Workers' Union and the Alliance of Labor. Colored labor unions have begun to develop in South Africa and a federation of these was decided on in 1920. The South African Industrial Federation has about 80,000 (1920) members, organizations being strongest in the mining, building and engineering trades.

In France "the General Federation of Labor is said to have lost five-eighths of its members since the failure of [the] general strike in 1920. Today [1922] about the only members left in it are the Communist radicals and the Socialist conservatives. These are fighting constantly for control of the organization. Both sides claim victory. The evenness of the current battle makes it look as though the Communists were disquietingly strong."—W. Williams, *France at work* (*Scribners Magazine, Feb.,* 1922).—In Italy the general policy of labor for workers' control resulting in revolutionary tactics on the part of the metal workers and agricultural workers, in 1920 and 1921, has led to increase in workers' coöperative societies. [See also SOCIALISM: 1869-1920; COÖPERATION: Italy.) One-third of the adult population was reported to belong to the trade unions in Austria in 1921, with over 200,000 women organized. In Belgium, industrial unionism is favored by the strongest unions which are Socialistic. In Czecho-Slovakia the Federation of Czecho-Slovak Trade Unions with 727,055 members in 1920 works side by side with the Federation of German Trade Unions in Czecho-Slovakia, the latter organized on an industrial basis in 1919 and numbering 352,000 in March 1920. The two federations are not affiliated. While the majority of Denmark's organized labor belong to the Trade Union Association which has concentrated of late on such problems as hours and government unemployment measures, there is an active association of free trade unions, mostly syndicalist. Holland's Social-Democratic trade unions are her strongest, notwithstanding the losses occasioned by the unsuccessful dock strike of 1920. In Hungary since the defeat of the revolution the persecutions of a reactionary government reduced trade union membership to 212,000 at the beginning of 1920. Nevertheless the principle of unionism won out in 1921 in the printer's struggle with the government for recognition of their union. Government opposition also caused the General Federation of Labor in Greece to break with the Amsterdam International and join the Moscow Trade Union International late in 1920. Another country where trade unionism is conspicuous for its radical tendencies is Jugo-Slavia where the Central Trade Union Council, the main labor body, is associated with the Communist Party and the Red Trade Union International. In 1920 the Trade Union Congress of Norway adopted in principle a proposal for the reorganization of labor along industrial lines both locally and nationally. Several trade congresses opposed this policy later. In May, 1921, the trade unions called a general strike in support of the seamen's strike, but in less than a month they were defeated by government troops. Syndicalists have been active in Swedish labor groups, stirred up by events in Russia. Poland had in 1920 eighteen industrial unions with 454,000 members and craft unions with a membership of 51,000 under Socialist influence, nationalist unions numbering 436,000 members as well as smaller Christian, Jewish and Communist unions. Spain's two chief labor organizations formed a working alliance to oppose reaction late in 1920 but severed it within a few months after the Confederation attempted to organize a general strike to protest against "government oppression" and the General Union refused to support it. Portugal's general Confederation of Labor, formed in 1919 on the model of the French C. G. T., refused to take part in the Washington International Labor Conference. Strikes for union principles carried on by sabotage and violence in 1920 and 1921 were sternly repressed by the Portuguese government. The general strike based on principles of civil liberty in Rumania late in 1920 brought about a strengthening and unification of the labor movement as a result of the drastic punishments meted out to the strikers by the government. In Switzerland in 1921 the rules of the Trade Union Federation were revised to accommodate innovations adopted by workers' unions. Notwithstanding legal prohibition of trade unions in Turkey a number of associations for "neutral aid" exist among labor groups and a Central Confederation of Labor has been formed. At the beginning of 1921 there were said to be nearly 500,000 organized workers in Egypt. Late in 1920 the first Trades Union Congress convened in India. China and Japan have both been backward in labor organization. The gild system in China is beginning to break down under the pressure of industrial problems and since 1919 trade unions have become numerous, if chaotic, in Shanghai and the ports. Japan has had the legal right to organize unions under the surveillance of the Government Labor Bureau since 1919 and has already developed radical tendencies such as amalgamation among the miners and the seamen. "The love of easy-going independence, the migratory habits and the reluctance to submit to discipline and to learn new processes of production, which characterize the Indian workman, explain the paradox that, in spite of her 319 millions, one of the greatest obstacles to India's industrial expansion is the scarcity of labour. . . . The great economic loss India has suffered by the unskillfulness of her labour—a defect largely remediable by education—is now recognized, and special attention is now being bestowed upon the provision of sufficient educational facilities for the newer generation of workers. . . . That the spirit of combination is lacking in the India workman has been [noticeable]. . . . The early history of organized labour in India is full of instances to show that while the operatives fully understood the machinery of local strikes and have repeatedly

enforced employers to comply with their demands in isolated cases, they were unable to combine over any large area with the object of securing a common end by concerted action. . . . The essential preliminary condition of trade unionism . . . is the existence of a class of wage-earners divorced from the ownership of the means of production. In India . . . the predominant type is that of the agricultural labourer who retains his interest in land and is his own entrepreneur. Yet, latterly, there has been growing up a small but definite class of workers detached from all interest in land and looking solely to some particular form of industrial employment for the means of subsistence. The late emergence of this class explains the absence of trade unionism in the early history of Indian labour. . . . The labourers are trying to strengthen their movement by banding themselves into a Central Labour Federation, and Trades Union Congresses [and] the government are now [1922] busy drafting a Bill giving the Unions legal recognition and protection. . . . The question of popularizing works committees on the lines of the Whitley Report engaged the attention of the Second Conference of the Directors of Industry held at Cawnpore in November, 1920, and on the 30th of July, 1921. . . . The Report of the Committee [in the Bombay Legislative Council on the subject] was published some time back, and I understand that they are in favor of setting up Courts of Enquiry and Conciliation. . . . It is proposed to give the Courts statutory recognition, but not to make their decrees mandatory."—P. P. Pillai, *Indian labour problem* (*Asiatic Review, Jan.*, 1923).

1920-1922.—Work of the United Mine Workers of America.—War between mining companies and organized labor. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1920-1922: Warfare in West Virginia; WEST VIRGINIA: 1920-1921.

1921.—Effect of decisions in Duplex printers' case on rights of labor organizations. See BOYCOTT: 1921.

1921.—Work of International conference. See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Second meeting of the Assembly; Achievements of the council.

1921-1922.—Effect of World War on the International. See INTERNATIONAL: 1921-1922.

See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL; COÖPERATION; FEUDALISM: Organization; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS; LABOR LEGISLATION; LABOR PARTIES; LABOR REMUNERATION.

ALSO IN: C. M. Lloyd, *Trade unionism.*—J. R. Commons and others, *History of labor in the United States.*—G. G. Groat, *Introduction to the study of organized labor in America.*—R. F. Hoxie, *Trade unionism in the United States.*—L. Levine, *Syndicalism in France.*—G. D. H. Cole, *World of labor.*—Idem, *Labor unions* (*Economic and social history of the World War*).—F. Tannenbaum, *Labor movement: Its conservative functions and social consequences.*

LABOR ORGANIZATION, International. See INTERNATIONAL; LABOR LEGISLATION: 1919-1922; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1919: International labor organization; LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Establishment of the Secretariat; Achievements of the council; Second meeting of the assembly; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part XIII: Section 1.

LABOR PARTIES: 1827-1872.—Early American labor parties.—"The first workingmen's party appeared in Philadelphia in 1827 or 1828; but the most important political movement occurred in New York City. The New York party was organized in the spring of 1829, elected a state assemblyman in the fall, was split into three fragments within a few months, put three tickets in the field in the fall of 1830, and disappeared from view the following spring. The party, organized ostensibly to prevent an attempt to lengthen the working day, was first committed by an imperious leader to the doctrine of equal distribution of wealth and the abolition of inheritance; this leader was soon ousted, carrying with him only a handful of followers. Next came Robert Dale Brown and G. H. Evans; the latter was the editor of the famous labor paper, *The Working Man's Advocate.* These two enthusiasts committed the party to an educational program. Free education in boarding schools, where all distinctions of rank or class were to be eliminated, was put forward as a panacea for all the evils of which the workers complained. Tammany Hall was then, as now, the powerful democratic organization of that city. The leaders of that political machine were thoroughly frightened by the results of the election of 1829; and proceeded to destroy the workingmen's organization. So successful were they that within a few months Owen and Evans were forced out, carrying with them a considerable fraction of the entire party. Tammany now took up some of the planks in the platform of the conservative and most numerous branch of the party; and in 1831 the entire organization disappeared in thin air. The first American labor movement was disrupted by entering the political arena. This ephemeral labor party was not entirely useless. The chief effects may be briefly summarized as follows: (a) the passage of a mechanics' lien law by the New York legislature. It was clearly for the purpose of placating the workingmen that this measure was supported and pushed through by Tammany. (b) The abolition of imprisonment for debt, by a law passed in the spring of 1831. The stand taken by the workingmen's party clearly hastened legislative action in this matter. (c) The appropriations for educational purposes in New York City increased very visibly at this time. (d) When, in 1833-1837, the strong trade-union movement arose, the fate of the workingmen's party was accepted as a conclusive argument against direct political effort. Hence the trade unions kept aloof from party politics and merely questioned candidates as to their position on measures which were regarded as affecting the interests of labor. . . . In 1860, . . . a so-called labor-reform party was organized in Massachusetts. In the first year of its existence, the party elected twenty-one representatives to the State Assembly and one State Senator. The state ticket polled 13,000 votes, or about one in every ten votes cast. At the second convention held in 1870, Wendell Phillips was nominated for governor. The prohibition party also placed Mr. Phillips at the head of its ticket. The labor party advocated the separation of industrial from political questions. The planks in the platform of 1870 were similar to the recommendations of the National Labor Union. Two or three new demands were made, however, which indicate the appearance of new evils. The regulation of railway rates and the abolition of the importation of laborers, particularly from China, under contract, were advocated. In 1871 the resolutions presented by Phillips and adopted by the labor-reform party were tinged with socialism. It was affirmed that labor is the creator of all wealth; the abolition of special privileges was demanded; and it was asserted that the capitalistic system was making the rich richer and the poor poorer. In 1872 a labor congress was held at Cincinnati to organize a national party for the election of that year. David Davis was

nominated; but he finally refused to accept the nomination. No further nominations were made."—F. T. Carlton, *History and problems of organized labor, pp.* 32-33, 61.

1868-1919.—British labor party.—Origin and development.—Divisions during World War.— "Measured by the extended history of trade union organizations in this country [England], the political Labour movement is of very recent origin. . . . It was the activity of the Socialist pioneers in this country which supplied the final impulse to political action on the part of the organised working class movement. It is true that after the passing of the Reform Act of 1868, which enfranchised the workmen in the boroughs, a movement was started to secure the return of trade unionist members to Parliament. In 1874 fourteen candidates went to the poll, but only two were returned, including the Right Hon. Thomas Burt, M.P. . . . In 1880 the number was increased to three; in 1885 to eleven; in 1892 to fourteen; but in 1895 the number was reduced to twelve. The conjunction of the socialist and the industrial movements, however, caused the pace to quicken. Alone, the Socialist propagandists seemed to be condemned to political futility. In 1885, for example, the old Social Democratic Federation ran two candidates—one at Kennington and the other at Hampstead: the candidate at Kennington received thirty-two votes, the candidate at Hampstead polled twenty-nine. The foundation of the Independent Labour party in 1893 [under the leadership of Keir Hardie] as a result of the propaganda of the Fabians and the old S.D.F. [see also SOCIALISM: 1882-1916], prepared the ground for the decision of the Trade Union Congress in 1899, when a resolution was adopted directing the Parliamentary Committee to arrange a conference of the trade unions and the socialist societies 'to devise ways and means of securing an increased number of Labour members in Parliament.' A year later the Labour Representation Committee was formed, and a distinct Labour Group came into existence in Parliament, on independent lines, with its own whips and its own policy. The form of organisation adopted indicates quite clearly that at that time the creation of a national party was not contemplated. What was then formed was a separate group, not a democratic political party capable of challenging the two historic parties on their own ground. After the special conference of 1899, the Labour Party took shape as a federation of trade unions, socialist societies, trades councils and local labour parties, and co-operative societies. It was not until 1903 that the Candidates of the Labour Representation Committee obtained any notable success at the polls. Between the General Elections of 1900 and 1906 three remarkable victories were obtained: Mr. (now Sir David) Shackleton was returned unopposed for Clitheroe; Mr. Will Crooks won Woolwich from the Unionist party; and I [A. Henderson] had the pleasure of beating both the Tory and Liberal candidates at Barnard Castle. In 1906 the party promoted fifty candidatures at the General Election and twenty-nine of them were successful at the polls; in January, 1910, seventy-eight candidates ran under the auspices of the party, and forty were returned; at the last General Election, in December, 1910, fifty-six candidates were nominated, and forty-two returned. In Parliament these members formed a separate and independent group. But they were not a party, in the accepted sense of the word, and some of them had not shaken off their allegiance to the historic parties. In the country, though we maintained our own electoral machinery and our own staff of organisers, the organisation was essentially a federation of local and national societies. When the war came it was made clear that this form of organisation had elements of weakness which the less serious stresses of peace times had not revealed. As the war wore on, and the democratic will became stronger, we were led to see that if Labour is to take its part in creating the new order of society it must address itself to the task of transforming its political organisation from a federation of societies into a national popular party, rooted in the life of the democracy, and deriving its principles and its policy from the new political consciousness."—A. Henderson, *Aims of labour, pp.* 13-15.—"The Labor Party . . . was affiliated with the International Socialist Bureau, which had in the year 1907 adopted a resolution to the effect that the working classes of all countries, in the event of war threatening, should use every effort to prevent its actual outbreak and should intervene to bring it promptly to an end. This traditional attitude of labor to war was taken by British labor during the crises that immediately preceded England's declaration of war. On the 30th of July [1914], the labor members in the House passed a resolution indorsing Sir Edward Grey's efforts in behalf of peace, and called on labor organizations to oppose any action leading to war. But by the 4th of August, the date when England actually declared war, two events had profoundly influenced the situation—the violation of Belgium and the vote of the German Social Democrats in the Reichstag in favor of war credits for their country. The result was that in spite of bitter differences within its ranks—differences which led to the resignation of Mr. Ramsay MacDonald from the chairmanship of the party and the election of Mr. Arthur Henderson in his place—the executive committee of the Labor Party decided on August 29 to join in the recruiting campaign. It was at this time that the political truce was declared. But though the majority of British labor supported the Government on the ground that this was the only hope of defeating militarism, after September, 1914, a tendency toward division into three sections became evident within the party: An extreme group, representing a minority, under Mr. Philip Snowden and Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, who were opposed to the foreign policy of the Government, opposed to conscription, and industrial compulsion, and in favor of peace by negotiation rather than by victory; a moderate group —the majority—under the leadership of Mr. Arthur Henderson, who admitted the necessities of the war and desired to co-operate as far as possible with the government; a third small section under Mr. Havelock Wilson of the Seaman's Union, and Mr. Will Crooks, who were for full participation in the war until Germany, which they regarded as a criminal nation, was crushed. In February, 1915, the first interallied labor and socialist conference met at London. It is chiefly important because of its adoption of definite war aims, which formed the basis of discussion at all other labor and socialist meetings, until their final adoption at the great interallied meeting of February, 1918. These demands are in brief: the freedom of Belgium, the autonomy of Poland, suppression of secret diplomacy, the ending of militarism, the establishment of some international authority to settle points of difference among the nations by compulsory conciliation and arbitration. At this conference announcement was made for the first time that British labor considered itself at war with German imperialism, not with the German people. . . . Conscription, both industrial and mili-

LABOR PARTIES, 1868-1919

tary, was disapproved by labor. The Executive Committee of the Labor Party and the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades-Union Congress called a conference for January, 1916, and here an overwhelming vote against conscription was taken. The miners took similar action. During the same month, the regular conference of the Labor Party voted against the policy of military and industrial compulsion. Under ordinary circumstances this would have meant the withdrawal of the labor members from the coalition government; but by May, although the feeling against compulsion was strong, it was felt that these measures were necessary for a successful termination of the war, so that labor again supported compulsion in Parliament. In July at the Trades-Union Congress the question of Conscription was brought up and though the delegates showed themselves to be opposed to it, a resolution for the repeal of the military service act was defeated. By the early part of 1917 labor unrest had increased so much, owing to conditions both internal and external, that the Government felt forced to appoint committees on industrial unrest. These reported in July, 1917, that the chief causes of discontent were unequal distribution of food, high prices of food in relation to wages, restriction of personal liberty, particularly under the Munitions Act, lack of confidence in the Government's promises of restoration of trades-union regulations after war, and delay in settlement of disputes. But besides these, it is probable that the effect of the Russian Revolution had already begun to make itself felt in England. The attitude of the Labor Party to Imperial Russia had been one of profound suspicion, which changed to one of sympathy after the revolution of March, 1917. . . . Mr. Henderson . . . advocated an international meeting at Stockholm, to be preceded first by a meeting of British labor, and then by an interallied meeting. The Government finally opposed the idea of an international meeting, and Mr. Bonar Law announced that no member of the British Government would attend the Stockholm conference. This announcement made the position of Mr. Henderson as a member of a Government opposed to such a conference and as chairman of the Labor Party which strongly advocated it, an impossible one to maintain. It meant resignation from one office or the other. Mr. Lloyd George accused him of having misled his ministerial colleagues as to the advice he intended to give the Labor Party, and also of having withheld from the labor conference a message from the Russian Government saying that it no longer desired the Stockholm meeting. The situation was further embittered by the famous 'doormat' incident, in which Mr. Henderson, still a member of the Cabinet, was kept waiting outside during their deliberations. In August, 1917, he resigned from the Cabinet. From that time his power with labor greatly increased, while the separation between labor and Government widened. Even after the Bolshevik revolution of November, 1917, labor remained opposed to intervention in Russia. The publication of the secret treaties of the allies excited still greater antagonism as proving that the methods of imperialism and secret diplomacy had not been abandoned. The pressing need of the armies for men in February and March of 1918 led the Government to the further 'combing-out' process of industry, a process bitterly resented by labor. Only the terrible demands of the German offensive in March put a stop to disputes. Perhaps also the hope that came with the United States' active participation in the war, counseled patience for a time. There were, however, strikes in the Clyde district and in Coventry, which the July offensive again prevented from their full effect. In the autumn, however, the political truce was definitely broken by labor running its own candidates at the by-elections. In November, 1918, the labor members at last withdrew from the coalition government. Throughout all this time there has been a marked tendency to consolidate labor groups both in Great Britain and the allied nations, and to a lesser extent internationally. At the meeting in December, 1917, of the Trades-Union Congress and of the Labor Party, war aims were definitely adopted and, more important by far, were presented and adopted by the interallied labor conference which met in London in February, 1918. In September of the same year a still wider representation of interallied labor and socialists met in London. Mr. Gompers was there representing the American Federation of Labor, and there were delegates from Great Britain, Italy, France, Belgium, Canada, Greece, Serbia, and Roumania. The question was discussed whether or not an international labor and socialist meeting should be held; and it was decided that this could not be done until the Majority Socialists of Germany adopted unequivocally the war aims of the interallied conference of February, 1918. The Labor Party is divided by differences as to both internal and foreign policy. The former differences go back to the reconstruction of the party in 1917. Its basis was then widened to include not merely manual workers but brain workers as well. Under the new constitution, approved in September, 1917, not only trades-unions, socialist organizations, and co-operative societies are eligible for membership, but it is proposed to create in each parliamentary constituency a local party made up of the local branches of affiliated societies and of individually enrolled members. Those who oppose this new organization urge that it makes of the Labor Party no longer a trades-union party and thus deprives it of its fundamental character. A Center Labor Party has broken off, of which Mr. Thomas F. Burns is secretary. It is an attempt to provide for trade-unionists who are not socialists, and to steer a middle course between capital and socialism. The party seems to be mainly religious and even Roman Catholic in character. No statement has been made of its membership. No recognized trade-union leader belongs to it. Mr. Burns has explained that it opposes Christian democracy to socialism, and he is himself secretary of the Catholic Federation. It does not appear that this schism is to be taken very seriously. The second is more important. After the June 1918 conference of the Labor party, Mr. Havelock Wilson, of the Seamen's Union; Mr. W. J. Davis, of the Brass Workers'; and Mr. J. B. Williams, of the Musician's Union, decided to form a separate trades-union party on the ground that the Labor Party was pro-German, that its program . . . was bolshevist, and that the main need was support of and not opposition to the Government. . . . The decision to end the party truce led to another secession. At the conference of June 1918, the Labor members of the Government protested against the continuous sniping to which they were subjected, and the truce was ended, not on account of any distrust of the Labor ministers, but owing to the fact that labor considered the Government was no longer to be trusted. On the conclusion of the armistice a resolution was passed asking the Labor members of the Government to withdraw from it, on the ground that the necessity for coalition was over and that the time had come

when labor should take united action in order to obtain political power. . . . The vote in favor of withdrawal . . . was so overwhelming that five out of the eight Labor ministers resigned office. . . . It seems therefore that on the whole labor is firmly united in its programs, and there seems no reason to doubt the solidarity of action in support of the war aims. The only doubt is whether parliamentarians like Mr. Henderson will go far enough for the chief trades-union leaders, like Mr. R. Smillie, of the miners' federation. As a political party the Labor Party is in a strong position. It has become national in character, and owing to the at least temporary eclipse of the Liberals, it has become the official opposition party. It is now confined to no one class, but reckons among its candidates not only trades-unionists, but clergymen, ex-civil servants, and distinguished economists. It has strong and recognized leaders. Men like Mr. Henderson, Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, and Mr. Thomas speak to the whole country. It derives strength from its avoidance of any commitment to socialism; it has socialist elements, but they form only two per cent of the membership of the party. Its platform has commanded respect, and there seems to be a general realization throughout Great Britain of the practical soberness of its legislative proposals. Its great source of strength, however, is its solid backing by the trades-unions." —United States State Department, *Report on labor situation in Great Britain*, 1919, *pp.* 7-14.—See also ENGLAND: 1916 (January); 1918 (June); LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1919: British labor movement.

1874-1901.—Organization of Socialist Labor party in the United States. — Alliance with Greenback and United Labor party. See SOCIALISM: 1874-1901.

1878-1879.—Organization of Working Man's party in California.—Its influence on state politics. See CALIFORNIA: 1877-1880.

1878-1912.—Labor parties of France.—Their tendencies. See SOCIALISM: 1871-1904; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1867-1912.

1885-1920.—Belgian Labor party.—"In 1885 the Belgian Labor Party was formed by a number of co-operative associations, trade-unions, and political groups. . . . The Labor Party is a national federation consisting of 32 district organizations which cover the whole of Belgium, and membership in it is open to trade-unions, co-operative societies, political organizations called 'workers' leagues,' communal socialist unions, and the political sections of friendly societies (mutualités). The organization is very complete, providing for the grouping of children and young persons under 21 years of age in associations of 'Young Guards' or 'Young Socialists.' These clubs provide for the physical, intellectual, and moral education of young socialists and carry on antimilitarist and socialist propaganda. The complete establishment of socialism is the aim of the party. . . . The party has [1920] 540,000 members and there are 70 adherents of the party in the Chamber of Representatives."—A. L. Whitney, *Labor unrest in Belgium* (*Monthly Labor Review, Apr.*, 1921, *p.* 148).

1886-1906.—Rise of Australian Labor party.—Its organization.—"To trace the origin of the movement [leading to the formation of] the Labor party we must go back to the fall of prices which began about 1886, to the succeeding lean years 1886-92, and the miseries of the consequent period of unsuccessful strikes. The strikers and their working-class sympathizers were taunted with appealing to brute force, and recommended to depend rather upon constitutional political methods for the redress of grievances. The workingmen took the advice and bettered it. The trades unions devoted a portion of their funds and much of their energy to political propaganda. First in New South Wales, later in all the colonies and in many widely separated districts, labor leagues were organized which sketched out a policy and laid down a pledge which all candidates supported by the leagues must sign. These formed the nucleus of a new and independent political party which gave their votes to either Liberal or Conservative indifferently, regardless of which was in office, in return for legislative concessions from either. The new party springing thus almost simultaneously to life all over the continent was at first regarded as a pathetic joke. They were few in numbers, uneducated, inexperienced in affairs of state, and had opposed to them all the wealth and the legal astuteness in every chamber where they held seats. But they were determined, united, and, with rare exceptions, self-sacrificing. They were mutually bound not to take office except with the consent of their fellow-laborites, so that they were labeled from the first as 'Not for sale.' And from their point of view the plan has succeeded. Friend and foe alike pay tribute to the magnificent organization and discipline of the movement, and to the personal disinterestedness of the leaders. A great economy of effort is assured by having a platform and organization practically identical for the Federal, State and municipal elections, and for general propaganda work, and consequently being able to utilize the same bodies—the local political labor leagues—and the same workers for what seems to them social righteousness, whether in national, State, or municipal concerns. The Labor party was born of trades-unionism, and its whole administration has been based on trades union methods. The political labor leagues were at first composed of trades-unionists, and are still closely in touch with trades unions. These are the bodies who vote for the selection of candidates for all elections and for delegates to the annual and triennial State and Federal conferences of the party. The Labor party in Parliament may be the controlling force, but no other party in Australia has to carry out the behests of its constituents as does this. We now come to the pledge and the caucus. The pledge, which was first drafted by the New South Wales Labor Conference in 1895, reads as follows: 'I hereby pledge myself not to oppose the candidate selected by the recognized political Labour organisation, and, if elected, to do my utmost to carry out the principles—embodied in the Federal Labour Platform, and on all questions affecting the Platform to vote as a majority of the Parliamentary Party may decide at a duly constituted caucus meeting.' As the pledge binds all members to carry out the general principles of a platform decided for him by the united labor vote of Australia, so each man has his vote in the legislature decided for him beforehand on all details of that policy by the caucus vote of his party in the legislature, before or during the course of debate. The advocates of the system say that this is the only way in which any consistent policy can be carried out to a successful end. Opponents assert that in it we have the germs of machine politics, and that labor may by and by pay dearly for its present victory. The large amount of direct representation in Australia, and the increasing probabilities of the initiative and referendum being more largely used, may check this tendency."—A. Henry, *Australian labor movement* (*Outlook, Nov.* 3, 1906).—See also AUSTRALIA: 1903-1904; 1905-1906; NEW SOUTH WALES: 1891.

1900.—Platform of the Socialist Labor party of the United States.—Social Democratic party. See U. S. A.: 1900 (May-November).

1900-1920.—Labor parties of Italy.—Influence on Socialistic legislation. See SOCIALISM: 1869-1920.

1904.—Platform of the Socialist Labor party. See U. S. A.: 1904 (May-November).

1909.—Decision against British parliament members receiving pay from trade unions. See ENGLAND: 1909 (July-December).

1909-1920.—Labor ministry in Australia.—Labor government under Fisher.—Power and program of the Labor party.—Conflict with the Nationalists.—Objections to censorship in New Zealand. See AUSTRALIA: 1909 (May-June); 1910-1915; 1911-1913; 1915; 1919-1920; CENSORSHIP: World War.

1910-1913.—Formation of New Zealand Labour party.—United Labor party. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1906-1913.

1918.—Protest of Labor party in Ireland against conscription. See IRELAND: 1918.

1918-1920.—Growth of local labor parties in the United States.—National Labor party.—Farmer-Labor party.—"The Labor Party movement has sprung up spontaneously in many sections of the country since the summer of 1918 without centralization or even without initial communication between the leaders of the movement. The achievements of the British Labor Party and especially its famous Reconstruction Program, which was widely known among the trade unionists of this country, has caused a number of progressive labor leaders to consider the advisability of organizing a political movement of labor. The moving spirits in this movement were the labor men who have always believed in political action on the part of labor and some of them had previously supported the Socialist Party in its political campaigns. The first to start the movement for a labor party were the machinists of Bridgeport during their strike when they walked out as a protest against the award of the National War Labor Board. A labor party was organized in Bridgeport and Hartford, New Brunswick, Meriden and Danbury. The second and leading attempt to marshal the labor movement into a political party was in Chicago in November 1918, when President John Fitzpatrick and Secretary E. N. Nockels of the Chicago Federation of Labor, asked the Federation to take steps towards starting a labor party. They presented a series of political demands which came to be known as labor's 14 points and which served as a basis for a platform for other labor parties. . . . A referendum among the local unions affiliated with the Chicago Federation of Labor resulted in an overwhelming vote to organize such a party and the labor party of Cook County was formed in January 1919 with 125 local unions joining the party and paying the necessary per capita tax. John Fitzpatrick was its candidate at the Chicago Municipal election in April 1919 and he polled 56,000 votes. The *New Majority*, a weekly paper owned by the Chicago Federation of Labor, was started with the organization of the Labor Party and was later endorsed by the Labor Party of Illinois. The Illinois State Federation of Labor, at its annual convention in the fall of 1918, also ordered a referendum on the starting of a state-wide labor party. This measure also carried by a large majority, and the state convention was held in April 1919 at which the state party was formed. In the municipal elections in Illinois, Labor candidates were elected in many cities. In Aurora, the Labor Party elected its candidates for mayor, clerk, treasurer and attorney, by a plurality vote of about 1,200. In Kuwanee, the Labor Party elected its candidates for mayor and two commissioners out of four. In Collinsville, it elected the mayor, treasurer and two aldermen. In Batavia, a Labor mayor, treasurer, clerk and alderman were elected. Beardstown elected a Labor mayor and five aldermen while Westville and Merrisville elected the entire Labor ticket. In Kankakee, five out of seven aldermen were elected on the Labor Party ticket. In Hartford, Conn., the Labor Party polled 1,700 votes out of the 12,000 cast in the election. . . . On January 11, 1919, the joint reconstruction committees of the Central Labor bodies of Greater New York called a convention of representatives of labor unions for the purpose of organizing a Labor Party. At this convention, the labor organizations of New York City were represented by 884 delegates and included the Central Federated Union of New York, the Central Labor Union of Brooklyn, the Woman's Trade Union League, the United Hebrew Trades, as well as delegates from 152 local and 41 international unions. This convention organized the American Labor Party of Greater New York. The platform adopted by the convention was somewhat similar to that of the Chicago Labor Party and is also based to a great extent on the Reconstruction Program of the British Labor Party. The Cleveland trade unionists . . . also formed a Labor Party. . . . The governing elements of the American Federation of Labor, led by Samuel Gompers, have consistently opposed the attempt on the part of labor elements in various localities to organize labor parties. On the eve of the New York convention called to organize the Labor Party, Samuel Gompers, the Executive Council of the A. F. of L., members of the A. F. of L. Reconstruction Committee and other leading members of the A. F. of L., invited to a conference those who were active in the movement to organize a Labor Party in New York. Gompers reviewed at this conference the attitude of the American Federation of Labor toward politics, alluding to the political gains which the A. F. of L. had obtained for its membership without organizing a district political party, and warning against such a condition [as] . . . in England where the political labor movement is the dominant factor in the affairs of labor in that country. The Executive Council then officially went on record as opposed to a national movement for a labor political party, calling attention to article III, section 8 of the A. F. of L. Constitution providing—'Party politics, whether they be Democratic, Republican, Socialistic, Populistic, Prohibition, or any other, shall have no place in the conventions of the American Federation of Labor.' The Labor parties which already have been formed have evinced a desire to secure the support of the Socialist elements in the labor movement and have even gone so far as to urge the Socialist Party to unite its forces with them in the labor political movement. . . . The constitution of the American Labor Party of New York provides 'that no candidate of the Labor Party shall accept endorsement of either the Democratic or the Republican parties nor of any other parties that stand for private ownership of public utilities; nor shall the Labor Party endorse any candidates of the above-mentioned parties,' allowing therefore an endorsement of its candidates by the Socialist Party and *vice versa*. . . . The National Constituent Convention of the American Labor Party was held November 22-25, 1919, at Chicago, with about 1,000 delegates representing labor

organizations in 37 states and the District of Columbia. Max Hayes of the International Typographical Union, John H. Walker and Frank Esper of the United Mine Workers, were chosen chairman, vice-chairman and secretary respectively of the convention. . . . The National Executive Committee was instructed to approach the various labor unions and secure their affiliation with the party. The Chicago Labor Party organ, the *New Majority,* was endorsed as the national organ of the Labor Party. To secure additional finances for organization work, it was voted to appeal to the members to give the wages of one day's work to the party. To promote the educational work, it was decided to inaugurate travelling libraries and to work for the establishment of trade union colleges and universities in the various industrial centers. To secure democracy in the organization, provisions for the initiative, referendum and recall were included in the party constitution."—*American Labor Year Book,* 1919-1920, *pp.* 199-203, 437-438.—In July, 1920, the National Labor party and various other labor and radical groups held conventions in Chicago. As a result of various attempts to combine conflicting views, the Farmer-Labor party was finally formed. This party adopted a generally radical platform and nominated for president Parley P. Christensen, of Salt Lake City, Utah, and for vice president Max S. Hayes, of Cleveland, Ohio. The Farmer-Labor party's vote at the election in November, 1920, was 272,514.—See also Socialism: 1919-1920.

1920.—Mexican Labor party formed.—"A Mexican Labor party has been organized and is throwing its strength into the presidential campaign in support of Obregon [April 1920], according to information secured from Mexico by a representative of the Pan-American Federation of Labor. The Labor Party, under the name of Partido Laborista Mexicano, was formed at a national convention held in the city of Zacatecas, March 1-9, 1920. Nineteen of the twenty-seven states of Mexico were represented. The delegates were members of the Mexican Federation of Labor (Confederacion Regional Obrera Mexicana), and Luis N. Marones, former head of the labor federation, was elected general secretary of the party. The party pledged itself to the support of the labor federation and to the carrying out in the political field of the federation's program. The party is organized in national, state, electoral district and municipal units, with subcommittees for small towns. Like the labor federation the Labor party is composed of both city workers and farm laborers, and one of the most important resolution deals with the land problem. It calls for allotment of the land, namely, subdivision among the laborers of the large estates, as a basis for the welfare of the farm workers and society in general."—*Survey, May* 8, 1920, *pp.* 202-203.

1922.—Political strength and personnel of British Labor party.—The general election in Great Britain on November 15, 1922, gave the Labor party 141 seats in a total of 615 and the conspicuous position of "His Majesty's Opposition" with an experienced parliamentarian, Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, at its head. In discussing the new program of the Labor party and comparing it with the party's "inspired" manifesto of 1918, "Labour and the New Social Order," Mr. S. K. Ratcliffe of the *Manchester Guardian* writes in the *Survey* (New York) for January 1, 1923: "Four years of a peace more destructive than war have brought another atmosphere and inevitably the program with which the Labour Party went into the election had a different quality and appeal. It was a quite unrhetorical document; a statement, for the most part, of things urgently needing to be done. . . . One question of very particular interest [the demand for a graduated capital levy] has been stirred by the program. . . . That section of the Labour Party which at this early stage is attracting most attention in the new Parliament [is] the section contributed by the I. L. P. (Independent Labor Party) and the Union of Democratic Control. Besides a leader [Ramsay MacDonald], it includes: C. P. Trevelyan, Noel and Charles Roden Buxton, Arthur Ponsonby, E. D. Morel, H. B. Lees-Smith, Philip Snowden. All except Snowden, formerly belonged to the Liberal Party."—S. K. Ratcliffe, *Idealism and responsibility* (*Survey, Jan.* 1, 1923).—See also Labor organization.

Also in: R. MacDonald, *Independent British Labor party.*—P. Kellog and A. Gleason, *History of the British Labor party.*

LABOR PROBLEMS: Race. See Africa: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Labor problems; Race problems; North Carolina: 1890-1900.

LABOR REMUNERATION: Development of wages system.—Evolution in England.—"The general outline of centuries of evolution in the remuneration of labour is tolerably familiar. As Mr. W. T. Layton has reminded us in a recent summary, each man in a primitive society owning his own tools and implements would be remunerated or paid by what he could produce. Almost everything would then depend on the differences of country and natural resources. If Nature was generous, livelihood would be easy; if natural conditions were hard and trying, only considerable effort would produce a living. Thus early are the fundamental and abiding problems of wages introduced. The conditions of nations change. Greece and Rome rose in early splendour, only to fade into subjects of the benevolent or acrimonious controversy of historical research. The rigid but comprehensive structure of continental feudalism, with its retainers whose reward was food and maintenance and whose duty was military and agricultural service, gave way to the doctrines of self-sufficiency, mercantilism and the static conditions characteristic of the Middle Ages, to be replaced in turn by agricultural revolution and industrial change involving the introduction of large-scale production, the growth of the factory system, the establishment of huge overseas commerce, and great rival amalgamations of capital and labour. But underlying all this transformation there is the continuous struggle of the people, and much of that struggle is summed up in the history of wages and prices. In essence the principles at stake, and the economic theories consciously or unconsciously considered, have been constant."—W. Graham, *Wages of labour, pp.* 3-4.

"The industrial history of . . . [England] shows the development of wage labour through the manorial and the feudal system. Under the manorial system in Saxon times the lord was the absolute owner of large areas of land, and he had rights which were exacted in services, crops, or money over the rest of the land within the manor. The Conquest of England by William the Norman brought about a change in the ownership of the land. This monarch constituted himself the supreme landlord of the country, and the lords of the manor were tenants-in-chief of the Crown. At the time of the Norman Conquest slavery had almost disappeared. The Domesday Survey showed that only 9 per cent. of the population

were slaves. Under the manorial system, the two classes below the lord of the manor were the villeins, who, according to Domesday, formed 38 per cent. of the population and the cottars, who constituted, according to this record, 32 per cent. of the population. It was from the cottar class, some centuries later, that the system of wage labour arose. Both the villeins and the cottars were required to pay a rent to the lord, but it was given in the form of part-time services, and for the rest of the time both the villeins and the cottars were free to cultivate their own lands. The dependence of these two classes upon the lord of the manor was established by law rather than by economic necessity. They were bound to the land, and were compelled to render the services mentioned, but when these had been discharged, they enjoyed a large measure of freedom, and had customary rights with which no one could interfere. [See also FEUDALISM: Organization.] But even in these times there were the germs of the wages system. The cottars had but scanty patches of land, and had spare time, which they employed in working for wages for either the villeins or the lord of the manor. In the course of time the position of the villeins gradually improved, and by the middle of the fourteenth century many of them had become the yeoman class, who later played such an important part in our national history, and to whom we owe so much for their struggles for freedom. The economic and social system of the Middle Ages was based upon two great institutions, the Catholic Church and Feudalism. For some centuries the feudal system had been gradually disintegrating, and its complete collapse took place in the fifteenth century, simultaneously with the overthrow of the Catholic Church [in England] and the despoiling of her lands. Though up to this time England had remained mainly an agricultural country, industries and manufactures had been slowly developing, and the industries and trades which existed apart from agriculture were organized in trade guilds. These too were destroyed by Henry VIII., and their lands and other properties confiscated. The breakdown of the feudal system, the downfall of the Catholic Church, and the destruction of the trade guilds created a large class of labourers who had been divorced from the soil and from the ownership of trade implements, and who were unable to obtain a living unless some landlord or master was willing to employ them. The Golden Age of the English labourer which had followed the Black Plague, had continued up to this time. The breakdown of the feudal system altered the conditions of land tenure and land cultivation. The obligations of the feudal lords to provide the fighting forces of the Crown were abolished, and the practice of receiving payment for the use of land in services disappeared. The old feudal retainers and the tenants of the Church lands were driven from the soil; and the modern system of landlordism, exacting an annual rent for the use of the land, was instituted. The vast increase in the number of unemployed had a disastrous effect on wages, and a rapid deterioration in the condition of both the labourer and the artisan took place. The discovery of America and the opening up of the sea route to India offered opportunities for the development of a foreign trade. Aided by the immigration of Flemings, who introduced manufactures into this country, the industrial system of Capital and Labour began to grow up, and it continued to develop slowly, until, in the later part of the eighteenth century, the application of steam as a motive power and the wonderful mechanical inventions completed the divorcement between labour and the instruments of production which the downfall of the feudal system and the Catholic Church had begun. England, for many reasons which need not be stated in detail, was in an exceptional position for taking advantage of the opportunities for trade and commerce which the Industrial Revolution provided. The country had abundant resources of coal and iron, a large population of poor and helpless people unable to resist exploitation, a merchant fleet and a considerable Colonial Empire. The cottage industries which still survived struggled hopelessly for a time against the competition of the factory system; the medieval legislation which was still nominally in existence for the protection of the wage workers, was repealed; combination laws, aimed to prevent association among the workers to protect their standard of living and against political association, were enacted and rigorously enforced. Competition now became deified as the guiding principle of trade. The rapidly-growing manufacturing industries had a practical monopoly of the home and foreign markets. There was no factory legislation, no regulation of the hours of labour, no restriction of the freedom of an employer 'to do what he liked with his own.' The machinery which the inventive genius of man had devised became an instrument for the enrichment of the few and the degradation of the great mass of the people. The domination of capitalism became complete; the division of society into two distinct and antagonistic classes was now established. Centuries of the slow working of evolution had established the Wages System."—P. Snowden, *Wages and prices, pp.* 1-6.

Successive wage theories.—Budgetary studies on "cost of living."—"Economics over many years has sought to reconcile the fluctuations which admittedly occur in wages and in doing so has advanced successive theories to account for the facts. These theories in themselves bear evidence to an increasing conception of the real problem of wages. Nearly all of the theories have been built upon fallacies arising out of the particular conditions existing in society at the time at which they were framed. Some of these conditions have not been permanent features, and most of the theories ignored several factors and exaggerated the influence of some particular one of the others. The different theories held about wages since the eighteenth century are not necessarily inconsistent. Each may contain and express one important influence on wages while neglecting others. In its practical aspect the apparently simple question—which puzzles the wage-earner and often the employer as well—What Fixes Wages?—involves answers to three questions, viz., (1) What fixes the share that goes to labor of the joint product of labor, land, and capital? (2) How is it that wages in a country like the United States are always higher than in England and still higher than wages on the continent of Europe? (3) Why do wages vary in different occupations and what fixes the relation between wages in different occupations? The Bare Subsistence theory of wages [advanced by the Physiocratic school of economists and later by Adam Smith, Malthus and Ricardo in] the eighteenth century answered only the first question in an age of poor laborers and manual labor little aided by capital, and it was an answer of despair. Competition for employment —even though labor was indispensable—prevented in that day any rise in the status of the laborer. But since then unlimited competition

amongst laborers has ceased and they have acted in such a way that a Standard of Living Theory has replaced the Subsistence Theory. A man with a trade thinks he should have 50% more wages than his helper. This is the 'grade' standard. The relation of the spinners' and weavers' wages in any district is well known. They move together. This is the 'trade' standard. A Fall River textile operative expects and gets a higher wage than one in South Carolina. This is the 'district' standard. The New York City carpenter is much better paid than the country one. And even after all allowance has been made for differences in cost of living, it will be found that countries have different wage standards. Nevertheless, though the measure varies, the conception of a standard of living is now nearly universal. Wages will not usually fall below the standard and they will not rise much above it, partly because employers will not bid indefinitely for labor and partly because the ordinary workman, once he has got his standard of life secured, will not as a rule press for more, though he will vigorously oppose any real or imagined lowering of it. A fallen dollar value of wages at a time of general lowering of price levels is not necessarily a fall in real wages or of the standard of life. The theory that wages are influenced by the worker's standard of life is not inconsistent with the theory that wages correspond with the worker's efficiency for, though the worker fixes the standard, the employer sees to it that his efficiency corresponds. The worker cannot raise his wages, however, by the simple process of spending more; the conception of the standard of life influences wages only by producing concerted action among workers who supply some particular kind of labor, and this sentiment is usually more influential in actuating resistance to reduction than in hastening an advance. The earlier wage theories ignored the social psychology of the worker completely. They assumed that he always acts from economic motives and always demands the absolute maximum. As a matter of fact, he does not, though in some instances the trade union leaders give this impression. . . . The Wage Fund theory [in favor with English economists for fifty years previous to 1870 and abandoned by John Stuart Mill in 1869] explained that the differences in various countries in the share of labor was due to differences in the flow of wealth to be distributed in these countries. But the accumulation of capital is not the only important method of increasing the Wage Fund. It is now known that a rise in wages need not check the accumulation of capital and that the country or district that has workers of high standard of life, well trained industrially, and well managed in thoroughly modern plants may increase wages without touching on the profits of capital. Summing up, then, a worker's wages or the share of land or capital is not determined with reference to one single principle. All that any theory of wages can do is to list correctly the various things that influence wages and indicate their relation and importance. Past theories and present experience suggest that in the long run three influences chiefly determine wages, viz., (1) The volume of the flow of wealth in the country—we cannot divide more than the National Income—nor can restricted diligence on the part of the laborer or reduced enterprise on the part of capital or management do other than cut down the amount of the national income. (2) The relative abundance or scarcity of all the different agents of production—Land, Materials, Labor, Capital, Management. (3) The relative abundance or scarcity of all the different kinds of labor. The chief immediate influence on wages is the worker's conception of the standard of life to which he is entitled and his agreement with his fellow workers to yield up his labor only for a wage maintaining that standard."—J. Calder, *Capital's duty to the wage-earner, pp.* 195-198.

"Prior to the war the actual cost of living appears to have had little effect on wage determinations. Budget studies had been made but they were investigations of the actual expenditures of families and were mainly of sociological interest, as showing how workingmen's incomes were expended and what percentages were devoted to food, shelter, clothing, fuel and light, and sundries, without entering into the questions of the adequacy of the amounts so expended or of the household economy of the families. The outstanding example of this kind of study is the investigation of family budgets made in 1900-1902 by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, covering 25,440 families in industrial centers in thirty-three states. The next step in the development of budgetary studies was marked by more thorough analyses of the expenditures and standards of living of workingmen's families either among specified groups or in a given locality. These studies were more detailed and made a significant contribution in the form of data on the actual cost of living and also on what it would cost to maintain a fair minimum standard of living. Typical of this kind of study is the so-called Chapin budget made in New York City in 1907 for the New York State Conference of Charities and Corrections in order that the local social workers might have a more uniform understanding of the items necessary for a 'fair' standard of living and how much it would, under existing conditions, cost to maintain this standard. The cost of living argument was pushed very hard during the war. Rapid increases in living costs made this tendency inevitable. Obviously the work of the wage earners was a first essential and wages had to be maintained at a level which would preserve efficiency and insure a salutary attitude of mind. Under the influence of the war emergency some industrial concerns underwent a permanent change in the direction of a more humanitarian policy. Emphasis was laid on the relation of living cost to wage rates by labor organizations because of the tactical value of this argument in securing advances when living costs were rapidly mounting. Government wage adjustment agencies were very generally guided by this consideration. The Shipbuilding Labor Adjustment Board on three occasions raised wages by the amount of increased living costs. The National War Labor Board almost invariably considered evidence bearing on the cost of living in determining the wage cases that came before it, and in many cases specific provision was made 'for the future readjustment of wages on the basis of changes in the cost of living.' This tendency has not been manifest in America alone. The National Industrial Conference Board reports that in Great Britain 'wages in a number of industries are regularly adjusted in accord with the official cost of living figure published by the Ministry of Labour.' The cost of living is a recognized element in the determination of wage disputes in France and Germany."—*Wage question, issued by the Research Department, Commission on the Church and Social Service, Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, Feb.,* 1922, *Bulletin no.* 1, *pp.* 10-11.

Methods of remuneration.—Six "different systems of wage payments will be briefly considered:—time wage, task wage, piece wage, progressive wage, the sliding scale, profit sharing. . . . One difficulty common to all wage systems is the determination of the amount of output which ought to be accredited to organization and managerial ability. Economic interests and experience lead the average employee to minimize the importance of business organization, and the employer to over-emphasize the same. I. *Time Wage.* Two basic systems of wage payment are the time and the piece wage. Other systems are modifications or combinations of these two. In the time wage system the base is a unit of time, one hour, one day, or one week; in the piece wage system the basis is a unit of output of the workers. Nevertheless, under the time wage system the employer is not indifferent to the output of the worker; nor under the piece wage system to the speed of the worker. If the worker who is paid by the hour or the day falls below a certain average minimum output in a given time, he will be discharged or his wages cut. On the other hand, the employer cannot afford to utilize the services of a slow piece-worker because of the inefficient use of tools, machinery, and plant furnished by the employer. Under the time system it is extremely difficult for the employer to quicken the pace of the employee, or to ascertain whether his men are working at a reasonable rate of speed. The fast and skilled men naturally adjust their pace to that of the slower and less skilful. Within certain elastic limits the time wage system tends to level the rate of pay for men in a given trade or subdivision of a trade. Wages are not paid in proportion to different individual capacities. As a consequence, uniformity of output is approximated. The chief incentives to efficient work are the fear of discharge if the output falls below a rather indefinite minimum, a feeling of duty or of obligation to do a fair day's work for a day's wage, emulation of other workers or rivalry between workers, and the hope of advancement or of an increase in wages. The first incentive is strongest in periods of depression and of slack work. Skilful managers often stimulate emulation or rivalry among employees. The United States Steel Corporation, for example, not only stimulates rivalry between individual workers, but also between different departments in the same plant and between various plants. . . . II. *Task Work.* Under this system of wage payment, the workman is obliged to finish a standard amount of output within a given period of time or suffer a reduction in his wages for that period. But if he produces an output in excess of his required daily task, he is not entitled to additional wages. The task system among the Jewish clothing workers has led to over-exertion and overdriving in an extreme form. III. *Piece Wage.* As wages under this system of wage payment are proportional to individual output, the desire to increase income is the direct and potent incentive to more rapid work. Theoretically, wages paid by the piece vary in accordance with individual capacity. Since the piece rate is usually fixed in an arbitrary and purely empirical manner, the employer is often sorely tempted to cut the rate; and he frequently yields to the temptation. 'The ordinary piece-work involves a permanent antagonism between employers and men, and a certainty of punishment for each workman who reaches a high rate of efficiency.' Consequently, in actual practice the fear, born of repeated experiences, that the rate per piece will be cut if wages per hour rise much above the average time wage, leads toward uniformity of output on the part of different workers. The rapid worker is also discouraged in a variety of ways by his shopmates from exerting himself to a maximum. 'Soldiering' or 'killing time' is, however, reduced to a minimum. The piece wage system is especially desirable in cases where supervision is difficult. The piece wage system sacrifices quality for quantity. Oversight and prodding by the foreman are in a large measure eliminated; but the work of the inspector of the finished article is of great importance. Piece work often drives the worker to over-exertion; and physical and nervous overstrain is a consequence of its introduction. The individual is induced to sacrifice his future wage and efficiency for an advance today. In certain cases, however, a piece wage system may reduce rather than increase over-exertion. For example, in the cotton spinning industry under the time wage system the speed of the machine may be almost imperceptibly increased. The worker is obliged to gauge his rapidity of movement by the speed of the machinery. Under such circumstances, certain objections to the piece wage system vanish; and the employer is given a weaker incentive to speed up the spinning machinery until the health of the operative is endangered. IV. *The Progressive Wage or the Premium Plan.* . . . Progressive wage systems are a part of the fruits of business engineering. The normal time required to perform a given operation is carefully ascertained by a series of tests or experiments. In this manner the empirical rate of the ordinary piece-work system is replaced by a systematically ascertained 'time base.' A progressive wage system is a combination of the piece and time wage system. Since the time base is carefully ascertained, the temptation to cut the rate is in a large measure removed, and one serious defect of piece work obviated. The prodding of the foreman, which is a disagreeable feature of the time wage, is replaced by the accurate statistical record of the time card. The advocates of the premium plan assert that it saves time and increases output. The danger of stimulating the worker to over-exertion is not eliminated; but it is somewhat less than in the case of piece-work. The premium plan can be most satisfactorily applied in shops where the same articles are produced day after day. New operations cannot be brought within the scope of the premium plan until they have been subjected to careful experimentation in order to ascertain the proper time base. The progressive wage system is sometimes called gain sharing; it is a direct form of profit sharing. The worker's share in the profits due to his extra exertion is paid to him on each pay day. Many employers doubtless favor a premium system, not merely because it increases output and lowers costs, but because they believe that such a plan of wage payments will tend to prevent the growth of union sentiment in their factories. The capable and strong workers will be enabled to earn high wages and will not be tempted to become leaders in a labor organization. In New Zealand, it has been proposed that the 'living wage' standard ought to be supplemented by a premium wage for efficiency. This proposal was not well received by labor leaders. Opposition to anything which savors of a task system or which stimulates pace-making, is to be expected from organized labor. (*a*) *Halsey's Plan.* Perhaps the most famous premium plan is one first presented by Mr. F. A. Halsey. The two fundamental considerations in this plan are the time base and

the amount of the premium to be paid. After careful experimentation the normal time required to do a given job is ascertained. If the worker finishes a given job in less time, a premium is paid for the reduction in time. The determination of the amount of the premium is really a matter of psychology. The aim is to produce the maximum incentive at the minimum cost. If a man does not produce the normal or standard amount of work in a day, he still receives the usual day's wage. . . . (*b*) *The Differential Piece-Rate Plan.* Under this system if a worker does not attain a certain minimum rate of work, his wage rate per piece is cut. A further reduction is to be made if some of the work is imperfect. If the maximum rate is ten pieces per day, the worker is to receive, for example, thirty cents per piece; but if he only turns out nine pieces, he will receive only twenty-eight cents per piece. This plan seems to be an undesirable form of a task system. (*c*) *An English system*—Rowan's plan—is worthy of brief notice. The pay of the worker increases as the time required to complete a given job is decreased; but the rate can never be increased beyond twice the original rate per hour. . . . The cost per piece is reduced while the wage per hour is increased. . . . V. *Sliding Scale.* The sliding scale has been used chiefly in the mining industry. The wages are automatically lowered or raised as the price of the product fluctuates. The wage earner under this system is dependent upon the vicissitudes of the market. Unless a minimum rate is established, a decided slump in prices might send wages below a 'living wage.' . . . VI. *Profit Sharing.* Profit sharing is a system supplementing the ordinary methods of wage payment. It has been tried as a remedy for certain evils connected with the present relations between labor and capital. Under profit sharing the worker is to be paid time or piece wages. In addition he is promised some more or less definite share in the profits of the business, if profits are earned. This method is quite dissimilar from gain sharing as carried out under some form of the premium plan. In the case of gain sharing, the bonus or premium received is due solely to the extra exertion and dexterity of the individual workman. Under profit sharing, the dividend paid to the workman depends upon a multitude of circumstances—such as the business ability of managers, conditions of the market, the efficiency of the entire working staff, and the carefulness and efficiency of each individual worker. The effort and efficiency of a particular worker are only one factor in producing profits; and may be more than counterbalanced by the inefficient functioning of other parts of the industrial and business mechanism. The advocates of profit sharing assert that it will remove many difficulties now imbedded in our industrial system. But the general adoption of profit sharing would cause little change in that system. The wage system would remain; and the employer would still be in control of industry. Profit sharing is paternalistic or of the nature of a benevolent autocracy; it is far removed from industrial democracy. . . . The system originated in France. A house painter and decorator named Leclaire first tried it in 1843. 'The Maison Leclaire' became an important and successful business. Various experiments have been tried in England and in the United States. . . . Product sharing may be considered to be the prototype of profit sharing. 'Profit sharing, whether in agriculture, trade, or manufacture is the adaptation of this ancient and approved product sharing to the conditions of modern industrial life.' In agriculture, the *metayer* system or share farming is a form of product sharing. The owner of the farm furnishes the land, the buildings, and, oftentimes, a portion of the implements, live-stock, and seeds. The product is shared between the owner and the tenant in accordance with a contract made at the opening of the season. In the fishing industry, the proceeds of a given catch or a given voyage are often divided among the crew. Wages are not paid; the recompense depends entirely upon the size of the catch. Product sharing does not provide for wages. Profit sharing provides for an allowance in addition to the ordinary wage. There are three important systems of profit sharing:—cash payments made at the end of a given period; deferred participation; and payment in the stock of the company. In the United States and in England the first and third methods are chiefly used. The second is often used in France. The S. M. Jones Company of Toledo for some years paid a cash bonus of five per cent. of the annual wages of each employee. Later, instead of paying cash, the amount of the bonus was allowed as a partial payment toward a share of the stock of the company. A wholesale grocer in Toledo for some years paid an equal cash bonus to each of his employees,—the unskilled shared equally with the skilled. The Cabot Manufacturing Company presents an example of the trial of a plan of profit sharing combining cash and deferred payments. This company manufactures certain chemical products. Before an operative can participate in the benefits of the profit sharing system, he must sign a paper binding him to give a notice of sixty days before leaving the employ of the company and to do 'all in his power to save expenses.' A certain portion of the net profits—known only to the proprietor—is divided among the workers according to the wages received by each profit sharer. One-half of the profits is paid in cash and one-half is placed in a savings bank by the proprietor as trustee. If an employee dies, his heirs are entitled to the accumulated fund. If an employee leaves the factory, 'and gives the required sixty days' notice, the fund remains at interest two years in the bank, and is then handed over to the operative, provided he has not sold the secrets or formulas he may have learned in the course of his employment in these works.' If an employee does not keep his agreement, the accumulated fund to his credit is divided among the remaining profit sharers. This is a very significant provision. In case of a strike, the strikers would lose their accumulated dividends and those who remained at work would have this amount added to their dividends. If employees buy shares in the company which employs them, they do not become profit sharers. The dividends received are paid to them as stockholders instead of employees of the company. When shares of stock are given as a bonus or a share of stock is offered to the employee at a reduced price, the employees may be considered to be profit sharers. The United States Steel Corporation has offered to sell a limited amount of its stock to its employees at prices somewhat below market prices. This offer was not enthusiastically received. The individual workman cannot see that it is especially advantageous to own one or two shares in that great corporation. The Proctor and Gamble Company, manufacturers of soap, require an employee to become a stockholder before he can participate in the benefits of their profit sharing scheme. The N. O. Nelson Company pays

a stock bonus."—F. T. Carlton, *History and problems of organized labor, pp.* 194-204.

ALSO IN: A. Williams, *Co-partnership and profit-sharing.*

B.C. 4th century.—Wages in ancient Athens. See GREECE: B.C. 4th century: Economic conditions.

1562.—Wage-fixing clause in the Statute of Apprentices. See APPRENTICES, STATUTE OF.

1562.—Statute of Laborers passed by Queen Elizabeth. See ENGLAND: 1558-1603: Age of Elizabeth: Industrial regulations.

1740-1837.—Strikes for increased pay in the United States. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1740-1837.

19th century.—Economic position of women in United States.—Low salaries. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1800-1875.

1886-1909.—Causes of low wages in Belgium. See BELGIUM: 1886-1909: Labor conditions.

1894-1922.—Minimum wage movement in the British empire and Europe.—The principle of a minimum wage was first considered in legislation for trade disputes enacted in New Zealand in 1894. Australia followed in 1896 by enacting actual minimum wage legislation for "sweated" home workers in Victoria and later in other Australian states. (See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Australia: 1891-1912.) "In 1909 Great Britain passed a minimum wage law known as the 'trade boards act' modelled on the Victorian statute, and applying to occupations paying 'exceptionally low' wages under which minimum wages had been fixed for about 400,000 wage earners in eight different lines of work up to the outbreak of the World War. [See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1909-1918.] The law was amended in 1918 so that it could be extended more quickly and to a large number of occupations. At the beginning of 1922 about three score of trades had been included. In 1917 a bill guaranteeing the price of wheat to British farmers included provisions for a minimum wage for farm laborers." —J. B. Andrews, *Labor problems and labor legislation, pp.* 37-38.—Other acts extending similar legislation to industries not covered in the Trade Boards Acts, were the Coal Miners (Minimum Wage) Act of 1912, the Munition of War Acts, 1915-1917, Wages Extension Act, 1919, and Industrial Courts Act of 1920. "Although after a whole decade of experience the Trade Boards Act was renewed and greatly extended by a statute of 1919, which has passed almost without dissent, many of the employers in 1921-1922 attacked the whole system so vigorously that the Government was induced to appoint a committee of enquiry. This committee recommended in 1922 an amendment to the law in the direction of curtailing the scope and range of the trade boards. The government, acting in advance of legislation on the recommendations of this report, stopped the establishment of additional boards, and curtailed the official inspection by means of which the determinations of the boards are enforced, thus limiting the scope and effectiveness of the whole system. A bill to give statutory sanction to this administrative policy has been for some time in preparation, but it has not yet been submitted to parliamentary criticism."—S. Webb, *British labour movement and the depression* (*International Labour Review, Feb.-Mar.,* 1923, *p.* 225).—See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Great Britain: 1889-1920.—Canada began to pass minimum wage laws with Alberta's Factories Act of 1917 and renewed its interest in the subject through laws passed by Manitoba and British Columbia in 1918, Quebec and Saskatchewan in 1919 and Nova Scotia and Ontario in 1920. Minimum wage laws applying chiefly to women engaged in home work in the clothing industry were established in France in 1915 and in Norway in 1918. An act of 1919 in Switzerland for the establishment of federal wage boards was rejected in referendum. Sweden is considering (1920) such a law for workers in the sweated trades. Czechoslovakia passed a law providing for minimum wage for home workers in 1919. South Africa introduced a bill recently calling for the establishment of local joint boards to fix minimum wages in certain trades.

"Certain steps . . . [were] taken [in France] to give minimum wages to women employed on war work. Thus, a minimum piecework list for work on soldiers' clothing was set up early in the war. Minimum wages were named in regulations concerning the employment of women in base camps. The permanent commissions of arbitration and conciliation set up in January, 1917, to deal with disputes among munition workers were required to establish scales of minimum time and piece wages. These are described as 'basic wages below which one could not go, since they represented the sum considered indispensable for the existence of the worker.' In these cases the minimum wages fixed were 65 to 75 centimes (12½ to 15 cents) per hour, according to the nature of the work. There is a movement towards the establishment of minimum wages for the women in that vocation. In that year, after the strikes of the months of May and June, certain collective agreements contained minimum scales. In the demands of unions associated with the 8-hour day there is frequent mention of minimum wages. This was true in the case of the miners and metal workers, two of the strongest trade unions in France. . . . In Italy the demand for a minimum wage has risen more recently. It is now associated with the demand for an 8-hour day and is stronger in the metal industries than in those which in France and England have been associated with 'sweating.' Thus, in the textile industry in Italy, no pressing demand for a minimum wage has been made. The workers in this industry are mostly young peasant girls who enter at an early age and do not remain very long as they generally marry. On the other hand, practically all the metal industries in Italy have agreed to the principle of the minimum wage, though at the time of the visit of the Commission no endeavor had been made to establish an agreed amount. The demand for such a wage is met also in the printing trade." —National Industrial Conference Board, *Problems of labor and industry in Great Britain, France and Italy, pp.* 177-178.

1896-1908.—Introduction of wages board system in Victoria and South Australia. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Australia: 1891-1912.

1910-1920.—American movement for minimum wage legislation.—"In America a wide-spread demand for minimum wage legislation dates back to about 1910. Two factors contributed to the rise of popular sentiment in favor of the legislation at this time. One was the increased knowledge of conditions among sweated workers, resulting from such investigations as that of the Federal Bureau of Labor on *Conditions of Woman and Child Wage-Earners in the United States.* The other was the successful operation of the British trade boards act under conditions not unlike those in our own country. In public em-

LABOR REMUNERATION

ployment, to be sure, wages in this country had for several years been regulated both by state laws and by city ordinances. Most commonly these regulations fix the wage rate or require that 'prevail-rates' be paid, which are usually interpreted as union rates when a union exists in the locality. Several statutes and ordinances, however, establish a true minimum wage. For example, California provides that the minimum wage for all public employees except those in public institutions shall be at least $2 a day. Massachusetts stipulates that 'women cleaners and scrubwomen' employed by Suffolk County must be paid not less than $8 a week. In 1913 Spokane, Wash., established by popular vote a minimum wage of $2.75 a day on public work, and on January 2, 1914, the state supreme court sustained this ordinance. But in this country until the last few years wage rates in private employment were seldom considered a subject of possible legal regulation. There were, indeed, sporadic attempts to fix minimum wage standards by law. Typical of these is a bill introduced in the Nebraska legislature in February, 1909. This provided that 'for the purpose of protecting the American standard of living, and to insure to all who labor that they shall have an opportunity to improve themselves, to educate their children, and to lay by a sum for old age,' the minimum wage 'for all adult labor, male or female,' should be 20 cents by the hour or $9 by the week, with 25 cents an hour for overtime. Such proposals, however, received but little serious consideration. The first American state to pass a minimum wage law was Massachusetts. An investigating commission was appointed there in 1911, and its report resulted in legislation in 1912. [See also MASSACHUSETTS: 1911-1912.] In 1913, as a result of further investigations, eight states followed the example of Massachusetts, and in 1915 two more were added, in spite of the withholding of the decision of the United States Supreme Court on the Oregon law. Arizona enacted legislation in 1917 and Colorado revised its law, while following the Supreme Court's long-awaited [favorable] decision, Congress legislated for the District of Columbia in 1918, and North Dakota and Texas passed laws in 1919. The Nebraska law, under which no action had ever been taken on the ground that no complaints had been received, was repealed, apparently by accident, in codifying the laws in 1919. Constitutional amendments specifically allowing minimum wage legislation were passed by California in 1914 for women and minors, and, contrary to American precedent, by Ohio in 1912 for all classes of workers. Ohio, however, had in 1919 taken no step toward legislation except to authorize the state industrial commission to investigate working conditions among women and minors alone. In addition to the measure enacted by Congress establishing a minimum wage law for women and children in the District of Columbia, bills have been introduced in that body applying to employees of the federal government, and to all workers engaged in interstate commerce, but these proposals have not as yet been given much attention. Thus far in the United States minimum wage legislation has been even more restricted in scope than at its first enactment in Great Britain or Australia. It has been passed to remedy sweating, not among all workers as in the other countries, but only among women and children. In this respect minimum wage laws resemble much other American labor legislation which also when first passed, in part for constitutional reasons, in part perhaps because of the more evident inability of this class of workers to protect themselves, applied only to women and minors. Then, too, many American representatives of labor oppose minimum wage laws for men, feeling that men workers can obtain better wages by organization without the aid of legislation. In addition wage investigations in this country have far more often dealt with women than with men, so that at present in America there exists a much greater body of evidence to show inadequate wages among women than among men workers. That a change is taking place in the public attitude toward wage legislation for men, however, is evidenced by the serious consideration given to a bill introduced in the Wisconsin legislature in 1919, which would have extended the provisions of the state minimum wage law to them. The bill passed the state senate, but failed in the lower house. Minimum wage legislation in the United States, then, is expressly permitted by two state constitutions and existed at the beginning of 1920 in thirteen states and in the District of Columbia [the last declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court, April 10, 1923]. It is regarded almost entirely as a remedy for exceptional conditions, providing only a bare subsistence wage for those considered the most helpless class of sweated workers—namely, women and children. The more rigid limitations of written constitutions, the labor union opposition, and the difficulties of administration, are factors which may work against such an extension of these laws in the United States as has taken place in some countries."—J. R. Commons and J. B. Andrews, *Principles of labor legislation, pp.* 195-198.—"The statutes are of two kinds. Known as 'flat rate' and 'wage board' laws. In the former, found in only a few states, the minimum rate which may be paid the woman worker is specified in the law. Thus Arizona sets $10 a week as the minimum for the principal industrial occupations. The recent rapid rise in the cost of living brought out the weakness of the flat rate law, for it could not be quickly adjusted to price changes. Nor does it take account of differences due to locality or to the varying requirements of different occupations. Because of its greater flexibility, the wage board type of law formed in all the other states and abroad appears to be preferable, although it sets up a much more elaborate machinery. A bureau or commission is created, to oversee the administration of the law. The commission then forms wage boards in one occupation after another, each board representing the three parties at interest, employers, and employees, and the public. Minimum wages are fixed by these boards for the various occupations, after investigation and conference. Most laws require that such a minimum rate shall be 'sufficient to cover the necessary cost of proper living,' that is to say a 'living wage.' Two methods are used to secure the payment of the wage fixed. The employer's wage records are inspected. Women who are paid less than the minimum may sue for the unpaid wage balance. Though in other forms of labor legislation it has proved useless to expect workers themselves to risk their jobs by complaining, in minimum wage cases, where fairly large wage balances quickly accumulate, this method has proved successful. Employers who do not pay the minimum may be fined, except in Massachusetts, where their names may merely be published."—J. B. Andrews, *Labor problems and labor legislation, pp.* 41-42.

1913.—Effect of low wages on industrial unrest in the United States. See INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION.

1915.—Labor remuneration under Industrial representation, or Rockefeller plan, Colorado. See COLORADO: 1915.

1917.—Creation of Arsenals and Navy Yards Wage Commission. See ARSENALS AND NAVY YARDS WAGE COMMISSION.

1917-1918.—Minimum wage a factor in munitions strike at Bridgeport. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1917-1918: Munitions strike.

1918.—Wages Act, England. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Great Britain: 1889-1920.

1918-1919.—Longshoremen's strike for higher wages, New York. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1918-1919: New York harbor strikes.

1918-1919.—New England telephone operators' strike.—Wage bargaining. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1918-1919: New England telephone operators' strike.

1919.—Strike of bituminous coal workers for increased pay. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1919: Bituminous coal strike.

1919.—Boston police strike for higher wages. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Police defined; BOSTON: 1919.

1920.—Labor remuneration in Finland. See FINLAND: Territory.

1920.—Remuneration under the Soviet constitution of Russia. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1920.

1920.—Paid prison labor in New Jersey. See PRISON REFORM: Paid prison labor in New Jersey.

1920-1922.—Divergency of wage movement.—"From 1914 until 1920, in all countries, prices and wages rose steadily, but subsequently, the uniformity of the movement gave place to a remarkable divergency. Thus during 1921 and the first half of 1922 the countries of the world may be divided into two groups, namely those in which prices having reached their maximum in 1920, experienced a continuous fall, and those where prices continued to rise. A few countries, however, occupied an intermediate position, prices fluctuating irregularly without any clearly marked general tendency. Those countries in which prices fell, e.g., many of the former allied and neutral countries, experienced a general wave of business depression, orders fell off enormously, producers became extremely cautious, industry stagnated, unemployment spread rapidly and after an interval wages followed the movement of prices. By the middle of 1922, however, in a number of these countries a tendency to stabilisation of prices began to appear, and it may be expected that, if this tendency becomes established, the reduction in wages, which still continues, may be arrested after an interval, and more settled conditions prevail. On the other hand, in a number of countries, generally in Central Europe, for example Germany and Austria, the rise in money wages which operated from 1914 to 1920 has continued to September 1922, and has even increased in its rapidity since the middle of 1921. The fundamental cause of [this difference] is financial, the depreciating currencies of Central European countries having resulted in a continuation of the ascending spiral of prices and wages which was common in greater or lesser degrees to all countries until 1920. . . . The combined result of the tendencies which have operated during rising and falling prices in those countries where such movements have taken place appears to be that in most industries unskilled workers are now receiving a real wage somewhat higher than before the war. Skilled workers in a number of countries are in approximately the same position as in 1914, while professional workers and officials are distinctly worse off. In the countries where prices have continued to rise, the level of real wages in relation to that before the war is generally lower for almost all categories of wage earners and salaried staffs than in countries where a fall has been experienced during recent months. In such countries as Germany and Austria practically the only workers whose real wages in September 1922 were equal to or above those in 1914 were the unskilled workers and those in industries where the demand for labour was exceptionally high, while the official classes had suffered severe reductions."—*Wage movements in recent years* (*International Labour Review, Jan.*, 1923, *pp.* 86-87).

1921-1922.—Strike of coal miners in Great Britain for better wages. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1921-1922: Great Britain.

1921-1922.—Meat packers' strike for higher wages. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1921-1922: Meat packers' strike.

1922.—Massachusetts minimum wage law. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1922.

1922.—Railway shopmen's strike for better wages and against wage cut. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922: Strike of railway shopmen.

1922.—Railroad strike for better wages, Germany. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922: Germany.

ALSO IN: J. E. T. Rogers, *Six centuries of work and wages.*—H. Feis, *Settlement of wage disputes.*—A. Marshall, *Principles of economics.*—G. D. H. Cole, *Payment of wages.*—W. R. Schneider, *Law of workmen's compensation.*

LABOR SECRETARIAT. See LEGAL AID: United States: Important factors in administration of legal aid.

LABOR SETTLEMENTS: In Australia and South Australia. See AUSTRALIA: 1821-1845; SOUTH AUSTRALIA: 1893-1895.

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

Early movements akin to strikes.—First English strike, 1721.—"That there is a considerable fitness in calling a strike of wage-earners a labor war is shown by the very general use of the phrase. War has been defined by military writers as the application of force to make a peace that shall be consistent with desired conditions of existence. This definition would apply to a labor war, although in a labor war the legal weapon of coercion assumes a different form. 'A collision of interests leads to war,' writes the eminent German strategist, General Von der Goltz, in his military treatise; and thus he suggests to us the more concise definition—A war is a collision of interests. And this is still very close to the old definition by Grotius, the founder of international law, who defined war as 'the state of those contending by force, as such.' Strikes are that, and nothing else in the world. . . . Go back into antiquity far enough—through the serfdom of the Middle Ages to the slavery that was the industrial corner stone of the empire of Rome—and the utter helplessness of the working population under the heel of their masters is one of the commonplaces of history. There were, indeed, labor wars even in those shadowy times, for

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

occasionally slaves arose in rebellion and sought redress for their bitter grievances with fire and sword. The masters imperiously denied their claims and, with all the power and authority of the state behind them, they crushed 'servile insurrection.' In those European countries which had felt the civilizing influence of Rome, chattel slavery and the serfdom of feudalism were succeeded by wage slavery, and we may properly characterize it in this harsh manner because of the laws which, in the period between the Crusades and the development of the steam engine, continued to shackle labor's freedom of action. The labor laws of England, from 1350 to 1875, were an extraordinary composite of tyranny and spoliation in the interest of the ruling classes. A statute of Edward VI provided that laborers could work only at a 'certain price or rate,' under penalty in certain cases 'of the pillory or loss of an ear.' Another statute provided that if a man refused to work at wages fixed by law he was to be branded with the letter 'V' (meaning vagabond) and reduced to slavery for two years. If he attempted to escape, he was branded with an 'S,' and made a slave for life. If he then had spirit enough to protest, he was to be hanged. It was not until 1795 that an English workman could legally seek work outside of his own parish. Down to 1779, miners in Scotland were obliged to work in the pit as long as their employers chose to keep them there, and they were literally sold as part of the plant. Conditions like these, of course, were nothing short of a very real form of wage slavery, and back of it all was the old common law conception of conspiracy. A strike in 'the good old times' was a downright criminal conspiracy. The first strike case on record in English jurisprudence, decided in 1721, was notable for the establishment of the legal principle that 'a conspiracy of any kind is illegal, although the matter about which they conspired might have been lawful for them to do, if they had not conspired to do it.' It was declared, in short, not illegal for laborers to quit work in order to better their condition, yet a conspiracy to do so was criminal; and laborers could not possibly plan to quit in concert without entering a conspiracy. The same conception was held by American courts early in the last century. Some Philadelphia shoemakers, in 1806, were convicted of a criminal conspiracy because they combined to compel some other shoemakers to quit work in order to secure higher wages. So long as a mere agreement among workmen to stop their labor simultaneously in order to secure an increase in wages was an indictable conspiracy, labor was necessarily in a helpless condition. . . . The emancipation of labor from this kind of serfdom was inevitable in England and America, and how the legal changes in labor's status came about it is not necessary to show in detail. Through court decisions and statutes in this country, and finally by legislation in England, workmen were conceded the right to strike."—W. L. Cook, *Wars and labor wars* (*International Journal of Ethics, Apr.*, 1908).

1740-1837.—Early American strikes.—"The earliest strike in America of which we have any knowledge occurred in 1740 or 1741. The journeyman bakers of New York City struck for an increase of wages. The bakers were tried for conspiracy and convicted, but no record appears to prove that sentence was passed upon them. The shoemakers of Philadelphia conducted strikes in 1796, 1798, and 1799. In 1803 a strike of sailors occurred in New York City. The sailors demanded an increase of wages from $10 to $14 per month. In 1809 the cordwainers of New York City went on a strike. The term 'scab' was used at this time. During the period of rising prices immediately preceding the panic of 1837 many strikes occurred. The oft-quoted statement of a New York City newspaper in 1835 was that 'strikes are all the fashion.' A unique strike occurred during this period among the women shoebinders of Lynn. These women were home workers. They called a meeting and resolved that no more work should be done until an increase in wages was granted. After a struggle of about four weeks the strike was lost. These early strikes were not of far-reaching importance. Labor organizations were ephemeral; and the relations between employer and employee were in a large measure personal and bargaining was individual."—F. T. Carlton, *History and problems of organized labor, pp.* 157-158.

1809-1850.—Early American boycotts.—"The earliest instances of boycott in the United States seem to have been forms of the sympathetic strike or the boycott on materials. The general strike of the New York cord-wainers in 1809 was caused by the fact that the employers 'originally involved' had attempted to have their goods manufactured in other shops, and had, consequently, precipitated strikes among the workmen of other employers, who refused to contribute to the production of unfair goods. In 1827 the journeymen tailors of Philadelphia struck against several master tailors. Then the master tailors later attempted to have their work done in other shops; the strikers succeeded in persuading the journeymen there employed to refuse to do any work while the orders of the unfair firms were being received. Within the category of boycotts on materials falls the action taken by the journeymen stone cutters of New York, when in 1830 they imposed a boycott on convict-cut stone. 'Most of the stone cutters,' they said, 'have entered into a voluntary agreement to refrain from working stone from the states' prisons, and deputations have been sent to those who continued to work such stone. Apparently one of the first instances of the boycott on commodities, where the appeal was to the workman not as a producer but as a consumer, was the boycott imposed in Baltimore in 1833 at a meeting of 'the citizens generally' upon master hatters who had combined to cut the wages of their journeymen. In October of the same year the Association of Printers of New York decided, at the suggestion of an employer, to publish the 'names of all employing printers who do not pay the scale of prices.' Similar lists were published in one form or another until April, 1840. For several months in 1836 a fair, as well as an unfair, list was published in the Union and Transcript, a penny daily labor paper, published by the Printers' Union during a few months of that year. In April, 1840, however, the union was sued for libel, and the publication of the unfair list ceased. Although the printing of these lists may have been designed to divert patronage from unfair employers, it is not entirely clear that the prime motive for their advertisement was not to keep union laborers from working for these employers rather than to persuade consumers to withdraw their patronage. In 1850 the boycott again appeared in New York City in connection with the labor movement that resulted in the organization of many of the workingmen in that city. Conspicuous in this movement to organize the laborers of New York were the tailors, who in March, 1850, formed the Journeymen Tailors'

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

Union. In the summer of that year a central association called the Industrial Congress and composed of representatives of the unions was established. At a session of this Congress on July 30 a resolution was adopted boycotting the clothing firms that were antagonistic to the Tailors' Union. The resolution, which was introduced by the masons, provided that, 'as tailors of New York are on strike for wages, we the Industrial Congress will not patronize any store or shop that does not pay the proper prices to their workmen, and that we report the same to our respective societies. Be it further resolved that the tailors be requested to publish the names and numbers of such as do not pay the prices demanded.' These comparatively early instances of the boycott are of small importance in the American Labor movement. Imposed sporadically when organization succeeded in getting a foothold in different parts of the country and discarded when it collapsed, the boycott did not become an effective and important weapon of labor unions until 1880."—L. Wolman, *Boycott in American trade unions, pp.* 22-24.

1877-1911.—Important American strikes.—"In the late Carrol D. Wright's book entitled, *Industrial Evolution of the United States,* and published in 1895, the 'historic strikes' considered are, with two exceptions, directly connected with the railways of the nation. The two exceptions are the telegraphers' strike of 1883 and the Homestead strike in 1892. The three most important strikes before the opening of the present century were the railway strike of 1877, the Homestead strike, and the railway strike of 1894. Each of these strikes were marked by dangerous rioting and by the destruction of property. State militia were used in each case, and United States troops in the strike of 1894. The strike of 1877 made the people of the United States realize for the first time that strikes and other disputes between labor and the newly-formed aggregations of capital presented problems of national importance. In the strike of 1894 the right of the federal government acting under the anti-trust, the interstate commerce, and the postal laws to intervene in the case of strikes and boycotts, was for the first time clearly asserted. [See also MARYLAND: 1867-1914; PENNSYLVANIA: 1892; PITTSBURGH: 1877; U.S.A.: 1894: Strike at Pullman.] In the anthracite coal strike of 1902, a well disciplined union, composed of men of various nationalities and degrees of skill, was so controlled that the amount of violence was comparatively small. The stoppage of the source of supply of a necessity in the homes of hundreds of thousands of people made this local strike of personal importance to the citizens of the nation. President Roosevelt used extra-legal authority to bring about a settlement in order that the coal bins might be filled. In the State of New York, the democratic party went on record through their party platform as favoring government ownership of coal mines. [See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1902-1920; U.S.A.: 1902 (October).] The mining troubles of Colorado, culminating in the Cripple Creek strike of 1903-1904, occurred in a community not far removed from frontier conditions, yet industrially organized ahead of its time. The admixture of foreign elements in the Western Federation of Miners was not important, but class lines were strictly drawn. Mining was the basic industry; when 'mining ceased, business ceased.' The entire community was forced to align itself on one side or the other. In the mining district of Colorado, a bitter class struggle —true industrial warfare—took place. Strong class-conscious labor unions faced as strongly class-conscience employers' associations; and the citizens and the local and state governments were forced into the struggle. 'There do not lack indications of a general current sweeping the entire nation to such a final issue. . . . It may well be that in the throes of the Cripple Creek conflict lie auguries of the future, lessons for both parties to the strife, and for the "powers that be" in state, in county, and in town.' The Great Lakes Dispute between the various seaman's unions on the Great Lakes and the Lake Carriers' Association caused a strike which began in 1909 and continued through 1910. The passenger lines were not involved in the dispute. The conflict hinged on the open shop principle. The organized employers were determined to enforce the open shop; they refused to confer with the representatives of organized labor. The efforts of the National Civic Federation and of several state boards of arbitration were unavailing. In order to effectively carry out the open shop policy the employers proposed a 'welfare plan.' Each seaman upon payment of fee of one dollar, receives a discharge book. At the beginning of the season, the seaman must deposit this book with the captain of the vessel. At the end of the season, it is returned to him for use next season with an entry 'fair' or 'good,' unless the captain is dissatisfied with the work of the seaman. In the latter case, the book is returned to the Lake Carriers' Association. This system, called in derision the 'hell-fare' plan, is evidently well calculated to allow the employers of seamen to weed out all union men and to increase the subserviency of their employees. It is in reality a gigantic black list, although in theory it is a white list. The President of the Lake Carriers' Association has stated, however, that the plan was devised 'with the firm belief and conviction that it was in the interest and for the benefit of the men employed to join it. . . . We have men employed who are not members.' The Great Lakes struggle is symptomatic of the growing antagonism between certain employers' associations and labor unions; the fundamental aim of the Lake Carriers' Association is to stamp out unionism among the employees of its members. The McKees Rocks strike [1909] in the Pressed Steel Car Works was a strike possessing very different characteristics than any preceding important American labor dispute. The company's force consisted of about 1,200 skilled mechanics and about 3,500 semi-skilled and unskilled workers, of whom the majority were immigrants from various European countries. The treatment accorded these workers by the company was little short of inhuman; at last the unorganized and undisciplined horde suddenly struck. One investigator stated that 'it was simply a united claim on the part of unskilled, ignorant "Hunkies" for justice, and the Americans stood with them.' After the strike began, the men were organized, a fair degree of order was maintained, and the task of financing the strike performed in an efficient manner. A spirit of solidarity among the wage earners was manifested which indicates that industrial unionism is an aggressive and efficient form of labor organization. The company, at first defiant, finally yielded. The strikers were taken back, and some concessions were granted. The 'first great woman's strike' occurred in New York City in the winter of 1909-1910, among the shirt-waist makers. This was a strike of women in an occupation within what has been traditionally called 'woman's sphere'; and it was

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

a strike involving women of several different nationalities. Women were fined and sent to the workhouse by city judges for picketing. The strikers published and circulated rules in regard to lawful picketing. Women pickets were attacked by 'prostitutes paid high for stirring up trouble with the pickets.' The Women's Trade Union League, certain wealthy women, and young college girls aided the working women in the fight. After about three months the employers gave up the struggle and conceded practically all that the workers demanded. The employers, members of the Associated Waist and Dress Manufacturers, had refused to arbitrate the points at issue. The termination of this strike of about thirty thousand poor Jewish, Italian, and American working girls through three months of cold weather proves that women workers can be organized under pressure into effective labor organizations. The spontaneity of action on the part of unorganized or partially organized workers which characterized the McKees Rocks strike and that of the shirtwaist makers was manifested in other strikes of the year 1910. In the strike at the Bethlehem Steel Company's plant the workers were unorganized; but unlike the McKees Rocks strike, the struggle was precipitated by the skilled workers. The Cloak and Suit Makers' strike in New York City in the summer of 1910 led to rapid organization, and the chief point at issue became the question of the closed shop. In the conduct of the strike the principles of industrial unionism rather than those of trade unionism were adopted. All workers in the industry went on a strike. The street car strike in Philadelphia became almost a general strike, many organized and unorganized workers went out on a sympathetic strike. The strike of the workers living in the 'model village' of Ludlow, Massachusetts, and working for the Ludlow Manufacturing Associates, is another excellent example of solidarity among unorganized and semi-skilled workers. Unanimity of action grew out of a mass meeting called to discuss the grievances of the working people. The strike of the Garment Workers of Chicago (1910-1911) is another example of an uprising of the unskilled and unorganized. Without any definite organization at its inception, the strike spread until it affected 40,000 or more workers and a multitude of shops. These strikers placed little confidence in leaders. They rejected proposals assented to by the President of the Chicago Federation of Labor and by the President of the United Garment Workers. One observer stated:—'They have faith only in themselves. . . . They want a union of workers and not of leaders.' Evidently the newer form of industrial unionism is impregnated with a feeling of intense democracy."—F. T. Carlton, *History and problems of organized labor, pp.* 184-189.

1880.—**Captain Boycott of Ireland.—Refusal of tenants to serve.—Eviction of tenants.** See Boycott: Origin.

1880-1900.—**Boycotts by the Knights of Labor.**—From 1880 "to the present time [1916], first under the Knights of Labor and then under the American Federation of Labor, [the boycott] . . . has had an almost continuous history of successful employment as an acknowledged and a universal method of trade-union pressure. Almost without warning the boycott suddenly emerged in 1880 to become for the next ten or fifteen years the most effective weapon of unionism. There was no object so mean and no person so exalted as to escape its power. Side by side, with equal prominence, the Knights of Labor boycotted clothing manufacturers and their draymen, insignificant country grocers and presidential candidates, insipid periodicals and the currency of a nation, our national bank-notes. Although no statement can be found to the effect that it was the policy of the Order to employ the boycott as its principal means of aggression, and although the resolution providing that the Order adopt a general system of boycotting instead of strikes was rejected by the convention of 1884, there can be little doubt that in actual practice the Knights of Labor were primarily a boycotting organization. Disregarding even the numerous instances of actual boycotts, the very tone of their articles and their attitude of threatened withdrawal of support or patronage from almost all of their opponents attests the existence of a definite boycotting policy to which all other resources were subsidiary. The spectacular appearance at this time of the boycott and its subsequent popularity may be ascribed to the influence of several factors. Its 'sudden emergence in 1880 as an important means of enforcing the demands of the unions upon recalcitrant employers' was primarily 'due to the solidarity given the trade union movement by the growth of the Knights of Labor.' Furthermore, it was perhaps true of the period immediately before and after 1880 that trade-union sentiments had not as yet been disseminated to a marked extent and that the organization of labor had to be carried on for the most part among workmen who, like many of the present-day immigrant laborers, had not yet learned the desirability of continuous membership in labor organizations. . . . Appearing, therefore, in 1879 and 1880 as a compact labor organization, composed in the main of workmen ignorant of the difficulties and necessities of organization; not oversupplied with funds; finding it necessary to employ spectacular and effective, but cheap, methods of aggression; controlling, however, a not insignificant purchasing power, the Knights of Labor immediately seized in 1880 upon the boycott as a unique and logical source of strength. Boycotting under the Knights of Labor falls roughly into three periods. The first period from the beginning to 1885 was one of indiscriminate, unregulated, local boycotting. The second from 1885 to about 1892 was characterized by the central control and careful execution of the boycott; and the third period was marked by the extension of the boycott, still under a central but much weakened control, to new fields of industrial warfare. (1) Members of labor organizations generally hold that it is an individual's right to use his patronage as he sees fit; it follows, they contend, that any number of individuals may collectively agree to withdraw their patronage from hostile firms. The right to withdraw patronage and to request others to withdraw it is, therefore, a species of inalienable right which workingmen are exceedingly reluctant to relinquish to the control of a distant central office. Such was apparently the prevailing opinion in the rank and file of the Order in the first few years of its history. Accordingly, practically all boycotts emanated from the local and district assemblies, while their enforcement and regulation were left in the same hands. There was, to be sure, the general provision adopted in 1882 that 'no firm or individual employer shall be subject to general boycotting without the consent of the majority of the executive board.' The general terms of this provision, however; its failure to define general boycotting, and the fact that the members of the Order did not yet fully comprehend the desirability of a restricted and regulated sys-

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

tem of boycott, rendered this provision valueless. Local and district assemblies boycotted when they pleased and what they pleased; firms fair to one local assembly would be boycotted by a neighboring assembly. Such a situation elicited from the grand master workman before the assembly of 1885 the recommendation that, inasmuch as the general assembly had not heretofore enacted adequate legislation for the regulation of boycotting throughout the Order, 'the power to decide upon the wisdom of embarking in a boycotting crusade should be placed in the hands of the Executive Board.' This recommendation met with considerable opposition on the part of the local assemblies. To them the organization on the spot was most competent to judge when and where a boycott should be levied. Accordingly, the proposed amendment to the constitution providing that 'only the Executive Board have the power to issue a boycott' was rejected. Nevertheless, this period of unrestrained local boycotting was brought to a close by the adoption at the same convention of two rules: one granting local, district, and state assemblies the right to initiate boycotts that did not affect other localities; the second providing that whenever any local or district assembly desired to initiate a boycott that might affect other localities, 'the facts must be gathered and presented to the Executive Board which after a careful examination shall have the power to institute a general boycott.' (2) In 1885, then, the Knights of Labor entered upon a period of boycotting characterized by the subordination of local to national authorities in the matter of control. The first boycott emanating directly from the general executive board and operating throughout the Order was in that year imposed upon the Dueber Company, a large watchcase manufactory of Newport, Kentucky. With such vigor and persistency was this boycott waged that all doubts that may have previously existed as to the desirability of a system of centrally imposed boycotting were at once dispelled. Indeed, so systematically were future general boycotts operated that the casual correspondence of the previous period was succeeded by such a stream of letters and instructions that the governmental mechanism of the Order was extended in 1887 by the establishment of a 'Boycotting Department.' In this period, too, were perfected the details involved in the announcement of boycotts, in the tracing of boycotted goods, and in the local enforcement of the boycott, matters in which the Knights attained a degree of skill that has not since been surpassed. The articles published in their journals advising members that hostilities with certain firms had been begun and that a boycott upon their products was in order were masterpieces of that form of persuasive composition; facts concerning the sources and destinations of unfair commodities were often printed in the journal with the most minute details. Nor was this condition of central control, with its ability to concentrate the forces of the Order upon single firms and its greater efficiency in management, without its fruits. On the capitulation of the Ligett and Meyers Tobacco Company in June, 1893, following a six years' boycott, the editor of the journal asserted that 'up to date the Knights of Labor had never lost a boycott; and powerful and wealthy as an enemy may be, it is only a question of time when the end must come either in bankruptcy or surrender,' a judgment which, while perhaps not to be taken literally, contained more than a modicum of truth. (3) From 1892 to 1900 the Order of the Knights of Labor was in a moribund state. Torn by internal dissensions following the defeat of Powderly as grand master workman, and further weakened by the vigorous attacks of its rival, the American Federation of Labor, the Order, despite its frequent boasts of greater strength and increased success, was rapidly declining in membership and in power. Its proceedings had become a mass of criminations and recriminations, its journals the forum for the propagation and discussion of political and social panaceas. Although boycotting notices were published during this period, they were not so extensive as in the period before and were sporadic rather than continuous in appearance. But what the boycott against the customary foes lacked in vigor was amply compensated for by the imposition of boycotts on the products of new adversaries, the members of the trade unions now affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. . . . Probably during the whole history of the Knights of Labor, and certainly as early as 1884, there were occasional disputes between trade organizations and the Knights. In the main these disputes arose from the circumstance of the competition between two labor organizations for the control of workingmen and their positions. Thus, the Knights of Labor, which contained in its organization local assemblies of iron molders, boycotted in 1888 the Fuller, Warren Stove Company; at the same time the journal of the Iron Molders' Union contained an article designating that company as a friend of organized labor. The inevitable result of such a situation was the appearance of signs of hostility in both organizations; in the Iron Molders because the boycott harmed an employer who from their standpoint was fair, and in the Knights because the Iron Molders, by proclaiming the fairness of the boycotted stove manufacturer, succeeded in destroying the effectiveness of their boycott. An analogous situation arose when either the trade union or the Knights of Labor would adopt a label, which would be for a time the only label of organized labor to be used on that commodity. In the meanwhile another organization would spring up, adopt a label, and place it on the same commodity, and in consequence the labels would become competitors and their sponsors antagonists. Out of such a situation arose the dispute between the Knights of Labor and the Cigar Makers' Union. In February, 1884, the general executive board of the Knights had adopted a label which was almost immediately used by certain assemblies of cigar makers; and 'early in 1886 the Cigar Makers' International Union protested to the Knights of Labor that assemblies of cigar makers had given 'white labels' to manufacturers in whose shops union cigar makers were on a strike.' In that same year the Cigar Makers' International Union sent men and circulars through the Order, requesting the members 'to boycott all goods except those bearing the International blue label,' and charging that the grand master workman and the rest of the general executive board had 'cooperated in the organization of scabs into the Order.' The dispute culminated in an edict by the General Assembly of the Knights in 1886 requiring all cigar makers who were members of the Knights of Labor to withdraw from the Cigar Makers' Union. After that the Cigar Makers, now secretly and now openly, boycotted cigars bearing the label of the Knights of Labor, and the latter retaliated by boycotting goods which bore the blue label of the Cigar Makers. The experience of the Knights of Labor with the Cigar Makers' Union, with the exception of the com-

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

plications due to the use of two labels, was repeated after 1890 with even greater disaster to the Order, In most cases the trade unions of Garment Workers and Brewery Workmen, aided and encouraged by the American Federation of Labor, led the fight against the Knights. For example, when a clothing firm in 1896 replaced cutters belonging to the Knights of Labor with members of the Garment Workers' Union, the Knights of Labor imposed a boycott on the product of the firm. Again, in the following year the Brewery Workmen's Union boycotted a Rochester brewery because that company employed members of the Knights of Labor; the Knights responded by boycotting those breweries which employed members of the Brewery Workmen's Union. With a view to a peaceful adjustment of the disputes between these organizations a harmony conference, composed of representatives from the Knights of Labor and the trade organizations, was held in 1894. The conference, however, recommended the withdrawal of the Knights in practically all industries where trade unions were organized. The representatives of the Knights of Labor opposed the report, and the conference came to naught. These boycotts and counter-boycotts continued to be imposed until about 1900, when the internal warfare ceased with the total collapse of the Knights of Labor movement. The series of railroad strikes or boycotts carried on by the Knights of Labor and by the railway brotherhoods represented important episodes in the history of the boycott between 1885 and 1895. One of the earliest of these was the strike on the Union Pacific in 1885, when the Knights of Labor refused to assist in moving any of the rolling-stock of the Wabash System. Similar boycotts on rolling-stock were imposed from time to time. In 1894 this form of boycott reached its climax in the famous strike of the American Railway Union. This union was an organization of the employees of all branches of the railway service which, under the leadership of Debs, had succeeded the 'Supreme Council of the United Order of Railway Employers, a loose federation of railway unions, disbanded in June, 1892.' When, in the summer of 1894, certain employees of the Pullman Palace Car Company went on strike, the 'American Railway Union determined to support the strikers, and for this purpose ordered its members to refuse to work upon any train to which a Pullman car was attached. As nearly all the railroads centering at Chicago were under contract with the Pullman Company to draw its sleeping cars and parlor cars, a conflict immediately resulted between the railroads and their employees, and a strike of vast proportions among train hands followed.' With the loss of this boycott and the imprisonment of Debs and other officers of the union by the United States authorities, the union soon disintegrated, and the railroad boycott never again attained a conspicuous position in the history of the boycotts of American labor organizations."—L. Wolman, *Boycott in American trade unions, pp.* 24-33.—See also BOYCOTT: 1880-1892.

1881-1916.—Boycotts by the American Federation of Labor.—Political uses of the boycott by labor.—Boycott in Europe.—"From 1881 to 1890 the American Federation of Labor played an unimportant role as a boycotting agency, and was, indeed, overshadowed in all respects by the activities of the Knights of Labor. After 1890, in conjunction with several of the larger national unions, it assumed charge of the campaign against the Knights that brought about the defeat of that organization. The boycotting life of the American Federation of Labor can be conveniently dated from the practical disappearance about 1895 of the Knights of Labor as a factor in the American labor movement. It is, of course, true that the American Federation of Labor boycotted before 1895 and that the Knights of Labor continued to live and to boycott for a few years after 1895. That year, however, marks approximately the turning-point in the fortunes of the two organizations; by the middle of the decade the supremacy of the American Federation of Labor was definitely asserted, and it was left free to proceed against new foes. The history of the boycott under the American Federation of Labor is in reality a history of the boycott as employed by its constituent national unions. The importance of the American Federation of Labor as a boycotting agency has often been overestimated because of the failure to observe that the actual waging of the boycotts, with the exception of the advertisement in the American Federationist, rests with the unions themselves. Nor does the American Federation of Labor, beyond some slight control over the central labor unions and its ability to restrict the publication of names on its 'We Don't Patronize' list, possess much power in regulating the placing of boycotts by the national unions. Even as early as the eighties, before the American Federation of Labor was in existence, such unions as the Brewery Workmen and the Typographical Union carried on successful boycotts. By 1890 the Brewery Workmen, with the support of the Knights of Labor, had won several important boycotts that affected the organization of large non-union plants. The history of boycotts from 1890 on has been a story of the placing by national unions of great boycotts, the facts of which were made known through the publications of the American Federation of Labor. The United Hatters, for example, from about 1896 to 1902 systematically boycotted, among others, the National Cash Register Company and the Buck's Stove and Range Company; the Garment Workers, the firms belonging to the Rochester and Chicago Employers' Associations. The Carpenters have since 1896 been carrying on a campaign, which in effectiveness has rarely been surpassed in this country, against the use of unfair building trim [written in 1916]. The list could be extended to include such unions as the Bakers and Confectioners, the Coopers, the Printers, the Bookbinders, and others, only a small fraction of whose boycotts have appeared on the unfair list in the American Federationist. The influence of the American Federation of Labor has been exerted in inducing in its members a greater conservatism in the employment of the boycott. Practically the great majority of its legislative acts in the period from 1893 to 1908 have been designed to control the too frequent use of the boycott. At the convention of 1894 the executive council remarked 'the impracticability of the indorsement of too many applications of this sort. There is too much diffusion of effort which fails to accomplish the best results.' Thereafter, every few years saw the adoption of new rules restricting the endorsement of boycotts. Efforts at amicable adjustment must be made first by the national union concerned and later by the executive council of the Federation; the number of unfair firms of each national union that might appear on the 'We Don't Patronize' list must be limited to three; the unions whose boycotts the Federation has endorsed must make quarterly reports of the progress of the boycotts and of the efforts put forth in furthering them; the central labor union is not permitted to originate boycotts or to endorse boy-

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

cotts without consulting the national unions whose interests are involved; efforts are made to prevent the imposition of boycotts upon firms that have somewhere in their employ union workingmen. If there are added to these formal rules the statements of union officials and members urging a greater care and conservatism in the application of the boycott, a correct idea will be had of the place of the American Federation of Labor as a boycotting agency. These measures were adopted not for the reason that the American Federation of Labor desired to restrict the use of the boycott because it was opposed to that weapon as a method of industrial warfare, but because it foresaw as a result of its uncontrolled application a marked loss in effectiveness. In spite of the fact, however, that similar restrictive tendencies have developed to a marked degree among the national unions of the country, there has probably been between the years 1895 and 1908 a gradual absolute increase but a relative decrease in the number of boycotts in this country. Indeed, there is no reason to believe that in its broad general outlines the quantitative course of the boycott has been very different from that of the strike, with these qualifications, however, that public opposition and the interference of the courts have combined to limit significantly the frequency of boycotts. The decision of the United States Supreme Court in February, 1908, that caused the cessation of the publication by trade unions of their unfair lists marks a turning-point in the history of the boycott. Even before that decision, to be sure, the use of this device had been hampered by legal interference. But this verdict of the highest court in the land, exposing trade unionists to the payment of immense damages, and interpreted by the legal advisers of the American Federation of Labor as precluding the advertisement thereafter of the names of unfair firms, imposed upon the boycott a much greater legal disability than it had suffered through the issue of injunctions by the state courts. Once for all, the principles were laid down as authoritative throughout the whole country by a court of the highest prestige, first, that a boycott by a labor organization on the product of a firm doing an interstate business constitutes an interference with interstate commerce, and, second, that trade unions are subject to action under the Sherman Anti-Trust Act and to the payment of damages for the use of such pressure. The effect of the decision has been undoubtedly to reduce greatly but not to eliminate entirely the use of the boycott. The labor organizations have not, however, surrendered their whole control over the purchasing power of their members, but, as is indicated by the great increase in the use of the union label since 1908, they have, at least, in some trades, exercised this control in a more peaceful, if less effective manner.

"The treatment has thus far been concerned with the historical development of the boycott by American labor organizations upon materials and commodities. For a long time labor unions have been imposing upon candidates for public offices political boycotts, wherein they publicly announce opposition to certain candidates and request friends and sympathizers to boycott them by voting for their opponents. Under the Knights of Labor this was a favorite form of the boycott, made possible by the existence in the large membership of the Order of a substantial 'labor vote.' Whenever a candidate for public office would in any way associate himself with unfair establishments or persons, or would exhibit his hostility to organized labor by publicly opposing measures which they advocated, or vice versa, he would promptly be boycotted. Thus the boycott on Blaine, carried on during his presidential campaign by the Typographical Union, with the aid of the Knights of Labor, was imposed because Blaine did not repudiate the support of the New York Tribune, a newspaper unfair to the Typographical Union. This intense political activity of the Knights of Labor in supporting and opposing men and measures, which was later widened to include extensive political programs, contributed ultimately to their downfall. The reaction against such activity set in with the growth of the American Federation of Labor, which in its early days seems to have made little use of the political boycott. Indeed, Professor A. C. Pigou, in commenting on the supersession of the Knights of Labor by the American Federation of Labor, notes that political measures work best through localities, whereas economic pressure is exerted most freely through trades, thus explaining the greater political activity of the Knights. Since 1900, however, the American Federation of Labor, finding itself and its constituent unions harassed by injunctions and its activities greatly hindered by what it considers the anti-labor prejudices of the courts, has not hesitated to support and to advise constituent unions to support certain ameliorative measures before Congress and before state legislatures, and in addition has waged political boycotts upon public officials whose opposition to these labor measures has been notoriously bitter. Of such a character were the vigorous boycotts launched against the candidacies of Congressmen Cannon and Littlefield, also the negative boycott on the Republican national candidates in 1908, when the American Federation of Labor offered semi-official support to the Democratic party, which had inserted into its platform an anti-injunction plank satisfactory to the labor interests. Many of the constituent unions of the American Federation of Labor also occasionally employ the political boycott; thus the Garment Workers had in their constitution a provision stating that it was the duty of all members 'to refuse to vote for any political candidate regardless of party who was not friendly to the cause of labor,'—a general provision which could, when necessary, be easily particularized in time and place. Other unions such as the Western Federation of Miners and the United Brewery Workmen endeavored to swing their workmen to the support of socialistic candidates. [See also BOYCOTT: 1897-1920.] . . .

"The boycott as employed by labor organizations has been almost exclusively an American institution; Schwittau . . . calls the United States the 'classic home of the boycott.' Occasional instances of its use in foreign countries, notably England and Germany, have been recorded. In Germany the use of the boycott has had an important political aspect; thus many of the early boycotts were imposed upon inns, because their proprietors refused to furnish rooms for meetings of the Social Democratic party. In 1894, however, the workingmen in Berlin imposed a boycott upon the members of a Brewers' Employers' Association; this boycott was so effective that it elicited from the secretary of that association the judgment that the emergence of the boycott added to the existing stock of measures to be used in social and industrial warfare a new and extraordinarily effective weapon. It is, nevertheless, seldom used by the German labor organizations. The same is true in England; the boycotts that are there imposed, however, resemble closely the American boycotts. The printers, for example, publish from time to

time, a 'black list' or 'closed list' bearing the names of firms hostile to the union. Other boycotts bear a close analogy to the American boycotts on materials. . . . Few accounts exist of boycotts in other countries, but it is likely that they are used, although their extent cannot be estimated. Liechti describes a boycott in Switzerland following a strike of the cigar makers, who in articles in the labor papers requested working men not to smoke the products of the unfair firm. There was reported also in 1912 an interesting instance in Italy of the imposition of a boycott on materials. The local labor union of an Italian town imposed a boycott upon the owner of the marble quarry, whose workmen had gone on a strike. As soon as the boycott notice was published the quarry was unable to get sand necessary for cutting marble because the workmen in a neighboring town, from which the sand was usually shipped, refused to load sand destined for the boycotted quarry."—*Ibid., pp.* 33-38, 41-42.—See also BOYCOTT: Status in Europe.

ALSO IN: H. W. Laidler, *Boycotts and the labor struggle.*

1886-1887.—Haymarket tragedy in Chicago. See CHICAGO: 1886-1887.

1889.—East London dockers' strike.—"Mr. Ben Tillett had made in 1886 the first attempt to organize the East London dockers; but, after running a fruitless strike at Tilbury Docks, his Tea Operatives and General Labourers' Union dwindled to some three hundred members. In May 1889, Tillett joined with Burns and Tom Mann in forming a Gas Workers' and General Labourers' Union, which promptly secured a reduction of the working day in the London gasworks from twelve to eight hours. Thus encouraged, Tillett went back to the dockers, and on August 13, 1889—the men forcing their leader's hand—a small dispute at the South-West India Dock was made the occasion of a demand, sent by letter to the directors, that henceforth no man should be taken on for less than four hours at a stretch, and wages should be raised to 6d. an hour, and 8d. for overtime. . . . Within three days, ten thousand unskilled labourers on the north riverside, together with the two unions of stevedores (the superior dockers of the export trade), had struck in sympathy. A week later, practically the whole work of the port was at a standstill. Tillett had called Burns and Mann to his aid; and these three men organized and dominated for ten weeks a campaign so vitalized by a great issue, and so full of dramatic incidents, that it held the breathless attention of the whole English-speaking world. By sheer genius of leadership, the Battersea engineer became the unquestioned generalissimo of a ragged army which assembled daily on Tower Hill, and followed his straw hat in innumerable processions. It was said that Burns had bewitched London: certainly, his good relations with the police, his iron physique, his humour, his complete command of many thousands of rough men who had never before followed a leader or held to an organization, were prime factors in the victory that opened a new chapter in British industrial life. There were two other things without which the day and night toil of these leaders in organizing food supplies and keeping their followers out of mischief would have been fruitless. The first was the enthusiastic support of the general public, which operated in three ways; it made it impossible for the dock directors to enlist any large number of 'blacklegs'; it cowed them into submission to a Mansion House Conciliation Committee, of which Cardinal Manning, Mr. Buxton, the Lord Mayor, the Bishop of London, and Lord Brassey were the leading members; and it secured subscriptions enough to maintain an elaborate system of strike pay under which 440,000 relief tickets were issued. The second, and relatively more generous, intervention was that of the Australian people, who have since proved themselves in many ways as pioneers of democratic experiment in the Empire. It is remarkable that, of a total strike fund of £48,736, the general public at home contributed £13,730, the Colonies cabled no less than £30,423, while the British trade unions (apart from those in London, which had members to maintain) subscribed only £4,473."—G. H. Perris, *Industrial history of modern England, pp.* 430-433.

1890.—Great strike at Sydney. See AUSTRALIA: 1890-1891.

1890.—Effect of strike in New South Wales upon rise of the Labor party. See NEW SOUTH WALES: 1891.

1892-1908.—Miners' strikes in Idaho. See IDAHO: 1892-1908.

1893.—Hull dockers' strike.—"On March 20, 1893, a Shipping Federation registry was opened in Hull, with the usual promise of preferential employment. All and sundry out of work—and there must have been many such in a population of 200,000—were invited to apply for engagement. After a lapse of a month, only some three hundred men answered the call. This is the essential fact, to which the rest is only a sequel. On April 5, the Federation began to import 'blacklegs.' It had already refused in any way to recognize the Dockers' Union or its officials. On April 6, the men were polled by ballot, and voted, by 3500 against 5, for a strike. Two days later, the port was blocked, unionists and non-unionists, dockers, lightermen, seamen, and coolies, all leaving work in protest against the foreign invasion. For six weeks, while overtures of peace from civil authorities, justices, and religious leaders were being rejected by the Federation, the attention of the whole country was drawn to the quiet heroism and loyalty of this hungering community. The sense of Mr. John Burns, and of Mr. F. Maddison and other local leaders, prevailed against a foolish threat from London of a national strike; instead, financial aid was poured into Hull by unions throughout the country. At length, a compromise was arrived at, it being agreed that neither registration under the Shipping Federation nor membership of any union should carry with it 'either preference or prejudice in regard to employment.' Neither side could claim a complete victory; but labour won the only honours, and 'union smashing' was seriously discredited."—G. H. Perris, *Industrial history of modern England, pp.* 439-440.

1899-1907.—Increase of strikes in France.—"Mons. Calliard in his report to the Labor Committee of the chamber of Deputies, December 27, 1907, calls attention to [the increase of strikes in recent years]. . . . Before 1899 the average yearly strikes in France were 438, involving 79,000 strikers. From 1899 to 1906 the average yearly strikes numbered 801, involving 192,000 strikers. He (Mons. Calliard) makes the statement that one explanation for this increase in the number of strikes is the fact that the anarchistic elements among the wage-earners have largely joined the labor unions since 1899. . . . He calls attention to the fact that through the agitation of the anarchistic element among the labor unionists, a general strike throughout France was declared for an eight-hour day on May 1, 1906; 296 strikes

took place on that day, involving 202,507 workers and causing a loss of 3,507,033 days of labor, with disastrous results to labor and to many of their unions."—H. Weinstock, *Report on labor and labor conditions of foreign countries (Appendix to journals of the senate and assembly of the thirty-ninth session of the state of California, v. 2, p. 43).*— See also FRANCE: 1906-1909: Presidency of Armand Fallières; Era of Socialistic and syndicalist experiment.

1900-1914.—Summary of British strikes.—"At the beginning of the century, the opening skirmishes took place. In 1900, took place the famous Taff Vale Strike, with its costly sequel for the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, which gave, however, a decided impetus to the growth of the Labour Party. In 1906 and 1907, a campaign against the employment of non-unionists in the South Wales coalfield, culminated in a series of local strikes. In the same years an 'all-grades' movement of railwaymen was initiated and developed: prior to that time, 'movements' were chiefly of a local and single-grade character. In the summer of 1907, this 'all-grades' movement reached its highest point and created widespread public attention and excitement. The main points of the 'Railwaymen's Charter' were increased wages, shorter hours and 'recognition.' The railway companies' answer was not of the kind that 'turneth away wrath.' A general strike appeared probable. The threatened stoppage, however, did not take place. Mr. Lloyd George succeeded in persuading both sides to avert a trial of strength and to accept conciliation and arbitration-machinery as a medium of negotiation. There were two main factors which caused the railwaymen to accept this proposal: (1) *The divided state of organisation in the railway industry.* The attitude of the Associated Society of Locomotive Enginemen and Firemen in 1907 was a most marked illustration of this weakness. (2) *The relatively large number of unorganised railwaymen.* This second weakness is by no means unconnected with the first. It may be laid down as a general rule that non-unionism flourishes just to the extent that sectional unionism prevails. In 1908, a seven-weeks' strike took place in an industry where for 15 years the Brooklands agreement had served to maintain peace—the cotton-industry. In 1909, a further outbreak of hostilities took place—this time over the grievances of a single man. In 1909, the engineers on the North-East Coast engaged in a dispute with the masters, contrary to official wishes, as a result of which the then General Secretary of the A. S. E., Mr. George Barnes, resigned. The Boilermakers' organisation had long possessed a great reputation for exemplary behaviour and 'well-invested' funds. It had abhorred strikes and respected agreements. However, in 1910, the grievances of quite a small number of its members had not, in the opinion of the rank and file, been promptly enough remedied by the employers. All the old traditions were flung to the winds, the time-honoured agreements violated, and the appeals of the leaders ignored. Revolt against both employers and trade union officials became the order of the day, and, notwithstanding much condemnation of the action of the rank and file by employers and officials alike, as well as many months of hardship and privation, the Boilermakers won their strike, and returned to work with their demands conceded. The year 1911 witnessed increased restlessness, especially among the transport workers, throughout the country. Strikes abounded. In August of this year there took place the brief, but remarkable, general strike of railwaymen, resulting in the all-but-complete paralysis of the railway system. In 1912, the leading exhibition of the 'unrest' was made by the miners in a general strike for the enforcement of a minimum wage, a demand which many of the miners' own trade union officials had originally opposed. The Government was compelled to interfere, and the principle of a minimum wage for miners became the subject of legislation. No fewer than 1,462 disputes are recorded as having taken place in 1913. The Dublin Strike was the most desperate and protracted of those struggles. The Dublin employers had taken to themselves the right of determining the type of union to which their employees should belong. Naturally, that union was not of the type that showed fight against the Dublin sweaters. Although the Dublin workers were for a time generously supported with finance and food by the trade unions and co-operative movement on [the English] . . . side of the Channel, in the end this support was largely withdrawn, due mainly to personal quarrels and jealousies between the leaders, and ultimately the strike collapsed. In 1914, the most prominent and prolonged dispute occurred in the London building industry. The London builders locked out their workmen on the grounds of the refusal of the trade union building-workers to sign a document agreeing to work with non-unionists. The struggle looked like ending in a compromise, when the European crisis began, and put an end to any further development or decisive settlement. These strikes which, from 1910 to 1914 particularly, were unsurpassed both in number and magnitude of operations, were conducted against all kinds of grievances imaginable—strikes for more wages, strikes for shorter hours, strikes because of the victimisation of one man, strikes because of the intolerable conduct of some petty official, strikes against the employment of non-unionists, sympathetic strikes, strikes without trade union official sanction, and in the teeth of the leaders' expressed opposition—of grievances and strikes there appeared to be no end."—W. W. Craik, *Short history of the modern British working-class movement, pp.* 65-67.—See also IRELAND: 1909-1914.

1901. — Teamsters' strike in San Francisco. See SAN FRANCISCO: 1901-1909: Struggle with political corruption.

1902-1913.—Coal miners' strikes in West Virginia. See WEST VIRGINIA: 1902-1913.

1903-1919.—Strikes and industrial unrest in Spain. See BARCELONA: 1903-1919; SPAIN: 1912.

1904-1905. — Strikes in Russia. — General strikes at Minsk and Petrograd. See RUSSIA: 1904-1905: Outline of events in revolution; 1905 (April-November); (October); 1905 (November-December).

1905.—Miners' strike in New South Wales. See AUSTRALIA: 1905-1906.

1905.—Revolution in Finland brought about by a general strike. See FINLAND: 1905.

1906.—Coal miners' strike at Lethbridge, Alberta. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Canada: 1900-1918.

1906-1910.—Industrial confusion in France.—Railway strike (1910).—"The seventh legislature held [in 1906] under the Constitution of 1875 came to an end amid a domestic confusion unparalleled in France since 1871. In the Nord and the Pas de Calais there were miners' strikes, at Clermont-Ferrand strikes in the building trade; at Lorient and Toulon there was a general strike, and there were strikes also at Alais and Bordeaux. At Paris the compositors, the excavators and the railway men on the Metropolitan had left work, and

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

the postmen also had joined the movement, though they were servants of the State. M. Clemenceau paid two visits to Lens to treat with the strikers; following his example and by his orders the magistrates, officers and soldiers exhibited admirable coolness as well as energy in controlling the excited crowds without resorting to force. . . . Attempts were made to form what were virtually revolutionary governments, and these announced openly that on May 1, capitalism would be assailed, a general strike proclaimed in Paris, and the Government swept away if it showed signs of attempting to interfere. These threats set up an unprecedented panic, which was intensified by the measures taken by the Government to get rid of it. Troops guarded the Metropolitan Railway workshops, the printing establishments, the bakeries. All the cavalry and infantry available were concentrated at Paris, and schools and empty houses taken up for their accommodation."—*Annual Register*, 1906, *p.* 270.—Syndicalism's greatest effort was in the railway strike in October, 1910, one of the most remarkable labor demonstrations in recent times. A demand made by the railwaymen for an increase in wages was refused. In a short time almost the entire railway system of France was completely tied up. Food supplies for the cities were not delivered, inflicting great privation. Rioting followed and much railway property was destroyed. The strikers had expected that the Socialist Radical Premier, Briand, who had himself once advocated the general strike, would sympathize with them. But they were soon undeceived. Briand discovered a new way of breaking a strike. The leaders were arrested, and the Government issued mobilization orders to the strikers, calling them 'to the colors,' that is, to perform military duty as reservists. They were then ordered to protect the trains which, as soldiers, they could not refuse to do; in other words, the strikers became their own strike-breakers. The strike immediately collapsed. Briand was bitterly denounced by the workingmen as a tyrant and dictator. He defended himself by saying that the Government was faced by what was virtually rebellion, and that it had a right, therefore, to use all means, illegal ones if necessary, to protect itself from destruction."—J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and contemporary European history*, *p.* 270.—See also FRANCE: 1906-1909: Presidency of Armand Fallières; Era of socialistic and syndicalist experiment.

1906-1913.—New Zealand.—Labor organization and parties leading up to general strike of 1913.—Failure of the strike.—"For more than twelve years after the passage of the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1894 there were practically no strikes in New Zealand, but the Auckland tramway strike of November 14, 1906, marks the beginning of a new era, since when strikes have been quite common. . . . For a long time the labor leaders of New Zealand were affiliated with the Liberal party, but of late years they have shown a strong trend toward independence. At a Conference of Trades and Labour Councils held in Auckland in July, 1910, the New Zealand Labour party was formed, for the purpose of obtaining, by political and constitutional means, 'the gradual public ownership of all the means of production, distribution and exchange.' About the same time was formed among the miners of the West Coast the New Zealand Federation of Labour, commonly called the 'Red Fed,' an organization closely related to the Industrial Workers of the World, and favoring direct action, the general strike, and other syndicalist methods. After a time these two organizations lost their identity, being merged in the United Labour party of New Zealand, and the United Federation of Labour. The United Labour party was formed in April, 1912, largely through the efforts of 'Professor' Walter Thomas Mills, formerly of Milwaukee, representing the executive of the Trades and Labour Councils. It was a combination of heterogeneous elements, including many socialists, and has been a rather unsuccessful attempt to combine, in one organization, the political and industrial activities of the labor movement. Hon. J. T. Paul, a prominent labor leader, was elected president, and among the members of the executive was Mr. J. A. McCulloch, the workers' assessor on the Arbitration Court. Shortly after this, occurred a serious strike of the Waihi gold miners, which lasted from May 13 to November 20, 1912. It was caused by a dispute between the miners, who had cancelled their registration under the Arbitration Act and had joined the United Federation of Labour, and the engine-drivers, who had seceded from the federation and registered under the act. It was, in effect, an attack upon the principle of arbitration and an exposition of the 'direct action' tactics of the federation. This was a prolonged and bitter struggle, with much violence and intimidation, but finally the government sent a large force of police to keep order, and the mines were re-opened and worked by new unions registered under the Arbitration Act. The federation received a severe defeat, but immediately began preparations for a more decisive struggle, that should, if necessary, attain the dimensions of a general strike. Soon after the Waihi strike was over it was proposed to form two new organizations to take the place of the New Zealand Federation of Labour and the United Labour party, the one to represent the industrial and the other the political activities of the militant labor forces. The industrial organization was to be called the United Federation of Labour, and the political organization was to be known as the Social Democratic party. For this purpose a 'Unity Congress' was held in Wellington in July, 1913, but it resulted in disunion and a permanent split in the ranks of organized labor. The more radical leaders, including Mr. W. T. Mills and other members of the United Labour party, went over to the socialists; but the more conservative leaders, including Hon. J. T. Paul, Mr. W. A. Veitch, M.P., Mr. M. J. Reardon, and about thirty per cent of the delegates, stood by the United Labour party. This minority, however, represented the attitude of the majority of union workers in New Zealand. It was at this congress that the notorious 'preamble' was presented, almost a literal copy of the one adopted at the first convention of the Industrial Workers of the World. This preamble was excised, but most of the propositions are to be found scattered through the constitution of the United Federation of Labour, and the strike clauses show clearly the intention of the federation to use the general strike as occasion may demand. . . . The trouble began in Wellington with a minor dispute concerning travelling pay between the Union Steamship Company and about a dozen members of the Shipwrights' Union, a branch of the Wellington Waterside Workers' Union, which itself was affiliated with the United Federation of Labour and had cancelled its registration under the Arbitration Act. The Shipwrights' Union went on strike on October 18. The Waterside Workers decided to call a special 'stop-work' meeting on the wharf at eight o'clock on the morning of October 22 to consider the grievances of the ship-

wrights. The 'stop-work' meeting was held, as announced, and lasted about two hours. When the men went back to work some of them found other union men working on their jobs, whereupon the executive of the union demanded that the late comers be reinstated forthwith. The shipping companies refused to do this, and the strike was called. The control of the strike was then placed in the hands of the executive of the United Federation of Labour, as provided in the constitution. In support of their refusal to obey the dictates of the union, the employers took the ground that the agreement under which the men had been working had been broken, and was therefore void. . . . [All governmental] proposals were rejected by the federation. The employers met again on Saturday, November 1, and agreed to withdraw all their offers except the proposal that the agreement be registered under the Arbitration Act. . . . On November 2, a deputation of representatives of the federation, accompanied by Sir Joseph Ward, leader of the opposition, Hon. J. T. Paul, president of the United Labour party, and other prominent labor leaders, waited upon Mr. Massey to ask him to call another conference. On November 3 and 4 it was held, and the workers offered to resume work on the basis of a new agreement and a penalty for stoppage of work; but the employers now refused to compromise, and would agree to nothing less than registration under the Arbitration Act. The attitude of the government was very firm and it was determined to maintain order at any cost. On October 25 the commissioner of police issued a call for volunteers to enroll as special constables. The call received immediate response from clerks, civil servants, and other young men of the cities, but especially from the country people; and presently hundreds of mounted farmers were riding toward Wellington to enroll as special constables and to break the strike by acting as volunteer wharf laborers. The farmers were threatened with serious losses because of the stoppage of transportation at the beginning of summer, and were determined to protect themselves to the best of their ability. . . . The strike soon spread to Auckland, Lyttelton, Dunedin and other seaports, where the course of events was very similar to that in Wellington. . . . The course of events was very similar at Auckland, where, on November 8, a force of over 1,000 police occupied the waterfront. As a protest against the use of the special police, the federation ordered a general strike in Auckland, and on Monday, November 10, the strike leaders claimed that 14 unions, involving 7,500 workers, were idle. Later the seamen also went on strike, bringing the total up to 8,000 or more. . . . The seamen's strike was officially declared off on December 19, and on the same day it was decided to call off the strike for all other workers, except the miners, as from Saturday, December 20. The seamen were to renew their agreement for a period of three years, the Auckland branch to remain registered and the Wellington and Dunedin branches to register under the Arbitration Act. . . . Among the causes which brought about the failure of the strike, the following are deserving of special mention: first, the strength of the employers' position and their determination to make a united stand against the federation; second, the firmness of the government in preventing violence; third, the uprising of the farmers; and fourth, divisions among the working class. The United Labour party, at first silent, issued a manifesto against the strike on November 14, and later drew up a detailed statement giving a review of the strike and condemning the revolutionary policy of the federation. Hon. J. Barr was very outspoken in his opinions, putting the federation wholly in the wrong, criticising its poor leadership and unwise methods, and declaring against the breaking of agreements whether registered under the Arbitration Act or not. Hon. J. A. Millar, one of the fathers of the Arbitration Act, made a telling speech in Parliament in which he declared that 'a strike has never been of any benefit to the workingman and never will be.' On every side the strike was condemned as an egregious blunder; the Red Fed was completely discredited." —J. E. Le Rossignol, *General strike in New Zealand, pp.* 293-299, 301-302.—See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: New Zealand.

1907.—Strike riots among agricultural laborers in Italy.—Railway strike at Milan. See ITALY: 1907.

1909.—Strike of white railroad firemen in Georgia against the employment of negro laborers in the same capacity. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1905-1921.

1910.—Railroad strike in France. See FRANCE: 1909-1910.

1910-1914.—Coal strike in Colorado.—Origin.—Ludlow battle.—Walsenburg.—Investigation.—Reforms.—"The origin of the . . . situation [in 1914] dates back as far as 1910, when the coal-miners in the district north of Denver struck. That strike has been going on ever since and remains unsettled at this writing. Largely as a sympathetic measure, a strike was called in the southern coal-fields in which are located the largest and most important mines of the State. This strike was declared in September, 1913, and spread to the mines located in Fremont and Routt counties. For years the United Mine Workers of America, a powerful international organization of labor numbering over four hundred thousand members, has been busy organizing local unions among the coal-mining population through which this strike spread. It should be remembered that the coal-mining population of Colorado is composed very largely of south-European immigrants who speak practically no English and have as yet little understanding of the American form of government. The mines in which they work are variously owned, there being some thirty or forty companies operating in the State, of which three are conspicuous because of their size and importance. However, although the ownership of all these mines was in various hands when the organization of the miners by the United Mine Workers had progressed sufficiently to make possible the calling of the strike, twenty or thirty small coal-mining companies made common cause with the three larger ones and presented a united front of coal-mine owners in opposition to the striking union miners. . . . The mine-owners in Colorado also own the dwellings erected near the mines for the housing of the workmen and their families. When the strike in the southern field was declared, large numbers of workmen left their former abodes. The United Mine Workers assembled these people in tents near the properties where they had been employed. These groups of striking miners with their families thus assembled in tent colonies were located at points that commanded the approaches to the mines. Colorado has a drastic law against picketing. It prohibits even the persuasion of men at work to quit their employment. The tent colonies were, of course, silent pickets. The non-union workmen had to pass by or through the colonies in going to work. On the other hand, the mine owners employed a force of guards upon their properties who were

armed to protect them and their workmen from aggression. It was not long before the strikers of the colonies were also armed. . . . Between these two armed bodies many bloody battles were fought. . . . Between the two contending forces no respect whatever was paid to the constituted civil officers of the peace. Because of the almost frantic appeal of the sheriffs of both southern counties, of the boards of county commissioners, mayors, judges, and other civil authorities, as well as from hundreds of the citizens, I [Governor Ammons] felt constrained to call out the National Guard. . . . The troops of the State were able to enforce peace. But it was a sullen and unwilling peace. . . . The striking miners had formulated a series of enumerated demands, most of which were vouchsafed by the existing laws of the State of Colorado. The chief, and, as the event has proved, the only remaining point of controversy was the recognition of the union. This point has been insistently refused by the operators and as insistently demanded by the union. . . . [Upon] miscarriage of our plans of settlement . . . a large number of men were . . . brought in to work in the mines. They were given military protection in going to the properties and in remaining at work therein. This is the circumstance which caused the strikers to look upon the National Guard as being in league with their adversaries. . . . From restlessness their feeling toward the State's troops grew into impatience, and, as days went by, to fury. . . . The fight began to be waged not merely against the coal-operators, but against the troops and the State itself. . . . In the middle of April, after the troops had enforced a six months' peace and when they were almost four months in arrears of pay, it was felt that they must be withdrawn. . . . Within six days after this withdrawal the eruption came. It was general throughout the coal-mining regions of the State. . . . The storm broke at Ludlow. . . . When the troops were withdrawn, thirty-four men were left upon police duty near Ludlow, the largest of the tent colonies. On April 20th these men were attacked by ten times their number of strikers. The objective was doubtless the villages two or three miles distant containing the non-union workmen and their families. The National Guard thus attacked defended themselves, and later put the strikers to flight and destroyed their colony. The women and children were all removed to places of safety before the attack save only those who were concealed in pits dug beneath the tents. . . . One pit, almost hermetically sealed, escaped the notice of the rescuers, and thirty-six hours later was discovered and found to contain the bodies of two women and eleven children. These poor people died of suffocation in their subterranean prison. . . . Two days later the labor leaders formulated a Call to Arms, which was published in the press and sent broadcast throughout the State. . . . This call was responded to. The arms that the National Guard failed to gather up were taken from their hiding-places and distributed among the strikers. Many more were purchased and placed in the hands of the strikers. . . . The National Guard was again called out and sent into the southern fields. Its going was heralded by telegrams warning these armed men of the approach of the troop train, and urging that its entrance be disputed. . . . In the northern field armed strikers imprisoned the sheriff in the Hecla mine and besieged him there until relieved by the National Guard. An armed band seized the Chandler mine in Fremont County, not without much fighting. By way of reprisal the refugees of Ludlow marched twelve miles from Trinidad to Forbes, destroyed that camp, killed nine of its defenders, and then returned to Trinidad and paraded the streets in triumph. Many of the smaller mines of the State were seized and their managers imprisoned or expelled. The mining villages I have referred to were attacked and many killed. The toll of death in these few days is known to have reached fifty, and I believe it to be much greater. The National Guard had to be divided and subdivided, hastening from county to county and occupying fields remote from one another. For nearly forty-eight hours a pitched battle was fought at Walsenburg with fifteen hundred armed men who responded to the labor leaders' call for volunteers. . . . The time came when the rebellion assumed such proportions that it could not be met with the greatly reduced force at my disposal. . . . I requested the President of the United States to take charge of the situation with Federal troops. That request was honored. Upon the coming of the Federal troops [April 30, 1914], the National Guard was withdrawn from county after county. . . . The strikers and their sympathizers subsided, and peace and order were restored."—E. M. Ammons, *Colorado strike* (*North American Review, July,* 1914).—"Later came President Wilson's vain offers of mediation, his appointment, on November 29, of a commission to settle future controversy, the questionings and reports of several investigating bodies, and the miners' decision to end the strike on December 10."—*Literary Digest, Dec.* 19, 1914, *p.* 1211.—The result of a further investigation of conditions by the United States Commission on Industrial Relations was the initiation by the company of employee representation methods, the introduction of an elaborate scheme of welfare work called the Rockefeller Plan (see COLORADO: 1915), and the granting to the workers of the basic eight-hour day and the check-off system. The union, however, was not recognized.

1911.—Series of strikes in Great Britain.—"The first in [the] . . . series of strikes [of 1911] was that of the seamen and firemen [June 4]. So little belief was there, even in interested circles, that anything would come of the threatened international strike that small attention was paid to it. . . . [Following immediately upon this] came the strike of the coal porters, and the latest and biggest liner [the Olympic] lay in her berth with scarcely a single one of the six thousand tons of coal she required to ship before she could leave. Importation of coolies from outside caused the strike to spread to other liners in the Southampton Docks, until it became general. . . . The strike quickly spread to Dublin, Belfast, Barry, Swansea, the Clyde, Leith, Middlesbrough, Sunderland, Goole, and Newport. . . . By June 8th all the Atlantic liners at Liverpool were without crews, and food supplies were entirely stopped at Hull. The Shipping Federation, however, were still declaring that on no account would the Seamen and Firemen's Union be recognised. . . . By the end of the month there had been rioting at Hull. . . . July opened with a manifesto from the Dockers' Union against the Shipping Federation; the refusal to ship cattle at Dublin; the strike of carters at Manchester, including some of the railway employees; . . . violent scenes at Glasgow and Manchester. . . . There was a strike of miners at Pendleton; and some of the Lancashire mills had to close for want of cotton unobtainable through the strike. . . . Towards the middle of the month, the Manchester carters had secured the major portion of their demands and the recognition of the union; concessions had been granted to the dockers

at Sunderland; and, generally speaking, the seamen and firemen had gained a considerable portion of their demands in most of the ports in the kingdom. But the best part of the victory was the tardy recognition of the Seamen and Firemen's Union by the Shipping Federation, and the right of the men to work without the Federation ticket. . . . The middle of July saw the seamen and firemen's dispute practically settled, and the beginning of the dockers' strike. The Dockers' Union had put forward demands, and threatened that the men would come out if they were not acceded to. . . . On August 1 about 5,000 men ceased work at the Victoria and Albert Docks for 1d. an hour increase such as had been granted to the men in the employ of the Port of London authorities. . . . The strike extended to the coal porters and carmen, until the trade of London became partially paralysed, and the shortage of meat and vegetables at Smithfield and Covent Garden markets caused a rise in the prices of food in many parts of the metropolis. . . .

"During the time that the strike movement was making such rapid strides in Londen, there was trouble with the tramway men at Leeds; some men were locked-out at the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Works at Horwich; . . . increased wages 'unrest' occurred among 2,500 goods and passengers' shunters of the L. & Y. and L. & N. W. [London & North Western] Railways at Liverpool, among the porters and shunters of the Great Western Railway at Swansea, and among the Great Central employees along the Humber; . . . the Strike Committee at Hull threatened another strike if a circular were not withdrawn that was issued by the Shipping Federation stating that preference would be given to seamen and firemen recruited by the Federation; the dispute extended at Liverpool; . . . strikes occurred of women and girls employed in various South London factories; 'unrest' began among certain of the London County Council tramway men and those of the Glasgow Corporation. . . . On Saturday, August 12th, terms were agreed to for all sections of the workers engaged in the transport trade, and the strike in London may be said officially to have ended, though a good many matters remained in dispute, and things at times looked ugly during the following week. . . . After the official settlement of the strike in London, public attention was immediately rivetted upon Liverpool. The strike had been extending there; scenes more violent than elsewhere had taken place in the streets; police from other parts had been drafted into the city; the shipowners threatened a lock-out; and additional military had been urgently requisitioned. . . . [On Monday, August 14,] the Liverpool shipowners announced the lock-out. This was responded to by a general strike of all transport workers, and 100,000 men were called out, and the offices of the Shipping Federation was burned down. Subsequently the military were called out, and the crowds were fired upon, with the result that one man was killed and others injured. . . . Then came the turn of the railway men. . . . At a joint conference of representatives from the railway men's organizations held in Liverpool on August 15th it was decided to give the railway companies twenty-four hours' notice to receive representatives from the men's societies to negotiate a basis for the settlement of various matters in dispute, or failing such agreement on the part of the railway companies, to call for a national general strike on the whole of the railway systems of the country. . . . The general managers of all the railways declined to meet representatives from the men, and decided to resist any demands that would break the agreement of 1907 under which the Conciliation Boards were established. . . . At the time when the railway men's Executives were in conference at Liverpool men were leaving work at Chester, Stockport, Bristol, Bath, Rotherham, Sheffield, Manchester, Birkenhead, Liverpool, Leicester, Doncaster, Leeds, Bradford, Blackburn, and Glasgow. . . . Protracted conferences again took place at the Board of Trade on August 17th; and subsequently Mr. Asquith made a statement to representatives of the railway unions, which statement, and the tone in which it was given, constituted a coldly bitter lecture to the men; and contained, further, . . . the suggested appointment of a 'Royal Commission to investigate the working of the Conciliation Agreement.' . . . The men's representatives went away from the Board of Trade, and directions to cease work on the whole of the railways of the country were wired to all the railway centres late that night. . . . That same night Mr. Lloyd George declared in the House of Commons that the idea of the Government was to 'appoint a small Committee of Inquiry, or a Commission of three, one of the Commissioners to be a representative of the Labour interests of the country, the other to be a great employer of labour, and the Chairman to be a gentleman of position and distinction, of well-known impartiality, whose appointment would command the confidence of the whole community.' . . . The strike took immediate effect. . . . Men left work in thousands in Lancashire, Yorkshire, and South Wales, and to a lesser extent in almost every important railway centre in the kingdom. . . . Evidence of attempted *sabotage* was discovered at Sheffield, York, and Newcastle; 10,000 men came out at Birmingham; trains were held up at Fishguard, Llanelly, and Nottingham; and collisions between crowds and police and soldiers occurred at Derby, Bradford, Sheffield, Rotherham, Bristol, and Llanelly. It was estimated that over 200,000 railway men were out. The Government decided to postpone the autumn adjournment of Parliament. . . . The show of force which the Liberal Government brought to bear upon this occasion is unprecedented in any industrial dispute. Before the order to strike had been issued from the offices of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants on the evening of August 17th, 12,500 troops of all arms had been entrained at Aldershot, and during that night were poured into London as fast as the trains could bring them. . . . Efforts were still being made by Mr. Sidney Buxton and Mr. Lloyd George to bring about a settlement. . . . On Saturday night, August 19th, an agreement was arrived at between the railway managers and the representatives of the railway trade unions, and the strike officially terminated. . . . The main immediate cause of the strike was the refusal of the railway managers to meet the representatives of the men in regard to the working of the Conciliation Boards. Clause 4 of the agreement, which officially terminated the railway strike, refers to 'questions now in dispute between the companies and classes of their employees not included within the Conciliation Scheme of 1907' being settled by means of 'conferences between the representatives of the companies and their employees, who are themselves employed by the same company.'"—H. W. Lee, *Great strike movement of 1911 and its lessons, pp.* 1-10.

1911-1912.—Revolutionary strike in Lisbon quelled.—Organization of the "Reds" broken up. See LISBON: 1911-1912.

1912.—Lena gold miners' strike, Siberia. See RUSSIA: 1909-1914.

1913.—General strike in Belgium.—"The general strike which took place in Belgium [in 1913] was entirely political in character. It arose out of the feelings of exasperation which animated the Liberal and Socialist Opposition after the elections of June 2nd, 1912, had resulted in a triumph for the Catholic Government so overwhelming as to surprise even the victors. . . . [See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Belgium.] Taking the most trustworthy calculations, the total number of strikers at the outset [April 14] was nearly 300,000, and the maximum of nearly 400,000 was reached on April 19th. As the total working population of the country is estimated at over a million, those who expected a *universal* stoppage could fairly declare that the strike had failed. But it is clear that neither the small independent workers, nor those engaged in home industries or in agriculture, can have contributed any appreciable contingent to the body of strikers. Nor, with the exception of the port of Antwerp, were the transport industries much affected; there was no stoppage of the State railways, nor interruption in the tramway services; and the public gas and electric works scarcely suffered. On the other hand, all the great manufactures were paralysed. If we estimate that these absorb 700,000 work-people, the strike certainly withdrew one half of them. The stoppage was practically universal in all the collieries in the districts of Liège, Charleroi, in the midland districts and in the Borinage. The great metallurgic factories were reduced to complete inactivity or to the most trifling output. Even working-class groups, which were not officially connected with the Labour party, and which do not always obey the word of command, such as the glass workers of Hainaut, and the woollen unions of Verviers, threw in their lot with the strikers. The Brussels compositors, after refusing to stop work, were drawn into the movement after the second week —though the only large daily paper which was prevented from going to press was the *Peuple*, the organ of the Labour party. Although, therefore, the economic life of the country was not brought to a standstill, and although the immediate needs of the nation were supplied, yet large-scale production was completely arrested. . . . The political consequences of the strike have been considerable. From April 16th, when Parliament reassembled, the strike completely monopolised its attention. [See also BELGIUM: 1913.] . . . A Socialist Congress, summoned as a matter of urgency on April 23rd, decided on the resumption of work, which took complete effect on the 28th."—E. Mahaim, *General strike in Belgium* (*Economic Journal, June*, 1913).

1913-1914.—Leeds municipal strike.—"In July, 1913, a number of municipal servants—paviors' labourers and others—obtained increases in wages amounting in the aggregate to about £9,600 a year. Almost immediately an agitation arose for an increase amongst other grades of employees on the ground that for several years a large number of municipal servants had received no rise in wages, and that in the meantime the cost of living had risen considerably. . . . At the November elections, at which the wages question was the main issue, the labour party gained three seats, and returned to the Council Mr. Walt Wood, the local organiser and leader of the Gasworkers and General Labourers' Union—the chief union concerned. At the bye-elections following on the aldermanic elections, a further labour gain was obtained. The new Corporation Committees got to work and recommended certain increases for over 2,000 men (rather over one-half of all concerned) amounting to £6,500 a year. The men thereupon gave the Corporation three days in which to reconsider these concessions, and no further increases being offered, a strike was proclaimed at midnight on December 10th. Later, the tramway men came out, and after a short strike returned, with demoralising effects on the other municipal strikers. On December 31st the men offered to resume work on conditions that the concessions made were adhered to, that men who had not received 1s. advance were granted an increase up to that amount, and that all men were reinstated. On January 7th the Emergency Committee of the City Council agreed to meet Mr. J. R. Clynes, president of the Gasworkers' Union. Negotiations were opened, and on January 13th an agreement was arrived at; advances already granted were to date from the time of restarting work, further claims for increases were to be considered on their merits, and reinstatement was to be commenced immediately and carried as far as possible. . . . The failure of the employees is due to a variety of causes, some of which are peculiar to municipal disputes. Generally speaking, the odds are against the men during disputes, and the odds are much greater in the case of municipal strikes. The public are the employers, and public opinion is therefore biased. The anti-labour newspapers are a powerful weapon against the strikers. The economic issues become confused with political ideas."—A. Greenwood, *Leeds municipal strike* (*Economic Journal, Mar.*, 1914).

1914.—General strike in Petrograd. See RUSSIA: 1914 (July).

1914.—Italian general strike.—"This general strike differed in principle in no way from the earlier general strikes which have been proclaimed as protests against police outrages since 1904. The difference lay only in the scope of movement: it was deeper, more inclusive, and more threatening. . . . The bloodshed of the 7th of June in Ancona gave rise to three different movements which had scarcely any other relation with one another than their common cause. The executive committee of the Socialist Party and the Federation of Labor proclaimed a general strike in the whole country immediately upon the news of the bloodshed [at Ancona]. Independent of this protest movement, and from 24 to 28 hours earlier, a movement broke out in Romagna which was led by a committee of Republicans and anarchists of Ancona. This movement was completely spontaneous, . . . and was cut off from all relation with the movement of the country at large by the disabling of telegraph and telephone and the cessation of railway service during the whole of the duration of the strike. After the mass movement in Romagna had overflowed into the neighboring provinces on the 8th of June, and on the midnight of the 8th was declared in the whole country, the union of railway workers proclaimed a general strike on the night of the 10th of June, without accomplishing anything further than the crippling and obstruction of the railway traffic in various towns of the country. This movement, which as a demonstration of power was a total failure, was conducted by the railway workers' union."—O. Olberg, *General strike in Italy, 1914* (*Socialism of Today, pp.* 418-419).

1914-1915.—Ohio coal strike.—"The settlement of the eastern Ohio coal strike on May 8 [1915] brought to an end a struggle involving 16,000 miners, mostly foreigners, who had held out for more than a year without resorting to a single act

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

of violence. The union that conducted the strike is the United Mine Workers, the organization involved in the bitter Colorado and West Virginia struggles. During the Ohio strike the miners and operators were in complete deadlock. Work stopped completely and no strike breakers were brought in. The issue was confined to the merits of the controversy and the endurance of the two sides. Through joint conferences and the work of mediators appointed by the federal Department of Labor, negotiations begun [in] . . . January [1914] . . . at last resulted in an amicable settlement. The issue concerned the payment of miners on a 'run of mine' or a 'screened coal' basis. The conflict over these two methods has occupied the attention of miners and operators ever since they began their agreements following their first joint conference in 1885. Since then there have been a few disputes involving strikes, but almost all of them have been settled by agreements. Throughout the country miners have very generally succeeded in having the 'run of mine' substituted for the 'screened coal' basis. This means that they receive pay for every ton as mined instead of for that which has been run over a screen. All coal mined is marketable under modern conditions, so the miners contended that they should receive pay for all that is mined. Ohio and the Pittsburgh portion of the western Pennsylvania field had remained on the old 'screened coal' basis, however. The Ohio legislature passed a law requiring the 'run of mine' basis, to take effect May 20, 1914. The old wage scale expired, however, March 31, 1914. The miners proposed to continue working on the old basis until the law should take effect, pending the making of a new agreement based on the law. The operators refused to agree to this and the mines were shut down. The struggle at its inception and until May 20 was thus in the nature of a lockout, and after that date was a strike. The operators based their action on the contention that the new law was unconstitutional. They secured an injunction restraining the state officials from enforcing it. In the summer of 1914 the federal Supreme Court declared the law to be constitutional. But the attorney general of Ohio contended in his argument that there was nothing in the law prohibiting employers and employes from agreeing to one price for coal going over the screen and another for coal going through the screen. Accordingly, when the courts sustained the law, the operators proposed a split rate of this sort. The miners refused. In the meantime many operators throughout the state had signed agreements with their employes to the number of 30,000, leaving the 16,000 in the eastern Ohio field still on strike. There was disagreement over a 'run of mine' rate that would be equivalent to the old rate on the 'screened coal' basis. The operators contended that the miners' convention had given each district the right to settle on the equivalent in that particular district. Some operators, particularly those in the eastern district, declared that the equivalent was less than 47 cents a ton, the rate which had been worked out for the state. According to the figures of the state mine inspector, the equivalent, taking the entire state as a unit, was a little over 48 cents, but taking eastern Ohio as a unit it was a little under 45 cents. In January, when the policy committee of the operators decided to start evictions and bring in strike breakers, the federal Department of Labor sent as mediators Daniel Keefe, formerly of the immigration service and at one time a leader in the longshoremen's union, and Hywel Davies, a former coal operator and one of the mediators sent to the Colorado strike. The coming of these mediators caused the operators to defer putting their eviction and strike-breaking policy into effect. In April Governor Willis called a joint conference to meet in Canton. This adjourned to meet later in Cleveland. The mediators and the chief mine inspector of the state, representing the governor, helped to smooth out difficulties arising in the conference, and on May 8 the negotiations reached a conclusion satisfactory to both sides. The rate of 47 cents a ton was conceded by the operators, and the miners conceded certain points in working conditions designed to relieve the operators from the annoyance of local strikes."—*Survey, May* 29, 1915, *p.* 190.

1914-1916.—**General strike in Norway, May 6-11, 1914.—Attempts to make striking illegal.** See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Norway.

1915.—**Clyde shipyard strike.**—"The strike of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers employed in the Clyde shipyards . . . began on February 16, 1915, and soon spread to nearly all the engineering shops on the Clyde, involving some 9,000 workers. The three years' agreement entered into in 1912 had come to an end in January, 1915. In their negotiations for a renewal, the men were demanding an increase of 2d. an hour and this demand had been decided upon even before the outbreak of the war. . . . On February 4 there had been appointed a government Committee on Production in engineering and shipbuilding establishments. . . . The chairman of this committee was Sir George Askwith, Chief Industrial Commissioner. He sent a letter on February 26 to both employers and workers in the Clyde dispute, which contained the following striking paragraphs: 'I am instructed by the government that important munitions of war urgently required by the navy and army are being held up by the present cessation of work and that they must call for a resumption of work on Monday morning, March 1. Immediately following resumption of work arrangements will be made for the representatives of the parties to meet the Committee on Production in engineering and shipbuilding establishments for the purpose of the matters in dispute being referred for settlement to a court of arbitration, who shall also have power to fix the date from which the settlement shall take effect.' The language of this communication clearly implies that the government then had the right to order a resumption of work. . . . Work was actually resumed on March 3. Employers and employees being unable to agree on the terms of settlement, the matter was referred by request of the government to arbitration by the Committee on Production. The award of this committee gave the engineers an advance of 1d. an hour on existing wages. . . . Thus the Committee on Production adopted at the outset the precedent set by the railway agreement of making wage increases take the form of war bonuses. Upon what principle the advance was fixed at 1d. per hour does not appear. The laborers themselves complained bitterly that the advance was not sufficient to bring the standard rate up to the level in other parts of Great Britain or to cover the rise in the cost of living prior to the war, let alone the advance in such costs since the war began. Particular attention has been given to the Clyde strike because its settlement marks the beginning of a new policy of the government toward labor, a policy which developed through a period of several months and found its fruition in the enactment of 'The Munitions of War Acts.'"—J. A. Fairlie,

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

British war administration, pp. 65-67.—For the Munitions of War Acts, see ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Great Britain: 1889-1920; ENGLAND: 1915: Ministry of munitions.

1915.—German attempts to promote strikes in United States munitions factories. See U. S. A.: 1915 (September).

1915.—**South Wales coal strike.**—"The South Wales Coal strike was not entirely due to war conditions. A five year agreement between the South Wales Miners Federation and the mine operators had expired on April 1 and a month earlier the miners had submitted proposals for a new agreement. At the same time the Miners Federation of Great Britain had decided to ask for an advance of twenty per cent in wages in all mines in England, Scotland and Wales to meet the increase in the cost of living. This demand had been, at least partially, met as a result of arbitration by the Prime Minister (Mr. Asquith) in April, whereby there was allowed an advance of wages, varying in the different districts, the exact amounts to be determined by the local conciliation boards. To the South Wales miners, this advance meant an increase of 17½ per cent on the standard wage used as a basis of negotiation. The 20 per cent bonus, if allowed, would have been equivalent to a 32 per cent increase on the standard. When the South Wales miners pressed for a revision of the five year agreement, the mine operators claimed that their proposal was based on the understanding that nothing more was to be said about the wage agreement. The miners denied that this was any part of the agreement and demanded such a revision of their five year contract as should allow them a further wage increase, operative for three years, and which should provide for the exclusion of nonunion labor from the mines. They had already given on April 1 the required three months' notice of their intention to suspend work unless a new agreement was entered into. As the time for the suspension approached and the miners and operators had been unable to agree, the government became concerned as to the effect of a suspension on coal production. Some of the miners engaged on admiralty work had quit work as early as June 18 and the prospect of a failure to agree on the nonunionist issue caused others to quit before the end of June. Government officials took up the negotiations with the miners and the operators where they had broken off and proposed a series of compromises for the war period. . . . These proposals were accepted as a basis of negotiations and the miners agreed to continue work for a fortnight on a day to day contract while negotiations were proceeding. The meaning of some of the government's proposals was not clear, and it was understood that Mr. Runciman, President of the Board of Trade, was to issue an interpretation of them. When this interpretation was issued on July 9, it proved unsatisfactory to the miners, who, on the eleventh, voted to reject the proposed agreement and informed the government that they would accept nothing short of a complete acceptance of their own terms. Unless these demands were granted, they were determined to go on strike on July 14. Public opinion was generally against the strikers. This much was admitted by the authors of the *Labour Year Book*, who claim that the public was not rightly informed as to the real issues involved. The government now decided to apply to the controversy the arbitration provisions of the Munitions Act, 1915, which had just been adopted. Although coal mining is not among the industries to which the Munitions Act are generally applicable, under section 3 of the original act the government is empowered by proclamation to extend the arbitration provisions of the act to 'a difference arising on work other than munitions work' if 'the existence or continuance of the difference is directly or indirectly prejudicial to the manufacture, transport or supply of munitions of war,' and if the Minister is not satisfied 'that effective means exist to secure the settlement without stoppage.' Mr. Runciman announced in the House of Commons on July 12 that negotiations with the miners had proved futile and that a proclamation would be issued which would 'have the effect of making it an offense to take part in a strike or lockout unless the difference has been reported to the Board of Trade and the Board of Trade has not within 21 days of such report referred it for settlement.' The proclamation itself was issued the following day, but it had no effect in preventing a strike. This took place on July 14. The miners felt that the proclamation was practically a breach of promise on the part of the Minister of Munitions (Mr. Lloyd George). The miners had always been opposed to compulsory arbitration and it was because they understood that compulsory arbitration would be insisted upon by the government that the Miners' Federation had withdrawn from the conference held at the Treasury in March. Later, they had entered into negotiations with Lloyd George to be left out of the scope of the Munitions Bill and had succeeded in securing the insertion of the following clause in section 3 of the act which authorizes the extension of the arbitration provisions to other than the munitions trades: 'If, in the case of any industry, the Minister of Munitions is satisfied that effective means exist to secure a settlement without a stoppage of any difference arising on work other than munitions work, no proclamation shall be made under this section with respect to such difference.' The government felt that with the miners' announcement of their intention to quit work, 'effective means' outside the act no longer existed, while the miners felt that a recognition of the justice of their claims would have avoided the necessity of a strike. The government had not set up a South Wales munitions tribunal to deal with violations of the act. The penalties provided for engaging in a strike are £5 per day for each individual involved. The government had felt confident that there would be no strike, for the Miners' Federation had given to Mr. Lloyd George and Mr. Arthur Henderson a pledge that there would be no strike in the coal fields during the war. The men, however, had largely drifted away from the leadership of the executive committee of the Federation, which had advised against the strike. The Minister of Munitions now established a general munitions tribunal for Wales and Monmouthshire, but the government decided that it was not expedient to proceed against the strikers. Negotiations were resumed with the South Wales Miners' Federation and Messrs. Lloyd George, Runciman and Henderson went to Cardiff on July 19 and held a conference with the officials of the union. It was agreed that most of the demands made by the men should be granted, including a considerable advance in wages. It was further agreed that no action should be taken by the government against the strikers and that every effort would be made to maintain and increase the output of coal. With these concessions, the men resumed work on July 20. The first attempt to extend the operation of the arbitration provisions of the Munitions Acts to nonmunitions work had proved a failure. A strike had occurred

which had cost, it was estimated, about £1,500,000 and had reduced the output of coal by 1,000,000 tons."—M. B. Hammond, *British labor conditions and legislation during the war, pp.* 231-234.

1916.—Demands of railroad trainmen in the United States. — Impending strike. — Adamson law. See Adamson Law.

1916.—Youngstown steel workers' strike.—"One of the most dramatic strikes of 1916 began very quietly at Youngstown, O., on December 27 of the year previous, and reached its climax in a riot on January 7, 1916, in which the lives of several workers were lost and a vast amount of property completely destroyed. This strike began when 300 unskilled workers walked out of the plant of the Republic Iron and Steel Company, of Youngstown, demanding advances in pay from 19½ to 25 cents per hour, time and a half for overtime, and double time for Sunday work. The strike spread steadily until at the highest point 13,500 men were idle. Of this number approximately 6,000 were strikers, and the rest were forced into idleness because of the strike. . . . Little attention had been given the strike outside of Youngstown until the riot of January 7. . . . A stone or other missile seems to have been thrown by some person in the crowd, either a striker or a sympathizer, at one of the guards. J. M. Woltz, chief of the company's forces of guards, fired a shot at the strikers, whereupon there was a general fusillade from all of the guards. Following this shooting there was an evening of wild rioting. . . . When it came to disposing of those who had been arrested in the most summary fashion, and whose homes had been searched without warrant, the . . . railroading process was resorted to. Strikers undefended by counsel and permitted to present their own case briefly if at all through an interpreter, were given thirty day terms by the dozen. . . . As a result of the strike wages were raised, hour men getting an advance of from 2 to 4 cents an hour. Company officials claim that the increase was approximately 10 per cent. throughout the plant. However, it must be taken into consideration that a year previous there had been a 9 per cent. reduction, so that the increase won by the strike but little more than restored the standard that had prevailed prior to the reduction of the year previous. . . . There was following this strike a most unusual anti-climax. The grand jury was impanelled while the strike still was in progress, to determine the responsibility for the deaths and property destruction that had occurred. Contrary to all precedent, this grand jury indicted President Campbell, Elbert H. Gary, president of the United States Steel Corporation, and the following companies: Youngstown Sheet and Tube Company, Youngstown Iron and Steel Company, United States Steel Corporation, and the Carnegie Steel Company. A total of 113 corporations and officers were indicted. They were charged with violation of the Valentine anti-trust act, a State law, and with conspiracy to keep down wages of common laborers. With this indictment the grand jury returned censure for Major Cunningham of East Youngstown, six members of the East Youngstown Council, and the police force. Mayor Cunningham and the officials were characterized as 'inefficient,' and 'unworthy to hold office.' The report of the grand jury charged that the riot was precipitated by acts of the Youngstown Sheet and Tube Company. In part the language of the grand jury report follows: 'While one shot was fired from one of the mob assembled around the gate of the tube company, the shots which precipitated the extreme acts of violence, lawlessness and crime which were committed January 7 were shots fired by the guards of the Youngstown Sheet and Tube Company. . . . We find that there is an underlying cause, not only of the strike and of the dissatisfaction prevailing among the men prior to the strike, but of the riot itself, a cause which will be shown upon the trial of some of the corporations and individuals against whom charges have been made by this jury.' The action of the grand jury, however, was of no practical avail. Judge W. H. Anderson dismissed the indictments upon representations, made by counsel for the defendants."—*American Labor Year Book,* 1916, *pp.* 51-53.

1917.—Mexican laws concerning strikes and boycotts. See Mexico, Constitution of.

1917.—New Zealand coal strike.—"Early in April [1917] nine miners—six from the North Island [of New Zealand] and three from the South Island—all prominent in Labour circles, were arrested on charges of being parties to a 'seditious strike' within the meaning of the Regulations, the strike alleged not being a complete cessation of work, but a deliberate and organised limitation of output. These arrests were shortly followed by a number of others. The police had apparently been working quietly for a considerable time, and upon making the first arrests seized a number of incriminating letters and other documents. A day or two after the arrests, and while the men were still in custody under a remand, a strike broke out in the coal mines, including the State Mine, on the West Coast of the South Island, and in all the northern mines except one. Owing to the continuance for several months of the 'go slow' policy, stocks of coal had become everywhere short before the strike was declared, and when the men ceased work the country was faced with the possibility of a severe coal famine. Without delay train and tram services were curtailed and urgent warnings to economise issued to the public. The Acting Prime Minister (Sir James Allen) and the Minister of Mines (Hon. W. D. S. McDonald) went to the West Coast to interview the strike leaders. The position was rendered more ominous by the fact that the men openly and emphatically announced that the sole reason for their action was Labour's objection to conscription. 'We wish to state,' says a manifesto, 'that we have no quarrel with the companies whatever. In the present instance it is conscription alone and nothing but conscription. The strike has nothing to do with the recent arrests, or the adverse decision of the appeal cases, nor is it the result of the failure of the recent negotiations with the mine-owners.' Such a position was somewhat difficult to understand, because the Military Service Boards were granting exemptions to all miners so long as they remained in their employment, and later events have gone to show that the reason given was by no means the only one, and that it was adopted and emphasised for the purpose of obtaining the sympathy of that section of opinion which was opposed to compulsory service in the Expeditionary Force. . . . On April 25 the welcome news came through that the strike was over and the men about to resume work. . . . On the same day the adjourned hearing of the charges against two of the nine men arrested was commenced in Auckland, and the Crown Prosecutor in a lengthy speech outlined the case for the Crown. Quoting from actual correspondence and official entries, he plainly exposed a deliberate organisation of a 'go-slow' policy, with open exhortations and threats to 'keep down the tonnage,' and commented with the utmost vigour upon the de-

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

fendants' disregard of the consequence of their action to this or any other country. The case was then adjourned till the following day, when evidence was to be called. Almost immediately after this came the news through a Labour quarter of the terms upon which the Government had settled the strike. They were stated to be as follows: (1) It was to be made plain to the Military Service Boards that every essential worker in coal and gold mining should have his appeal allowed; (2) the Government should do its best to arrange a conference between mine owners and the employees within a fortnight; (3) the Government agreed not to press for penalties in the cases of men arrested on account of the 'go slow' policy; (4) every man should go back to work as before the strike; (5) the delegates undertook to do their best to induce the men to resume work on April 25th and abandon the 'go slow' policy; (6) if any proceedings should take place the Government would not press for penalties. . . . When next—after some delay—they came before the Court a plea of guilty was entered by the defendants. The Crown Prosecutor referred to the settlement terms and informed the magistrate that the Ministers were induced to enter into the arrangement by representations—bearing every appearance of sincerity—that the leaders who had been arrested were 'really not to blame,' but had been 'forced into the present position by others who had not been arrested.' These representations may have been correct, added counsel, so far as the strike on the conscription issue was concerned, but it was perfectly clear that they were untrue so far as the 'go slow' strike was concerned, and that was the matter before the Court. He pressed for no penalty, but asked for an adjournment in the meantime, to be followed by a further adjournment, or possibly a final disposal of the case. The defendants' counsel repudiated the anti-conscription agitation as a reason for the 'policy,' and urged that it was caused by the action of the mine owners. The magistrate, in pronouncing sentence, stated that he was unable to recognise the compact made by the government. He was bound by his oath to administer justice without fear or favour, and he could not become a party to any such agreement. Sentences varying from two to nine months' imprisonment were then imposed. Next day the men were pardoned by the Governor and released. It is only right to add that the course [of the Government] . . . caused grave and general dissatisfaction."—*Round Table, Sept.*, 1917, *pp.* 829-832.—See NEW ZEALAND: 1914-1918.

1917.—Railway strike in New South Wales.—Resulting legislation. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Australia: 1917-1918.

1917.—Threatened railroad strike in the United States. See U.S.A.: 1917 (March): New railway strike; RAILROADS: 1916-1920.

1917.—Winnipeg strike. See CANADA: 1917.

1917-1918. —General strikes in the United States during war-time.—"In September, 1917, a general strike occurred in Springfield, Ill. The street car workers were out and a parade had been organized as a demonstration in their favor. This parade was stopped by the police and as a protest a general strike of union workers of Springfield took place. The miners were particularly active and the A. F. of L. weekly joined the strike. Later the deputy sheriffs were dismissed and assurances given that the right of free assemblage would be maintained. . . . But the most important general strike which occurred during the war itself (the Seattle Strike took place after the armistice) was that of March, 1918, at Kansas City. Here also the strike was sympathetic; this time with the laundry workers and drivers who had sought recognition of their union (a demand not sanctioned by the Government's war labor policy). There seems to have been little disorder during the seven days that the strike lasted, until an attempt was made to run the street cars. Rioting then occurred and the National Guard had to be called in. The feelings stirred up by this general strike may have been in part responsible for the creation of the Kansas Industrial Court. . . . At about the same time a general strike occurred at Waco, Texas, which was likewise sympathetic but this time with street car men who had been locked out. . . . A general lockout occurred at Billings, Montana, in April, 1918. It seems that in the previous year all the workers under the jurisdiction of the Federated Labor Union had quit work in sympathy with mechanics in the building trades who had been locked out by the Billings Employers' Association. The men who struck included icemen, city employees, gasmen, creamery workers, truck drivers and others. The strike lasted two weeks and was finally settled by the men receiving an increase in wages and a return to their former positions. But when, in April, 1918, the laundry workers struck for a further increase, the members of the Billings branch of the Montana Employers' Association locked out all of the employees affiliated with the Building Trades Council 'as well as the clerks, cooks and waiters, laundry workers, common laborers and teamsters in the jurisdiction of the Trades and Labor Assembly.' The purpose of the lockout as stated in the Third Biennial Report of the Montana Department of Labor and Industry, seems to have been to force the acceptance of the open shop. The trouble spread to other trades and a number of the employers were declared unfair and, as such, boycotted by the workers. Although wages were increased when the men resumed work, the lockout seems, on the whole, to have been successful."—A. M. Bing, *War-time strikes and their adjustment, p.* 30.—See also MONTANA: 1907-1917.

1917-1918.—Munition strikes at Bridgeport, Connecticut.—"The series of strikes at Bridgeport, Connecticut, are singled out for extended description because they illustrate so vividly the important factors of industrial strife during the war. A further reason for giving closer attention to this controversy is the prominence which it received by reason of the refusal of the men to obey the award of the National War Labor Board, resulting in the dramatic order of President Wilson in which he demanded that the men return to work. The Bridgeport situation is also illustrative of the fact, to which reference has often been made, that war labor difficulties were the direct outgrowth of bad pre-war industrial relations. Labor unrest at Bridgeport had long antedated the war. . . . In this particular case, for example, the Bridgeport local union—although with the A. F. of L.—was led by radical socialists. . . . Bridgeport was one of the first American cities to receive large war orders from the Allies and as the war continued from year to year their ever growing demands for greater and greater quantities of ammunition kept the manufactuers of Bridgeport working night and day—expanding their plants, taking on added forces of men. . . . Rents were soaring and the cost of living was rising even more markedly than in most other parts of the country. . . . Most of the workers believed that the employers were, as a result, rolling in wealth. And when the United States entered the war this belief was intensified by their knowledge

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

that contracts were doubled and trebled. . . . Furthermore, the leaders in Bridgeport were radical socialists to whom any profits were irritating and these supposedly large *war* profits especially so. . . . At the beginning of Bridgeport's war labor troubles the workers in the ammunition plants did not enjoy nearly such good wages nor such favorable overtime rates as did their fellow workers in the Navy and shipbuilding plants, located in this very same community and throughout New England—and the men were aware of this difference. Furthermore, their dissatisfaction with their pay was intensified by the fact that not only was their union not recognized, but that a systematic effort to crush unionism, by means of a blacklist and otherwise, was practised in Bridgeport. . . . Demands were made in the summer of 1917, which, looked at now, appear to have been quite reasonable. These were, among others, the eight-hour day; the right to join unions without discrimination; reference of differences between employers and their workers to shop committees, with arbitration in case of disagreement; a 10% increase in wages with a minimum rate of 60 cents for toolmakers and 50 cents for machinists, and overtime at time and one-half for the first three hours thereafter and on Sunday and holidays double. A demand for the closed shop was also made, but not pressed. These demands were followed up by a letter on August 14, 1917, asking for a conference. The employers thereupon went to Washington and in accordance with uncontradicted evidence before the War Labor Board laid the matter before the Attorney General, asking for criminal action. . . . Conferences were held with both sides, but no definite adjustments were made at that time. In February, 1918, the Machinists' Union wrote to the Remington Arms Company demanding a rate of 80 cents for toolmakers and 70 cents for machinists. The Company (whose contract contained a clause by which all wage disputes were to be submitted to the War Department) referred the union to the office of the Secretary of War. Thereupon the business agent of the union saw representatives of both the War and Labor Departments. The War Department referred the matter to its recently organized Industrial Service Section of the Ordnance Department, and the Labor Department sent one of its mediators . . . to Bridgeport to investigate. On [his] . . . arrival he found that some of the Remington men were out in protest against the refusal of the Company to pay time and one-half for overtime on Good Friday. The men were induced to return to work but demands were presented for wage increases to 70 cents for machinists (which was approximately shipyard rates) and 80 cents for toolmakers. After more negotiations the Industrial Service Section of the War Department once more took the matter in charge, this time dispatching Payson Irwin and a number of assistants to study wage and labor conditions in Bridgeport. In the meantime the men had taken a strike vote, which showed that they were overwhelmingly in favor of going out. Mr. Irwin, on reaching Bridgeport, induced them to stay at work, promising that the Ordnance Department would make a definite wage adjustment. In addition, Major William C. Rogers, who had now been placed in charge of the mediation branch of the Industrial Service Section, wrote to the machinists' union, promising them that the award would be made retroactive from May 1, 1918. Major Rogers, however, instead of at once taking up the Bridgeport matter was compelled to go to the Middle West because of a situation there that seemed even more pressing. Still more weeks elapsed, and no action was taken by the Government. And when on April 29 the men, already impatient with the delays, received from the contract shops a flat refusal of their demands, they took a strike vote, and on May 3 went out in twenty-two of these shops, and on May 8, at the Remington Arms Company. Major Rogers now hurried to Bridgeport; held conferences with both sides, and got the men to return to work by repeating his promise of an award by the Ordnance Department, retroactive from May 1. Because of the bitterly anti-union feeling of the employers, these conferences were held separately with employers and men. They showed how completely the manufacturers misconstrued the temper of their workers by blaming their troubles upon a few agitators. As a matter of fact the resentment of the men, because of union discrimination and because of the discrepancy between their wages and that of the shipyards, was almost universal. On May 23 a hearing was held in Washington before a special board consisting of Major Rogers, Major Tole, and Mr. Irwin. Both sides appeared before this board and presented their case. On June 8, having received the approval of the Secretary of War, the award was made public. But as is often the case, it satisfied neither side. Nevertheless the men finally accepted it. The employers, on the other hand, flatly refused to do so, and exerted the strongest possible pressure upon the Secretary of War to have the award withdrawn. Weeks passed, and the employers still continuing to ignore the award, a strike resulted in one of the large plants, and a strike vote was taken in all the others. Secretary Baker now telegraphed the men that he had referred the entire matter to the Taft-Walsh Board, and urged them to stay at work. The men, however, regarded the Secretary's action in not compelling the manufacturers to accept the award of the special board created by his own department as a surrender to the manufacturers' association and a breach of faith with them. On June 26 all machinists stopped work. With production at a standstill in the most important munition center in the United States, the War Labor Board took jurisdiction, promised speedy action, and persuaded the men to return to work after they had been out about two days. All of the manufacturers now agreed to abide by the War Labor Board's decision, and the union did likewise. Hearings were held in Bridgeport which lasted many days. . . . The War Labor Board was unable to agree, and after a great deal of difficulty Otto M. Eidlitz, a prominent New York builder and Director of Housing in the Labor Department, was chosen as umpire. His decision gave the men an eight-hour day (which had already been introduced in most shops), and established an elaborate system of collective bargaining. But he did not give them what they most wanted—classification with a minimum wage scale. . . . The men were bitterly disappointed. They felt that the Government should have insisted upon the employers accepting the previous award of the War Department. . . . In spite of the efforts of the national leaders to keep them at work, the men refused to accept the award and once more went out on strike. . . . A strong letter followed from the President of the United States addressed, 'on the joint recommendation of the Secretary of Labor, the Acting Secretary of War, and the joint chairman of the National War Labor Board,' to the striking employees at Bridgeport. After pointing out the supreme importance of orderly procedure and the acceptance of 'sol-

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

emn adjudications of a tribunal to which both parties submitted their claims,' the President concluded by requesting the men to return to work and threatening them that unless they did so, they would not be employed for the period of one year in any war industry in the community in which the strike occurred, that they could not claim draft exemption on occupational grounds, and that during that time the United States Employment Service would decline to obtain employment for them in any war industry elsewhere. The men thereupon, on September 17, 1918, voted to resume work. As they sought to return to their jobs, however, they found that the companies were discriminating against some of the men, refusing to reinstate them. The War Labor Board was notified that unless immediate action was taken the machinists would once more be on strike. The President now telegraphed to the employers demanding that all of the men be reinstated. . . . Following its usual practice, the War Labor Board appointed an examiner to supervise the application of the award, which involved not only the payment of back wages in many plants and the setting up of machinery for collective bargaining in the various factories, but also the establishment of a local board of mediation and conciliation consisting of three members selected by the employers and three selected by the employees, presided over by a Chairman selected by the Secretary of War, 'for the purpose of bringing about agreements on disputed issues not covered by' the umpire's award. This local board might have developed into a most useful piece of machinery but its organization was never completed and it never got a chance to function. . . . Whether the composition of the committee was responsible for the failure to organize the mediation board is difficult to say. . . . The employers had strenuously objected to that portion of Mr. Eidlitz's award which provided for collective bargaining of any kind. Nor were they satisfied with many of the rulings of the Examiner and especially with his very firm insistence that the election of shop committees take place (as was the War Labor Board's invariable rule) under his personal supervision. They were particularly unfriendly to the idea of a general local board and this hostility was very much increased by the choice of active unionists as employee representatives. It would therefore seem as though the failure of the Secretary of War to complete the board was somewhat more than an accident. Finally the existence of the local board came to an end by the resignation of the employee members."—*Ibid., pp.* 73-81.

1917-1919.—President Wilson's mediation commission.—National War Labor Board. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1917-1919.

1918.—Cleveland cloakmakers' strike. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1918-1919.

1918.—General strike of factory workers brings about revolution in Germany. See GERMANY: 1918 (November).

1918.—Rice riots in Japan. See JAPAN: 1918-1921.

1918.—Labor disturbances in Belgium since the armistice. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XII. Reconstruction: b, 4.

1918.—Textile strike in Massachusetts and Rhode Island.—"In May, 1918, a most serious strike occurred in many of the textile mills of Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Fifteen thousand men and women quit work and the entire industry of about 350,000 employees was affected. The supply of cloth for uniforms for men in the service was interfered with and the Secretary of War telegraphed to Mr. Endicott requesting him to endeavor to restore production. Mr. Endicott's intervention was successful and an agreement, by which he was given power to arbitrate the matters in dispute, terminated the controversy. A few months later, in July, 1918, 1800 weavers in certain mills of the American Woolen Company struck for the abolition of the premium system. The Secretary of War once more asked Mr. Endicott to use his good offices and he was able to bring about an agreement whereby the premium system, which had for a long time been a source of dissatisfaction, was abolished, a wage increase granted, and other contested points settled."—*Ibid., p.* 138.

1918-1919.—Seattle general strike.—"From coast to coast went the report that a revolution was imminent in Seattle. A General Strike had been called in sympathy with the shipyard workers, and no one knew what would come of it. Both before and after the strike, Government officials in Washington and other prominent persons, declared that Bolshevism had attempted to make its first appearance in the Northwest. In Seattle itself the tension before the General Strike is difficult to describe. Business men took out riot insurance on their warehouses and purchased guns. The press appealed to the strikers not to ruin their home city. Later they changed their tone and became more threatening, appealing to the strikers to state 'which flag they were under,' and if under the American flag, to put down Bolshevism in their midst. Many opponents of organized labor hoped to see the Labor Movement of Seattle broken by the attempt to handle a General Strike, and many old-timers in the Labor Movement feared that this would indeed happen. Meantime the people of the city laid in supplies for a long siege. . . . And yet, when the strike occurred, never had there been less outward turmoil in the city of Seattle. Ordinary police court arrests sank below normal. Quiet reigned throughout the city. Even the ordinary meetings of radical groups were voluntarily suspended lest they give an opportunity to some one to start trouble. In short, as a reporter from a nearby town declared, 'while the authorities prepared for riots, labor organized for peace and order.' And peace and order obtained. . . . The General Strike in Seattle grew out of the strike of some 35,000 shipyard workers for higher wages. The Seattle shipyards are on a basis of closed shop and collective bargaining between the various yard-owners and the Metal Trades Council of Seattle. The Council is composed of delegates from twenty-one different craft unions, (seventeen at the time of the first strike vote). These separate unions no longer make separate agreements with the yard-owners; a single blanket-agreement is made at intervals by the Metal Trades Council for all the crafts comprising it. This was the situation before the United States entered the war. In August, 1917, the workers had succeeded in establishing a uniform scale of wages for one-third of the Metal Trades men working in the city. Some of the shipyards were unable to reach an agreement on account of having clauses in their contracts with the Government preventing them from raising wages without the Government's consent. The Macy Board came out on the Coast to adjust the wages and instead of bringing about uniformity in the wage scale . . . [they] gave some crafts 60 cents per day more than they had requested and the great majority of basic shipyard trades 22½ cents per

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

day less than they were receiving in the other yards and shops, making a difference of 82½ cents per day between the crafts, which created dissatisfaction from the very start. There was bitter opposition to this among the Seattle workers, who saw themselves deprived of advantages gained by long years of organization and struggle. But the International Officers of various crafts involved had signed the memorandum creating the Macy Board, and the men, while protesting, refrained from striking for patriotic reasons, because of the war needs of the country. . . . For more than a year they continued work, though under constant protest against the fairness of the agreement, to which they constantly stated they had not been a party. Appeal after appeal was made, with no result. While continuing at work, the Seattle shipyard workers established world's records in the building of ships. So great was their efficiency that official records state that 26¼ per cent of all ships built for the United States Shipping Board during the war were built in Seattle alone. After the armistice was signed, and after repeated failure to get relief through appeals, the various crafts of the Metal Trades took a strike vote by referendum. . . . Ten of the seventeen craft unions declared for the strike, each according to its own constitution, which in some cases required a two-thirds, in others a three-fourths vote. Of the remaining seven unions, only one failed to secure a majority vote for the strike. . . . The vote was counted on December 10, 1918, and was announced and held by the Metal Trades Council to use whenever they decided the time had come. Meantime attempts at negotiation were continued. Failure to secure satisfaction, on Thursday evening, January 16, the strike was called to take effect the following Tuesday morning. The Tacoma Metal Trades Council took the same action. The demands of the men were $8.00 per day for mechanics, $7.00 for specialists of semi-skilled mechanics, $6.00 for helpers with a scale of $5.50 for laborers, eight hours per day, forty-four hours per week. . . . Many evidences point to the fact that it was the raise in pay for the lower-paid men which was most desired. . . . The Conference Committee which had conferred with the employers, reported that the yard owners were willing to grant an increase to the skilled mechanics but not to the lower paid helpers. The men stood together in their unwillingness to accept such an agreement, regarding this as a bribe to induce the skilled men to desert their brothers. The shipyard workers came out and the yards closed down, making no attempt whatever to run." —History Committee of the General Strike Committee, *Seattle general strike, pp.* 3, 8-11.—The strike spread to Tacoma, San Francisco, and Seattle, where the mayor (Ole Hanson) had announced that anyone "interfering with municipal functions" would be shot down, was placed under martial law early in February, 1919. The sympathetic strike failing, it was ended on February 11. The shipyard workers stayed out until March 10 when their demands were settled by a compromise.

1918-1919.—Amalgamated Clothing Workers' strike in New York. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1918-1919.

1918-1919.—New England telephone operators' strike.—"The New England Telephone Company operates the Bell System in Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Vermont and Maine. Some years before the war it had agreed with the telephone girls' union—the Telephone Operators' Department of the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers—upon the organization of a board of labor adjustment with equal representation of the company and the employees. Up to the time of the taking over of the telephone wires by the Government this board had had a useful career and seems to have functioned very well indeed. The agreement under which the board was constituted expired in December, 1918, and efforts to renew it had failed—the officers of the New England T. and T. Company claiming that they had no authority to act. In November, 1918, the same answer had been received by the telephone operators in reply to demands for a general wage increase. In the meantime . . . [members] of the Wage Commission, submitted to the Chairman of the Wage Commission [and the postmaster general] a report in which they made two important recommendations—that the Commission enunciate the principles of the National War Labor Board and that wage adjustment machinery be established for the telephone and telegraph service similar to that which had been created in the Railroad Administration. . . . The workers, thoroughly incensed at the treatment which they had received [and the ignoring of the report], ordered a strike for April 15, and insisted on their demands being met—not only the demand for wage increases but also for the restoration of the wage adjustment functions of the Adjustment Board, which, under Mr. Burleson's administration, had been abandoned by the Government. Mr. Burleson's answer to the strikers' demands was not to deny their justice, but to blame the workers for not having followed the procedure which he claimed had been established. . . . And yet public opinion seems to have been on their side. The strike lasted six days, spread throughout New England, and completely tied up the telephone system all over that area. Mr. Burleson, who in former strikes had been able to send ultimata to the workers and upon their failure to accede to his terms to replace them with others, found himself in this instance in quite another position. He was forced to send his representative to Boston, who, after conferences with the union leaders, reached a settlement with them. The workers received substantial wage increases (although not as much as they had demanded) retroactive to January 1, 1919; and the machinery for collective wage bargaining was restored."—A. M. Bing, *War-time strikes and their adjustment, pp.* 112-114.

1918-1919.—New York harbor strikes.—"At the Port of New York demands had been made of wage increases for longshore work to $1.00 an hour for straight time and $2.00 an hour for overtime, and late in September, 1919, the reconstituted commission for the North Atlantic deep sea district commenced its hearings. Upon its announcement on October 6, 1919, of an award of 70 cents for straight time and $1.10 for overtime (increases of 5 and 10 cents respectively), the men refused to accept it and quit work. The President of the Longshoremen's Association had been a member of the Commission and he, together with the other representative of the men, had voted against the award. He did all in his power, however, to induce the men to accept it and remain at work. The strike was led by men who had quarreled with officials of the International Longshoremen's Union. It lasted about four weeks, paralyzed the shipping of New York during that time, and through its interference with the export of food and other vitally needed materials intensified, in other parts of the world, the suffering which the war had already caused. All branches of the Government were firm in their insistence that the award of the National Adjustment

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

Commission be respected. . . . The award of the commission had provided that if the Government's efforts to reduce the cost of living should prove unsuccessful the case would be reopened on December 1 (or if it appeared at that time that there had been an improvement in the efficiency of the workers—the award calling attention to the lack of efficiency then prevailing). The cost of living did not decline and late in November the commission reopened its hearings and awarded the men a further increase of 10 cents an hour. In the meantime the commission had heard the Gulf case and announced an increase coincident in time and practically identical in provision with the revised New York award. . . . A strike which lasted three days immediately followed, and completely tied up every activity in the harbor. Appeals to the President for relief resulted in his cabling from Paris an urgent request to both sides to submit to the War Labor Board. In this emergency all of the Government bodies, including the . . . Railroad Administration, signified their willingness to accept the finding of the War Labor Board. The employers, however, remained obdurate, except that one of them submitted to the jurisdiction of the Board, thus giving their counsel a standing in the subsequent hearings. The strike ended upon the assumption of jurisdiction by the War Labor Board. Extended hearings were held which were marked by the most intense bitterness on both sides. The War Labor Board was deadlocked in regard to the issues in controversy, and the case was referred to an umpire, Mr. V. Everett Macy (Chairman of the Shipbuilding Labor Adjustment Board). . . . The umpire concluded that no case had been made out for an increase of wages over the Harbor Board's decision of July, 1918. The eight-hour day was awarded for a few of the harbor occupations but denied to the most important ones. The Marine Workers' Affiliation considered the award absolutely unsatisfactory and refused to accept it. On March 4th, they declared another strike which was directed not alone against the private owners (only one of whom had joined in the submission to the War Labor Board) but also against the Railroad Administration which had been a party to it. . . . The Railroad Administration, after insisting for a time that the men abide by the decision, finally granted the strikers the eight-hour day and wage increases, which were also conceded by other Government agencies. The strike continued, however, for many weeks against the private owners until settled by the acceptance by the workers of a ten-hour day with an agreement by both sides to arbitrate the question of wages. (*Note.*—The anomalous condition was thus produced of an eight-hour day for harbor men working for the railroads and a ten-hour day for those employed on privately owned boats. This resulted in another strike, caused by the transfer to a private company of a number of the boats owned by one of the railroads. The men claimed that the transfer was not bona fide but was merely part of a plot on the part of the railroads to get rid of the eight-hour day)."—*Ibid., pp.* 43-44, 51-52.

1918-1922.—**General strikes in Ireland.**—In 1918 a nationwide protest in Ireland against conscription resulted in a general strike of the Irish Transport and General Workers' Union together with railway workers and others with English industrial connections. The result of the movement was the abandonment by the government of its conscription program. Later in the year the school teachers of the country joined in a successful general strike for increase in salaries. In April, 1920, a general strike was called by the "National Executive" of the labor movement to compel the release of eighty-nine hunger strikers in Mountjoy Prison, Dublin. On the second day of the strike the hunger-strikers were freed. Again in 1922 a general strike was called in Ireland on the sixth anniversary of the Easter uprising. This last protest made by 300,000 trades unionists in southern Ireland was aimed against militarism and disorder. The stoppage of work lasted one day during which time the provisional government was reminded of and agreed to assume its responsibilities for decisive measures.

1918-1922.—**Latin America.**—A general strike movement was active in Argentina, Uruguay, Chile and Peru during 1918 and 1919. During 1918 a general strike of railway workers in Argentina paralyzed transportation throughout the country until the government directed the foreign owned railroads to raise their standards in wages and working conditions. This strike of the railway workers and other transport workers was the signal for several sympathetic strikes in Uruguay resulting in the passage of an eight hour law by the government. The Argentine steel workers' strike early in 1919 was followed by a general sympathetic strike. Port strikes at Buenos Aires and the long strike of the Argentine maritime workers (February, 1920-May, 1921) resulted in partial triumphs for unionism. Southern Chile suffered from a general "cost of living" protest strike in 1919, which was crushed by the government's declaration of martial law. The effective coal strike of 1920 in Chile suspended railway traffic, tied up shipping and was the indirect cause of various revolutionary disturbances which were repressed by troops. Non-recognition of the I. W. W. caused the lockout of 5,000 harbour workers at Valparaiso in 1921. In Peru the general strike of May, 1920, in Lima and Callao was the immediate result of a drastic compulsory arbitration decree and like later strikes of 1920 and 1921 was quelled by the government troops. Paraguay was seriously cut off from the outside world during most of 1920 due to the maritime workers' strike. Rioting subsequent to the dock workers' strike in Pernambuco, Brazil, in 1919 spurred the government to meet the preparations for a general strike throughout the country in 1920 with a policy of "vigilante" committees and deportations. Agricultural workers on sugar cane plantations in Porto Rico went on strike in 1921 for higher wages and a shorter day. Some of their demands of the early strikers were granted but the movement, becoming general was quelled by the government. A lockout in the tobacco industry took place the same year. During the provisional presidency of De La Huerta in Mexico in 1920 labor took advantage of the radical government's sympathetic attitude to gain many of their aims through strikes. Strikers seized the mines temporarily in some places and at Vera Cruz took over the direction of the work of the port. Many strikes were settled by arbitration of the government bureau of conciliation. "Obregon was inaugurated December 1, 1920. . . . His government included a large proportion of very advanced liberals, out and out radicals and labor leaders. . . . Obregon's obligations to reactionary supporters interfered, however, with the carrying out of the policies of La Huerta. . . . In February, 1921, occurred a great rail strike crisis which threatened to cause a break of Labor from the Obregon administration on account of what seemed to be his hostility to the rail federation and his determination to

defeat the strike. The issue was really confused, owing to the existence of rival unions among the railwaymen . . . [and other circumstances]. Obregon dealt . . . brusquely with the situation and was violently denounced . . . [though] the strike was settled."—*American Labor Year Book*, 1921-1922, *pp.* 351-352.

1919.—Boston police strike. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Police defined; BOSTON: 1919.

1919.—Railway strikes in the United States. See U. S. A.: 1919 (August-November).

1919.—Law regulating strikes in Colombia. See COLOMBIA: 1919 (November).

1919.—French metal trades strike.—Miners' strike.—"The strike in the metal trades, which broke out in June, was in strange contrast to the agreement arrived at in April, 1919. The difficulties encountered in this trade will illustrate the whole situation throughout France in June, 1919. The agreement signed in April by the metal trades had provided for either 8 hours worked per day or a weekly maximum of 48 hours with the Saturday half holiday. Later the workers claimed a minimum wage, specifying weekly payments for various grades with equal pay for women. Further trouble arose over the regulation of piece-rates and the question of maintaining production. The employers held that, although time rates were to be the same for the shorter day, there was no provision made for revision of piece-rates except in the case where, without modification of machinery, these rates would not permit the workers to reach their usual earnings. The workers replied that it was incumbent on the employers to transform their machinery and introduce modern methods. The workers said: 'With that [machinery] which we possess, it is impossible for us to furnish in eight hours what we furnish now in ten.' Other smaller matters of safety and welfare seemed to have been brought forward. Agreement was not reached; the metal workers struck and had not resumed work at the end of June. The miners, among whom the 8-hour day was in operation, also struck for a new calculation of the 8-hour day. According to the law of December 31, 1913, the day's labor in mines was to count from the usual hour of entrance into the pits of the last workers going down to that of the first workers coming up. The miners now asked that it should be counted from the first man down to the last man up. It was estimated that this would mean only 6 hours 50 minutes or 7 hours effective work. The official reporter to the Senate, in discussing this situation, pointed out that a great diminution of production was to be expected. Already France was in need of fifty million tons of coal yearly, to be obtained from other countries, and further reduction of her own production would be disastrous. Nor were the French miners any more successful than the British in maintaining production."—National Industrial Conference Board, *Problems of labor and industry in Great Britain, France and Italy, pp.* 163-164.

1919.—Lawrence textile strike.—"The Lawrence [Massachusetts] Textile Strike of 1919 was the result of an agitation for the eight-hour day made by the United Textile Workers Union of the A. F. of L. Beginning on February 3, it continued for 16 weeks with the support of determined groups of the workers whose slogan was 48-54, or the 48 hour week without reduction of pay. Early in the strike practically all of the English speaking workers and a few of the foreign element among the 32,000 mill operatives returned to work. The backbone of the fight included the Italians, Poles, Lithuanians, Russians, Ukrainians, Syrians, Franco-Belgians, Germans and Jews, in all between 15,000 and 20,000. The endurance and zeal of these strikers in an atmosphere of active hostility was maintained to a large degree through the co-operation of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America who did much to organize and finance the Lawrence struggle. The results were two. On April 12 a convention in New York City united delegates from the leading textile centers in New Jersey as well as from Lawrence and was the occasion of the formation of a new international union—the Amalgamated Textile Workers of America. On May 20 the continued solidarity of the workers together with the efficient aid of the new union caused nearly all the mill owners to grant the strikers' terms and take them back without discrimination.

1919.—Shipping strike in Atlantic and gulf ports.—"After the armistice, demands of the men for wage increases, for shorter hours, and for changes in union status threatened a stoppage of shipping. To prevent a strike, and if possible to provide permanent machinery for the adjustment of future disputes, the Shipping Board in June, 1919, . . . called the parties in interest to an industrial conference in Washington. The marine section of this conference was unable to come to any agreement, having been deadlocked on the question of preferential treatment of union men. Conferences continued but the men were unwilling to accept the wage increases which the Shipping Board offered, and the attitude of the private owners on the question of preferential treatment for union men was one of unalterable opposition. A strike ensued and for more than two weeks the entire ocean-going and coastwise shipping at Atlantic and Gulf ports was completely tied up. The settlement was a compromise, giving the men substantially the wages they had demanded, but not the preferential union treatment. The eight-hour day was allowed while vessels were in port, but the three watches which the men had demanded at sea were refused."—National Industrial Conference Board, *Problems of labor and industry in Great Britain, France and Italy, pp.* 35-36.

1919.—Strikes and industrial unrest in England. See ENGLAND: 1919: Trade disputes; 1919 (October).

1919-1920.—Bituminous coal strike in United States.—"The refusal of the administration to grant to the bituminous workers an advance similar to the one which had been obtained by the men in the anthracite fields led to a great deal of bitterness, and when the cost of living kept on increasing after the armistice had been signed, the men became more and more insistent that their wages be increased. It will be remembered that the agreement for the Central Competitive fields was to continue for the duration of the war but not later than April, 1920. The men claimed, in the fall of 1919, that the war had come to an end and that the agreement was, therefore, not operative. A convention of the miners was held which adopted a series of demands, among other things for a 60% increase in wages, a six-hour day, a five-day week, and the abolition of all penalty clauses. These demands were rejected by the operators and it was every day becoming more apparent that unless something were immediately done, a strike could not be averted. The Government had permitted the Fuel Administration to disband, and although it had been perfectly apparent for months before matters reached a crisis that conditions in the coal industry needed radical readjustment, things were allowed to drift until it was too late to effectively correct them. On

October 16, 1919, in an effort to avert the impending strike, Secretary Wilson brought about a conference in Washington between the representatives of both sides. At this time a strike order for November 1 had already been issued and the operators refused to enter into negotiations for a new schedule until the order was rescinded. The representatives of the miners, on the other hand, said they had no power to call off the strike and the conference broke up without having accomplished anything. . . . When it appeared that nothing further could be done to prevent the occurrence of the strike, the Attorney General, at the request of the President, procured from a Federal Judge at Indianapolis an order restraining the union officials and all other persons from taking steps to put the strike order into effect. This injunction not only deprived the strikers of any assistance from their national and local officers but the funds of the unions were tied up so as to prevent the payment of strike benefits, which the union had counted upon to prevent suffering among the strikers. The injunction, however, absolutely failed to prevent the men from going out and the strike which followed resulted in a tie-up of the greater part of the bituminous fields and involved more than 400,000 miners. A week later, Federal Judge Anderson, who had issued the original restraining order, granted a temporary injunction, including therein a most unusual provision—a direction to the officials of the miners that the strike orders be withdrawn. On November 11 the miners' officials obeyed the mandate of the court and recalled the strike order. . . . The men paid no attention to the action of their leaders and continued their refusal to work. Conferences were now resumed between the operators and the miners in which the Government took part. . . . The President, going over the Fuel Administrator's head, offered to the men a reference of the issues in controversy to a commission with broad powers if they would return to work on an immediate increase of 14%; the question of further increases to be determined by the commission. (*Note.*—The Commission, consisting of Messrs. Peale and White, Mr. Garfield's former labor advisors, and Mr. Henry M. Robinson, was unable to come to a unanimous decision. The chairman and the representative of the employers united [March, 1920] in an award which gave the men an average wage increase of 27%. They found that, from 1913, tonnage wages had advanced on the average 48% for machine and 35% for pick workers, whereas for day men, the increase had been 76%. Their award was a 31% increase for tonnage, and a 20% increase for day men. These advances are both in excess of the rise in the cost of living and brought the increase since 1913 in the wages of tonnage workers to 88% and of day workers to 111%. The commission refused to make any change in the eight-hour day.) . . . This offer was accepted by the men who had remained out on strike all this time, and work was resumed."—A. M. Bing, *War-time strikes and their adjustment, pp.* 98-101.—See also U. S. A.: 1918-1920.

1919.—Seamen's strike in Australia. See AUSTRALIA: 1919 (July).

1919-1920.—Impending miners' strikes in England.—Proposed nationalization of mines.—Reports of Sankey commission. See ENGLAND: 1919-1920: Labor crisis.

1919-1920.—Industrial conferences called by President Wilson.—Proposed remedy for strikes. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1919-1920; U.S.A.: 1918-1920.

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

1919-1920.—Great steel strike.—Twelve hour day and events leading up to strike.—Failure.—Public opinion aroused.—"The 12-hour day has always existed in the steel mills to a greater or less extent. It became universal outside of the sheet and tin mills after the power of the union was broken in the Homestead strike of 1892. The 7-day week was long regarded as inevitable in the essentially continuous processes, like blast furnaces, and until 1912 was universal in those departments. The 12-hour day and the 7-day week are under universal condemnation. Not even the steel mill officials defend them. In addition to that, they have been officially condemned by the stockholders of the United States Steel Corporation. In 1911 . . . the stockholders of the corporation at their annual meeting directed Judge Gary to appoint a committee to investigate and report on employment conditions in the industry. The committee consisted of Stuyvesant Fish, chairman, Thomas De Witt Cuyler, Darius Miller, then president of the Burlington Railroad, Charles L. Taylor of the Carnegie Steel Company and Charles A. Painter, a Pittsburgh stock broker. In their report, which was presented at the annual meeting in 1912, the committee stated that 50 or 60 per cent of the employes in rolling mills, open hearth and blast furnaces were working the 12-hour day. . . . The committee recommended to the officers of the corporation that 'steps be taken now' in the direction of 'reducing the long hours of labor.' That was in 1912. In 1913, the Finance Committee reported to the stockholders that nothing could be done unless the competitors of the Steel Corporation also adopted a shorter work day. Nothing was done therefore toward mitigating this evil by the Steel Corporation or its principal competitors until September [1918] . . . when the Steel Corporation announced the adoption of the 'basic' 8-hour day. This move, which was followed largely by the independents, did not mean a shortening of the working day. It meant the payment of overtime after 8 hours and amounted to a 10 per cent increase in wages, with the men working 12 hours as before. The Colorado Fuel & Iron Company, with a plant at Pueblo, Colo., is the only steel company that is known to have adopted the actual 8-hour day with three shifts of workers in the 24 hours. The stockholders' committee of 1912 also reported on the 7-day week. . . . This was followed by the appointment of a committee by the American Iron and Steel Institute to work out a plan for providing one day of rest in seven for every worker. Such a plan was adopted by the United States Steel Corporation and some of the independent companies, and by 1914 7-day labor had been greatly reduced in the corporation mills and many others. Then came the war, with its excessive demand on the steel industry. The 6-day week went by the board nearly everywhere. The Lackawanna Steel Company at Buffalo was prevented by the New York law from requiring its men to work 7 days a week, but elsewhere 7-day labor became general. In Pittsburgh even the rolling mills, for a time at least, were operated 7 days a week. . . . By a series of disastrous strikes, the most important being the Homestead strike of 1892, the attempted general strike of 1901 and the fight of the Amalgamated Association in 1909, the right of organization and of collective bargaining had been utterly lost. For ten years there has been no organization and no collective bargaining in the steel industry. Repeatedly efforts have been made to re-establish the right of organized expression. Repeatedly it has been crushed. . . . The first five

of the demands announced by the organizing committee which is conducting the strike deal with hours of labor and the right to organize. . . . It has long been supposed that conditions in the Steel Corporation mills were ideal because of the large sums of money expended for safety and welfare work. Many have believed also that the plan of the corporation for selling stock to its employes would so link their interest with those of the corporation that they would not strike. The corporation has, it is true, an excellent record with respect to accidents. In its safety work it has been the leader of the industries. Employes have subscribed eagerly for stock when offered. With a system of deferred payments, and the extra dividends offered it has been an excellent investment. One of the great fallacies of modern industry, however, has been the thought that men would ever accept, in the long run, any substitute for freedom or any bonus in payment for giving it up."—J. A. Fitch, *Strike for freedom* (*Survey, Sept.* 27, 1919).—"The strike in the iron and steel industries of the United States proved a failure. The leaders themselves admitted the fact on Nov. 23, 1919. When the call had been issued Sept. 22, 162,474 workmen out of 228,430 in the Pittsburgh district alone went out or were forced out; of the 162,474, over 60 per cent., or 109,455, were back at work Nov. 23, and the plants were running about 100 per cent. full on Nov. 25. In the Wheeling district, which held out longest, the strikers voted to return to work. It was estimated in the last week in November that the steel industry was working over 90 per cent., and could have been operating on a 100 per cent. basis but for the coal strike. The payroll loss to the strikers in the Pittsburgh district alone had been $29,604,-064. The Senate Committee which investigated the strike . . . severely criticised William Z. Foster, Secretary to the committee which managed the strike, for his radical sentiments, and held that he had hurt the cause he was trying to assist. The committee censured other strike leaders, among them President Gompers of the Federation of Labor, for their failure to postpone the strike when called upon to do so by the President. It also censured Judge Gary for not heeding the request of the President to confer with Gompers and other union labor officials in an effort to prevent the walkout. Concerning hours of labor and collective bargaining, the committee found that the laborers in the steel mills had a just complaint relative to the long hours of service on the part of some of them and the right to have that complaint heard by the company, and that they had the right to have the representatives of their own choosing present grievances to the employers."—*Steel strike fails* (*New York Times Current History, Dec.*, 1919, *p.* 428).—On January 8, 1920, the men still out on strike (100,000 in number) were permitted by the A. F. of L. national committee of organization to return to work. Those taken back lost their union cards. The national committee, however, reported a total of 250,000 paid-up new union members between August 1, 1918, and June 31, 1920. Through the pressure of public opinion aroused by publicity on the strike, a conference of steel employers, meeting at the White House, has since approved the principle of abolishing the twelve hour day in the steel industry and the executives have stated their intention of carrying out this policy. (No results were apparent in April, 1923, when the stockholders of the United States Steel Company held their annual meeting.)

1920.—General strike in France.—"The strikes and disorders [in France] which marked the year 1919, in which the strikers had been almost uniformly victorious, increased in strength and violence in March and May, 1920. The event of the year was a futile attempt to promote a general strike to bring about Nationalization. The movement began in May. It was led by the extreme section of the labor movement, which has lost much ground in the struggle between extreme and moderate policies. There was a partial railway strike; and the C. G. T., against the will of its secretary and other leaders, was stampeded into giving orders for a general stoppage. Various industries and occupations were more or less disorganized for a few days, but the response of the workers never approached anything like a general strike. The failure of the general strike was ascribed by the Executive of the Miners' Federation to hasty action of the railmen in declaring the strike; nullification of the efforts of miners, dockers, and seamen by the railwaymen on the Northern and Eastern Lines who facilitated the importation of coal; failure of undisciplined workers in other trades to carry out the rôle assigned to them of continuing to work; and lack of general support except among seamen and ranks of labor itself, the extremist element, which had forced the strike at a time when the moderates thought the country was not ready for it, having to give ground. There is said to have been a loss in membership of about 300,000 in the C. G. T. The Council of the C. G. T. decided upon an amendment of the statutes governing that body, with the object of making impossible a strike affecting either a group or the whole federation until the policy had been approved by the governing committee. As a result of the strike about 2,600 employes were dismissed from the railways. Some of these planned to go to Russia for railway service."—*American Labor Year Book*, 1921-1922, *p.* 259.

1920.—Metallurgical strike in Italy.—Wide social implications of the strike.—Employers forced to accept syndicalist program and workers' participation in management of industry. See ITALY: 1920.

1920.—Joint conference of the Trades Union Congress, Labour party and Parliamentary Labour party of Great Britain.—Opposed to war with Russia.—Demands of national conference. See DIRECT ACTION.

1920.—Effect of strikes on Federation of Labor in France. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922.

1920.—Railroad strike in Belgium. See BELGIUM: 1920 (September).

1920.—Strike against military service in Ireland. See IRELAND: 1920.

1920.—Plans for arbitration to supersede strikes in electric trades, United States. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1920-1921: One national and one local arbitration agreement.

1920-1921.—Agrarian revolt in Italy. See ITALY: 1920-1921.

1920-1922.—Industrial disturbances in various countries of Europe and Asia.—A strike in Sweden in the engineering industry in 1920 was settled by mediation. (See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Sweden.) A general railway strike in Norway late in 1920 growing out of the failure of negotiations in a strike of railway construction workers during the summer, resulted in the surrender of the workers after a fortnight during which a limited transportation service was maintained by the aid of volunteers. During May

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

of the following year the trade unions supported the seamen's union in a strike against reduction of wages, and a general cessation of work except on railroads, at the hospitals and in postal and telegraph services resulted. Public support failing, the strike was called off in less than a month. The transport workers' nine week strike in the Netherlands in 1920 held up international traffic for weeks. The strikers were forced to return to work under the old conditions but refused to make a wage agreement. A strike of metal workers was settled late in 1921 resulting in the reduction of wages. Transport and newspaper workers' strikes took place in Portugal in 1920-1921 accompanied by sabotage in several cases. Railroad, agricultural and general strikes in Spain during the same period pointed to a critical labor situation in which syndicalist propaganda made itself evident and was summarily crushed. The situation was reported somewhat improved in 1922. A strike of tramway men occurred in Constantinople in 1920 for a minimum wage and a forty-eight hour week. The first use of the boycott by international labor organizations occurred in 1920 when the Amsterdam Trade Union International called for an international boycott of Hungary as a protest against the official "White Terror." Confusion and division in supervision on the Hungarian frontier by the Austrian trade union committee and the workers under its direction, as well as similar difficulties in other countries rendered the boycott ineffective. Early in 1921, however, the printers union gained a signal victory for unionism in a successful strike against heavy odds of government persecution. Refusal to submit to arbitration the dispute leading to the Australian marine engineers' strike of 1919-1920 resulted in an edict of the government making it illegal to contribute material aid to the engineers. The strikers finally submitted and a settlement granted them a wage increase. Coal miners in Czecho-Slovakia began a strike in February, 1922. On February 7 about 150,000 miners of coal, mineral and salt mines were out as a protest against a reduction of wages resulting from the losses experienced by mine owners in their loss of Germany's trade. The settlement of February 10 provided for the appointment of a commission of operators and men to determine wage adjustments in relation to the cost of living. In March 60,000 glass-workers went out on strike, a deadlock resulting. In February, 1922, a lockout by the Danish Employers' Association of union workers who rebelled at a reduction of wages, was ended by a compromise. Wages were reduced but the principle of the eight hour day, also involved, remained unshaken. The longshoremen's strike of March 17, 1922, in Italy was called by the National Federation of Longshoremen in sympathy with the strike in the port of Naples as a result of the employment of non-union men there. More than seventy steamers were tied up in the port of Genoa, with cargoes including thirty of coal and twenty-three of grain. Feeling between Labor circles and the Fascisti ran high and a general strike of sympathy threatened until the government intervened. On March 29th the strike was declared off, the terms of the agreement stipulating that labor organizations in various ports may determine who shall be employed, non union labor to be excluded except on permission of the union. Industrial unrest combined with political agitation has been the cause of many strikes in India during recent years, especially since the first regular trade unions were formed in 1918 in Madras and developed soon after in Bombay and other industrial centers. In 1920 a steel strike attended by riots and bloodshed took place at Jamshadpur; railway shopmen struck at Lahore, Bombay and other centers; cotton spinners at Ahmedabad; engineers at Serampore; and numerous other trade workers in widely separated districts. The new labor office of the Bombay presidency established in 1921 is expected to aid in settling industrial disputes. The "non co-operative movement" for the boycott of the British government was put into effect on August 1, 1920. In Japan labor has become more conscious of its power since the rice riots and strikes have increased in number. Sabotage has been practiced by the strikers in several instances, i.e. the Tokio street-car strike of 1920. Shipyard workers seized the Kawasaki dockyards in July 1921. Strikes have been frequent in China of late years though they have not resulted in permanent organization. In 1920 strikes occurred among the Hong Kong workers, the Shanghai spinners, the "Student's Union," arsenal workers and railway employees. The seamen's strike of Hongkong, settled in March 1922 was followed by a stevedore's strike and a strike among cargo coolies resulting in wage increases to both groups. Hotel and restaurant employees lost and tea house workers gained demands, while printers, rice coolies and iron and steel workers got better conditions through strikes. A successful strike for better conditions and union recognition involving 10,000 colliery workers took place in the Hankow region during 1922. Railroad strikes later in the year suggested considerable unrest in the country.

1920-1922.—Warfare in West Virginia coal lands.—"For years the miners of West Virginia, led by the United Mine Workers of America, have been trying to extend their organization throughout the state. They have succeeded in bringing half of the employes within its membership, but the employers of the other half have so far been effective in checking them. The bloody scenes of the conflict that has raged in Mingo, McDowell, Logan and other counties have attracted wide attention. About two years ago [April, 1920] agents of the Baldwin Felts Detective Agency, armed with rifles, went to the camp of the Stone Mountain Coal Corporation in Mingo county and evicted the families of seven men who had aided the union in a campaign for new members. While these agents were waiting at the little town of Matewan for the train that was to take them back home, a shooting affray started between them and residents of the town who were sympathetic with the miners. When the smoke had cleared away, ten men lay dead. Since then Mingo county has been little less than a battle ground. The miners who had newly joined the union tried to secure a conference with their employers and, failing, went on strike July 1, 1920. For twenty-one months hundreds of these men, with their families, have lived in tent colonies on the Tug River. . . . The operators have discharged men who joined the organization. They have employed labor spies. . . . They have secured injunctions preventing any union organizer from appealing to their employers either by 'persuasion' or otherwise; they have . . . [used so-called] 'yellow dog' contracts which compel a man to agree to have nothing to do with the union so long as he keeps his job. Deputy sheriffs paid by them have . . . driven union agents out of the county. Martial law has been declared three times in Mingo county, and the state constabulary has been almost continuously on duty there."—W. D. Lane, *Black avalanche*

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

(*Survey, graphic coal issue, Mar.* 25, 1922).—Comparative quiet reigned throughout the winter of 1920-1921, but in April border warfare began along the river Tug, between West Virginia and Kentucky. On May 24, "an investigation of the violence that has prevailed for some months in the Tug River and Mingo County sections of the West Virginia-Kentucky border was proposed in a resolution introduced in the Senate . . . by Senator Johnson of California. The resolution, which was referred to the Committee on Education and Labor, recites that 'for a long period in the coal fields of West Virginia' conditions have been such as to lead to 'turbulence and violence and bloodshed,' and that these conditions are a menace to orderly domestic government and the general welfare and safety of the people resident in the disturbed territory. The resolution directed the Committee on Education and Labor to make a thorough and complete investigation of conditions in the coal fields of West Virginia and Kentucky, which are included in the zone of trouble; to ascertain the causes of the recent acts of violence and 'generally investigate thoroughly the causes which have led to conditions which have obtained in the past, and which now exist in the territory referred to.'" —*New York Times, May* 25, 1921.—This resolution was passed on May 27. The first hearing of the enquiry was held on July 14, when conflicting accounts of the disturbances were given. . . . Neil Burkenshaw, appearing as counsel for the Miners' Union, said a 'lock-out' had been put into effect by the operators about a year ago and that this had been followed by eviction of workers from company houses and the erection of tent cities to house 10,000 workers and their families. Burkenshaw's charge that continuation of guerilla warfare had resulted from importation of gunmen by the operators, who had 'set aside the constitutional rights' of their employes, was immediately denied by representatives of the mine owners. L. Taylor Vinson, speaking for the operators, said . . . that the Mingo coal field was 'today operating at 90 per cent. of its capacity, and its mine operators have both a legal and moral right to employ no men who join this union.' For twenty years, said Vinson, miners and employers 'lived in peace' under a scale of wages that permitted 'an efficient man to earn from $400 to $700 a month,' and that 'this condition persisted until the United Mine Workers sought to get control of the field.' . . . Fred Mooney, Secretary of the United Miners' District Union, charges that 'the principles of the Constitution have been absolutely denied.' 'The law gives a man the right to join a union,' he said, 'yet it is an admitted fact that the operators have built up arsenals on their properties and mobilized detective forces to drive unions out.' The charge that the union had imported 'gunmen,' he said, was 'unworthy of attention.' 'Our organizers are in there giving the bread checks to our men, attending to relief,' he said. He denied the mine workers were aiming to 'own the mines.' 'What constitutional rights have been denied you?' asked Chairman Kenyon. 'Rights to peaceable assemblage and the right to join a union. The attitude of the operators has been, and is now, that they will accept no settlement but an absolute surrender by us. We ask nothing except that they cease discrimination against union men.'" —*Ibid., July* 15, 1921.—On July 20, 1921, C. E. Lively, a Baldwin-Felts agency operative (strikebreaker) "asserted he had seen non-union men 'whipped, shot at and killed' for refusing to join the union. Skirmishes between the State police and men 'armed with high-powered rifles' in which three officers were 'shot in the back' were described by Captain J. R. Brockus of the State Police. Some of the assailants were members of the United Mine Workers. . . . A total of 273 families were living in tents in Mingo County, Captain Brockus testified, among these being 284 women and 1,304 children. Some of the men living in the tents were found to have come in the district from Kentucky 'at the instigation of union officials.'"—*Ibid., July* 21, 1921.—On August 20, 600 to 800 men assembled at Marnet with the avowed intention of making a demonstration against Mingo County where martial law had been in force for several months. By the time they reached Mingo County this force had increased to at least 4,000 men. Unavailing efforts were made to induce the men to disperse, and on August 30 the president responded to an appeal for help from the governor of West Virginia by issuing a proclamation ordering the marchers to retire peaceably to their abodes before noon on September 1. On September 1, a pitched battle was fought between the miners and a regiment of regular troops which was ordered into the district to restore quiet. "Following the [Senate committee] hearings [completed in October, 1921] Senator Kenyon filed a report in which he defined the issue in the West Virginia struggle as a 'clash of claimed fundamental constitutional rights.' . . . In the conflict caused by this clash Senator Kenyon finds violations of law on both sides. The mine workers have committed acts of violence—men have been killed, property destroyed, telephone wires cut, trains commandeered and an organized march partially carried out, 'which bordered close on insurrection against government.' The operators have contributed funds for the payment of deputy sheriffs, 'a vicious and un-American policy. . . . It is rather freely admitted that the purpose of this plan is to prevent men coming into the county to organize the United Mine Workers' and organizers have been driven out. Complete industrial autocracy, he declares, prevails in Logan County. Members of the United Mine Workers have been driven out 'by force, if necessary.' . . . The 'armed march' in the Summer of 1921, which created a state of border warfare between the Union and non-union fields, and for which union miners . . . [were placed] on trial [early in 1922] on the charge of treason, . . . highly charged the atmosphere of West Virginia with hatred and suspicion. The public attitude has been reflected in the action of the courts in granting sweeping and drastic injunctions against organization activities. . . . The injunctions granted in West Virginia against the United Mine Workers of America, its officers, members, agents and representatives restrain organizing activities in the non-union fields, including the New River District, Winding Gulf, Kanawha, Mingo. . . . In the Mingo District the original restraining order also called for the abandonment of the tent colony. This part of the order was subsequently superseded by Judge Knapp, Judge of the Federal Court of Appeals, fourth circuit, and the injunction remains the same as those granted in the other Districts."—*Coal controversy* (*Bulletin* 2, *May*, 1922, *issued by Commission on the church and social service, Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, pp.* 33-34, 57-59). —In October 1922 the strike in the Mingo fields was called off. "Officials of the United Mine Workers . . . initiated preparations to move hundreds of miners and their families to union coal

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

fields, as a consequence of the official abandonment of the bituminous strike in the Mingo field. 'The tent colony is populated by approximately 1,000 men, women and children,' said R. D. White, international organizer. 'We do not intend that these people shall spend a third Winter of hardship.' . . . International President John L. Lewis . . . pointed out that the strike had cost the union approximately two million dollars. During the twenty-eight months of the strike there were thirty known deaths. Fifty persons were wounded. Mining equipment, destroyed by dynamite and fire, was valued at $250,000. Four State policemen and a member of the Kentucky Militia were killed. One outgrowth of the strike was the killing of Sid Hatfield and Edward Chambers on the court house steps at Welch. Violence reached its crisis in May, 1921, when a battle raged for three days along the Kentucky border. Three men were killed. Mingo County was placed under martial law by Governor Morgan and the order was not lifted until a few weeks . . . [before the strike ended]."—*New York Times, Oct.* 28, 1922.—See also WEST VIRGINIA: 1920-1921.

1921.—**Rand strike, South Africa.** See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1920-1921.

1921.—**Duplex printers' case.** See BOYCOTT: 1921.

1921-1922.—**Great Britain.—Coal strike.—Strikes of engineers, ship builders and printers.**—"The average net cost of production per ton of coal in Great Britain during the first three months of the year [1921] was between 39s. and 40s.: of this cost 28s. represented wages. The loss per ton was 5s. 8d. in January, 6s. in February and 6s. 10d. in March. If control, with its guaranteed wages and profits, continued, the Government was faced with the need of a contribution from the Exchequer of about £5,000,000 a month. Accordingly, Parliament was asked by legislation to advance the date of decontrol from August 31 to March 31, and the Act was passed early in March. Thus the coal owners and the miners, who had been negotiating since November as to the future basis of wages, were left with three weeks in which to come to an agreement on the wages to be paid in the industry from April 1. They failed to do so [and] work ceased at the end of March. . . . It is not easy to defend the wages offer made by the coal owners before the strike. . . . The publication of . . . figures did much to damage the owners' case in the eyes of the public, and the impression was deepened by the disclosure of the fact that the owners had included in their calculations a profit to themselves of 17 per cent. on the 1914 wages before arriving at these wages rates. . . . To recount in detail the negotiations which preceded the stoppage of the mines at midnight on March 31 [1921] would be tedious and unprofitable. It is sufficient to say that they followed the normal course—a minimum demand, a maximum offer, several national conferences of miners' delegates, several alleged consultations of the rank and file, repeated meetings between the parties (each more 'critical' than the one before), amended offers, further discussions, and finally a decision. That decision was taken on March 30, when the Executive of the Miners' Federation of Great Britain telegraphed instructions to the coalfields for a cessation of work by all men employed in or about the mines, including the enginemen and pumpmen on whose labour depended the freedom of the pits from flooding and accumulation of gas. 'All notices must take effect, regardless of occupation,' were the actual terms of the order. For the first time in the history of national coal strikes, the men responsible for preserving the mines in a condition which would make possible an instant resumption of work were directed by the trade union leaders to leave their posts. Such a step had often been threatened unofficially on the eve of coal strikes. It was actually taken in the case of the Yorkshire strike of 1919. Now it was applied by the decision of the national leaders of the miners to every pit in the country. It was, some of them frankly admitted, a desperate measure. From the point of view of the miners themselves, as they must have realised, it could not but be a disastrous one. . . . In so far, therefore, as the miners intended to make their first blow their heaviest, they succeeded; but it recoiled on themselves. They gained by it a reopening of negotiations, but they did not shorten the stoppage or force the owners or the Government appreciably to give ground. On the other hand, they unquestionably alienated much of the public sympathy which had been drawn to them by the severity of the wage reductions originally proposed by the owners, and they jeopardised their own livelihood. This, however, was only the first of the reverses which the miners suffered. The second, and more far-reaching in its consequences for the rest of the trade union movement, was the virtual desertion of the miners by their partners in the Triple Alliance—the railwaymen and the transport workers. . . . The staff work of the Triple Alliance was defective. As a fighting machine, the Alliance lacked cohesion, co-ordination of parts, and speed of movement. . . . The Triple Alliance waited too long. They gave the Government time to fortify their position by the mobilisation of national forces and by various emergency precautions, and so robbed the strike of that immediate paralysing effect by which alone it could have succeeded. . . . The [proposed sympathetic] strike was cancelled after Mr. Hodges had made, apparently in the name of the miners' executive, a statement which was promptly interpreted by the government as a new peace offer. That statement, as reported, did not embody any new proposal; it did embody a proposal which had been submitted to the miners nearly a month before and decisively rejected by them, the proposal, namely, that the contentious questions of a national pool, and a national board should be deferred until a temporary settlement had been reached on a question of wage rates. The Prime Minister at once offered to reopen negotiations on this basis. The Miners' Executive refused the offer. The railwaymen and transport workers pressed them to accept it. They persisted in their refusal. Thereupon the railway and transport strike was cancelled."—*Round Table, June,* 1921, *pp.* 624-631.—"'It is impossible,' . . . [the miners] declared formally, 'for the Miners' Executive to accept a settlement except on the terms of the concession of the National Wages Board and Pool.' That was the opinion of their Delegate Conference on April 22. Some abortive negotiations with the Government were followed by a month of inaction, during which the Government completed their plans for coping with any untoward developments of the situation, while the funds of the miners' associations and federations were steadily drained. The miners were not entirely without resources. Their children were fed by local education authorities and their wives maintained by Poor Law relief. They mortgaged their offices. They obtained credit from co-operative societies. Other unions contributed varying sums towards the relief of acute distress. In spite

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

of this, however, it is beyond doubt that conditions of great hardship prevailed in many miners' homes. Negotiations were reopened on May 27, when the miners and mineowners met the Prime Minister at the Board of Trade by the Prime Minister's invitation. He wished, he said, 'to ascertain whether, in the time which had intervened since the last negotiations, they had acquired a real sense of what the situation was and were prepared to face the facts.' . . . From the point of view of the miners, the words just quoted meant this: 'Now, have you had enough of it?' And the truth is that the miners were really beginning to realise that they had 'had enough.' The struggle had continued so long, and the general public had remained so unmoved, that they were gradually losing heart. They did not yield at once. They rejected the new proposals made to them. But on June 4 the Prime Minister produced an ultimatum. He told the miners, virtually, that unless they came to terms with the owners and the Government soon, the subsidy of £10,000,000 which the Government had offered would not be available. The miners made a final show of defiance. By a majority of 435,614 to 180,724 they rejected the terms then offered by the owners and the Government and decided to continue the stoppage. The Government proceeded to force matters to an issue. On June 18 they informed the miners that their offer of a subsidy of £10,000,000 would expire on the following night. This was the turning point of the dispute. There were signs in some districts of a disposition on the part of the men to relinquish the struggle and return to work. The fissure widened. The solidarity of the Miners' Federation seemed to be seriously imperilled. Ostensibly the State subsidy ceased. But on June 27 the miners and mineowners found it possible to reach a settlement on the assumption that the grant from the Exchequer would be forthcoming, and, after some further haggling, the Government agreed to continue the subsidy. On the following day the Executive of the Miners' Federation issued to the rank and file a recommendation to accept the Government's and owners' terms. They admitted that 'the National Wages Board with the National Profits Pool could not be secured by a continuation of the struggle,' and they added the confession: . . . 'Every economic and political factor is dead against us.' In other words, they admitted defeat. A ballot of the members showed 832,864 votes for acceptance of the Government's offer and 105,862 against. On July 1 the House of Commons voted the subsidy. The same evening the agreement was signed and on Monday, July 4, work was generally resumed in the pits."—*Ibid., Sept.*, 1921, *pp.* 893-895.—"The past year (1922), even more so than 1921, has been a period of relatively few strikes. . . . But just as the year 1921 was marked by a universal stoppage of the entire mining industry for three months, so the year 1922 witnessed a nearly universal stoppage for three months of the great engineering industry, coupled for part of the time, by equally enforced idleness in the shipbuilding yards. In both cases the stoppage was caused by the insistence of the employers not only on drastic reductions of wages, but on a practically complete exclusion of trade unionism from any participation in industrial administration. After prolonged suffering by the wage earners and their families with no little sympathy from the public, the employers won complete victories. The other principal dispute of the year was in the printing trades, where the compositors (outside the metropolis) held up the entire provincial newspaper press for some days in resistance to a cut in wages, the struggle ending in a compromise."—S. Webb, *British labour and the depression* (*International Labour Review, Feb.-Mar.*, 1923, *p.* 213).

1921-1922. — **Meat packers' strike in United States.—Printers' strike.**—"The workers in the slaughtering and meat packing industry went out on strike on December 5, 1921. The strike extended throughout the country wherever the plants of the 'Big Five' packers are located. . . . Following their announcement [early in 1921] that they would terminate the agreement [in force until one year after peace was declared] the packers notified their employes that a wage reduction . . . would go into effect on March 14, 1921. This notice also provided that overtime rates of pay would apply after ten hours' work per day instead of after eight, or after 54 hours per week. It also provided for the continuance of the guarantee of 49 hours' work per week. The workers considered both these actions a violation of the existing agreement and protested to the President. . . . An agreement was reached on March 23, 1921 providing for the extension of the original agreement . . . until September 15, 1921. . . . On September 15 . . . the arbitration machinery was discontinued. . . . [Following wage cuts] there were no arbitration machinery to appeal to, and consequently a strike was called for December 5. There were three points of contention: Wage reductions, . . . validity of the strike vote, . . . union recognition. . . . It was estimated that about 50,000 workers went out on strike. . . . Secretary of Labor Davis made an attempt to have the points at issue between the 'Big Five' packers and their employes throughout the country submitted to arbitration or mediation. The packers refused. In Denver twenty-five members of the union were given short jail sentences . . . for contempt of court for violating a court order issued December 6 requiring them to return to work pending the outcome of wage adjustments before the State Industrial Commission. The union members contended that the case did not rightly come before the Commission. Union leaders and members in some cities were restrained by injunctions and in Ottumwa Judge Anderson restrained the picketing activities of the union members. The Secretary of Labor made a second attempt to have the parties involved submit to . . . either mediation or arbitration. The workers agreed to accept either, but the packers . . . refused. . . . In spite of this refusal conciliators sent out by the Department of Labor to various localities involved in the strike continued to try to bring about local settlements. On January 15 [1922] the strike of the packing workers in New York City was called off and the workers sought their old jobs on the employers' terms. On January 31, Dennis Lane, Secretary of the union, officially rescinded the strike order and the strikers gradually returned to work on the employers' terms."—A. Campbell, *Human relationships in industry, 1921-1922* (*pamphlet*), *pp.* 16-21.—The printers' strike called on May 1, 1921, was due to the controversy over the establishment of the 44-hour week in the printing industry. The International Joint Conference Council of the industry adopted a resolution in favor of this measure at a meeting in Chicago April 21, 1919 and reaffirmed its position in Detroit, September 20, 1920. On May 1, 1921 the majority of the Closed Shop Employing Printers in New York, Chicago, Cincinnati and Indianapolis began work on the new schedule. Where the change was not made the union printers

struck. The strike continued over a year later as an "open shop" issue in some localities. Individual settlements have been made in several instances.

1922.—South Africa.—Strike on the Rand.—"The strike of miners . . . in the gold mines of Witwatersrand and in the Transvaal collieries [in 1922] originated, according to a . . . statement of the Chamber of Mines, in a proposed reduction of wages in the gold mines scheduled to go into effect February 1, 1922, and necessitated by the declining price of gold . . . and the increasing costs of production. Native wages, the report states, have risen only 9 per cent above prewar scale while the wages of European employees of the gold mine, excluding the staff, have risen . . . to a gain of 55 per cent. . . . It was by a reduction in the cost of European labor that the mines expected to offset losses and prolong the life of the lowgrade mines. The white miners maintained that wages should not be lowered, and in some cases should be increased. . . . When the Chamber [of Mines] proposed to fix for gold mine labor the average ratio of 1 European to 10.5 colored, a decrease from an average of 1 to 8, the question of the 'color bar' which has long been a controversial one in South African labor ranks developed into a prominent issue in the dispute. Negotiations proving fruitless, a strike was called January 10, 1922. In the succeeding weeks coal and iron miners as well as other bodies of workers became involved. The prolongation of the strike was marked by acts of violence between the strikers and the police and especially between white and native workers . . . resulting in losses in killed and wounded on both sides, . . . Martial law was proclaimed on March 10, 1922. . . . On March 15 the strike was called off, . . . the original causes of the dispute [to be] referred for investigation and settlement to an impartial tribunal to be appointed by the premier." —*South African miners' strike* (*Monthly Labor Review, May,* 1922, *pp.* 196-197).

1922.—Germany.—Railroad strike.—"During the first week of February [1922] Germany was in the grip of a general railroad strike which had disastrous effects on both the economic and the political conditions of the country. The circumstances that led up to the strike began with demands for wage increases submitted to the Government by the Federation of German Officials (*Deutscher Beamtenbund*) jointly with the central trade-union organizations of manual workers and salaried employees. These demands were submitted on December 3, 1921, only a few days after the promulgation of the law relating to salary and wage increases for officials, salaried employees, and workmen of public corporations which involved increases retroactive to October 1, 1921, in a total amount of 15,000,000,000 marks to be borne by the nation, the States, and the communes. The new demands which culminated in a further increase in the basic salaries of officials by from 50 to 70 per cent and of workmen's wages by 73 per cent, with retroactive force, would have required an additional total expenditure on the part of public corporations of between fifty and sixty billion marks. In his reply to the Federation of German Officials the Federal minister of finance stated that it was impossible to grant these demands which had been made without the required consideration of the general economic situation of the nation, of other classes of the population, of the financial condition of the country, and of the foreign political situation. Thereupon the organizations withdrew their demands with respect to the amount of wage increases. At the beginning of 1922 the Government resumed negotiations with the central organizations . . . and the Federal minister of finance had come to an understanding with the representatives of the individual Federal States when the National Union of German Railroad Employees on January 26 presented to the Government and Reichstag an ultimatum which contained all the demands made of December 3 of last year [1921] and in addition the new demand that all the decrees and orders restricting the provisions of the eight-hour law within the railroad service be repealed and the Government bill on the regulation of the hours of labor be withdrawn as it involved unjustified discrimination against the railroad employees. . . . In spite of the warnings [of severe punishment] of the Government and the unsympathetic attitude of the public, including considerable numbers of civil servants and workers in private employment, the National Union of Railroad Employees by a small majority of votes declared a national strike to begin on February 1. The strike movement affected particularly the locomotive engineers. The number of strikers was estimated at 200,000, including 50,000 at Berlin. The strike was by no means general. The chief strike centers were in northern and western Germany and in Saxony. In the south, especially in Bavaria, the strike met with very little support. . . . The attitude of the government was very firm. . . . The President issued [an] order . . . which, among other things, had as a consequence the confiscation of bank balances of the National Union of Railroad Employees and the arrest of several officers of the union. With the aid of loyal officials, employees, and workmen—only in a few localities did the members of the Free (Social-Democratic) Railroad Workers Federation join the strike—and the calling in of the 'Emergency Engineer Corps' (*Technische Nothilfe*) the Government succeeded in maintaining on the main lines the most necessary traffic, especially the transport of coal, milk, and other food stuffs. . . . Not only did the trade-union organizations refuse to support the strike, but they also made strenuous efforts to bring about a settlement of the dispute. . . . On the assurance by the chancellor that negotiations as to the hours of labor of railroad employees and their basic wage rates and bonuses would shortly be resumed, the Federation of German Officials [following the example of other trade organizations] declared itself also in favor of ending the strike. . . . The strike was discussed in the Reichstag on February 9. The chancellor pointed out that the chief question involved was . . . not a question of hours of employment, but the right of workers in government employment to strike. . . . The chancellor finally requested a vote of confidence. The vote which was taken on February 15 showed that 220 members of the Reichstag, including the majority socialists, approved the attitude of the government toward the strike, while 185 members disapproved it. . . . [It is estimated] that the nation suffered a loss of approximately 2,500,000,000 marks. . . . A strike of municipal workers in Berlin which lasted a few days only aggravated in that city the consequences of the railroad strike, as it was deprived of light, means of transport, and even water."—*Railroad strike in Germany* (*Monthly Labor Review, May,* 1922, *pp.* 190-195).—See also GERMANY: 1922 (January-February).

1922.—Seamen's strike in France. See FRANCE: 1922 (August-October).

1922.—Nation-wide coal strike in United

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

States.—Course of events in bituminous and anthracite struggles.—"Unlike most of our coal controversies, the crisis of 1922 was nation-wide in scope and there were, strictly speaking, two strikes when, on March 31, miners in both the anthracite and bituminous areas stopped work. . . . The anthracite territory is 100 per cent organized. The stronghold of the union in the bituminous industry has been the Central Competitive Field, embracing Illinois, Ohio, Indiana, and western Pennsylvania—practically 100 per cent union—where the traditions of unionism are almost a religion. . . . The present system of collective bargaining in the bituminous industry has been operating, practically uninterrupted, since 1898. . . . The agreement of 1920, of which the wage award of the Bituminous Coal Commission was a part, contained the following provision: *Resolved,* That an interstate joint conference be held prior to April 1, 1922; the time and the place of holding such meeting is referred to a committee of two operators and two miners from each State herein represented, together with the international offices of the United Mine Workers' organization. . . . [The] invitation of the miners to meet in conference on March 2, the operators of western Pennsylvania and southern and eastern Ohio refused; the Illinois operators agreed to attend, and the Indiana operators agreed to accept only if the others could be persuaded to do so. The dissenting operators gave three principal reasons for their refusal to meet the miners: (1) The futility of such a meeting because of their inability, under union conditions, to compete with nonunion operators; (2) their contention that the strikes and separate agreements of 1920 disrupted the interstate joint wage movement; (3) their liability to legal action, since certain operators and miners had been indicted under the Sherman antitrust law for previous joint activities. . . . Following the failure of the miners to secure a conference, Secretary Davis, with the sanction of the President, attempted to bring about a meeting. The miners agreed to the conference, but some of the operators refused. . . . Relative to the operators' attitude in refusing to meet in conference, Secretary Davis said in his public statement of March 31: There may be faults on both sides of this bituminous dispute, but the side that openly repudiates its written and signed obligations has crippled its case before the bar of public opinion. The agreement expired on March 31. The operators persisted in their refusal to negotiate with the miners on an interstate basis; the miners refused to negotiate district contracts. The strike was called, and on April 1 there was a complete tie-up of the Central Competitive Field and of the organized outlying districts with the exception of a few localities where the agreements had not yet expired. In the anthracite field also, where negotiations had proven unsuccessful, production came to a complete standstill. The administration announced a 'hands-off' policy until such time as the public welfare should be menaced. . . . Operators in practically all districts in the Central Competitive Field offered conferences with miners of their own districts but continued to refuse to meet on an interstate basis. In these conferences the miners refused to participate, holding out for a meeting of the entire field. The operators posted notices of wage reductions and the abolition of the 'check off.' . . . Operators of Illinois and Indiana issued statements to the effect that although they had been willing in April and May to participate in State conferences they had now decided not to do so under any circumstances. This left the eastern and northern Ohio districts favorable to interstate negotiations and settlements. . . . In the anthracite field collective bargaining relations have been maintained since 1903. From that time until 1922, with the exception of 1920, when peaceable negotiations failed, there had been a record of peaceable settlement of disputes in this branch of the industry. The anthracite agreement provides for joint adjustment of wages and working conditions, a joint conciliation board, and the negotiation of agreements covering a period of years with a provision for their renewal at the end of the period. . . . [On] January, 1922, . . . it was voted to suspend mining on April 1 'in the event that no satisfactory agreement had been arrived at as of that date.' Conferences of anthracite operators and miners did not begin until March 15. . . . After three months of conferences there was complete deadlock. Meantime 99½ per cent of the voting membership of the miners voted to convert the suspension pending agreement into a strike. Thus on July 1 the stoppage became a formal strike and peace was no nearer the anthracite industry than on April 1 when production was suspended. . . . The refusal of the bituminous coal operators to meet the miners furnished the immediate occasion for the strike, but the causes lay deeper: (1) In the issues centering about absolute divergence of opinion of the operators and the miners as to the desirability of the interstate or 'national' agreement, and (2) in the fundamental maladjustments of the industry. . . . Response to the strike call in both industries was the most complete in the history of mine strikes in this country. . . . An estimate of the number on strike made by the United States Department of Labor early in August indicated that approximately 610,000 of the 795,000 miners employed before the strike were out at that time. . . . Production of anthracite coal was virtually suspended, only the pump men and firemen remaining on duty. In the bituminous field, however, in spite of the completeness of the strike, production the first week of the strike totaled 3,835,000 tons. As prices went up and it became profitable for nonunion producers to operate at capacity, weekly production rose and by the end of June it totaled 5,363,000 tons. The average weekly consumption was 8,000,000 tons. Thus at that time, from the standpoint of production, the strike was hardly 40 per cent effective. Then the railroad strike became a factor and production dropped appreciably. . . . By July 1 the lack of anthracite and the fast-fading soft-coal stocks led to a change in the 'hands-off' policy of the administration. . . . On July 10 the President proposed [a] . . . plan of settlement [to which] . . . the anthracite operators virtually agreed. . . . The bituminous operators agreed upon the general principle of arbitration but were unable to come to a unanimous agreement upon the arbitration plan proposed by the President. The majority favored acceptance, but operators of the Pittsburgh district, of Indiana, and a part of Ohio refused. The miners, although in accord with the proposal for the establishment of a commission to investigate the industry, stated it to be their belief that the wage issue should not be injected into the scientific investigation of the industry. They refused the President's proposal. . . . Upon receipt of these replies, having no authority to demand compliance, the President dismissed the conferences and invited the producers to return to their mine properties and resume operation. Assurances of Government protection

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

were communicated to the governors of the coal-producing States. Little or no new production followed. The miners remained on strike. . . . The anthracite operators made no attempt to open their mines. Members of the Pittsburgh Coal Producers' Association unanimously decided to resume operation of their mines and issued a statement that 'work at the mines will be resumed at the wages in effect in November, 1917. The practice of collecting union initiation fees, dues, and assessments, known as the "check-off" will no longer be continued.' Illinois, Ohio, and Indiana producers made no attempt to operate their mines. The Governor of Indiana invited operators and miners to a State conference, but the miners refused to meet the operators except on an interstate basis. This attempt failing, the Governor of Indiana declared martial law and called for volunteers to work the mines under State guards. National Guard troops were ordered out in Pennsylvania and Ohio. Infantry and machine-gun units as well as cavalry were mobilized. The Governor of Michigan took steps toward State control of mines in that State. None of these attempts was successful, however, and practically no new production followed. The administration, besought on all sides to end the strike, was powerless to act. . . . On August 1 President Lewis, of the United Mine Workers, again invited the operators of the Central Competitive Field to meet the miners, this time in Cleveland. Operators were divided in their response to this call, and only about 20 per cent of the tonnage of the central field was represented when the conference assembled. This number was enlarged, however, by operators from other States and producers from Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Maryland, and Michigan, with a total annual output of some 60,000,000 tons, were admitted to the Cleveland conference where . . . agreement [calling for immediate resumption of work and provision for negotiations between the operators and the United Mine Workers] was reached on August 15. . . . Supplementary agreements approving and accepting the policy set forth in this contract were immediately entered into by the operators present at the conference and production was immediately resumed by these producers. Other operators soon fell into line. . . . When, on August 30, the Pittsburgh Coal Co. signed, practically the entire 69 per cent of the bituminous industry which is organized went back to work on the basis of the Cleveland contract. Following the signing of the Cleveland contract, operators in the nonunion districts posted wage increases. Connellsville wage increases brought back the 1920 peak scale. Practically all of southern West Virginia is now on a war-time wage basis. Wage increases affecting about 26,000 men were made in the Alabama coal fields on August 26. The peace table provided for in the contract was set for October 2, when representatives of the United Mine Workers and of the operators assembled to consider ways and means of negotiating their next working agreements and contracts. Although not all of the operators obligated themselves to attend this conference, practically every important producing district in the country was represented. When the conference was assembled, operators from 15 mining districts, representing about 275,000,000 tons' annual production, were present. The three main objects of the conference were (1) the creation of a fact-finding commission, (2) the setting up of a joint committee to recommend ways and means for reaching future agreements, and (3) the reply to the request of Secretaries Davis and Hoover for a panel of 20 names from which the personnel of the new Federal Coal Commission might be drawn. . . . The operators refused the request for a panel of names for the Federal Coal Commission, stating that they had 'full confidence in the wisdom and fairness of the President.' The miners chose such a panel and telegraphed their selection to the President. . . . After the settlement of the strike in the bituminous industry, conferences in the anthracite field were renewed. . . . The miners refused to arbitrate. . . . Through the efforts of the President, Secretary Davis, and Senators Pepper and Reed of Pennsylvania, a new proposition was made to operators and miners which finally resulted in . . . agreement on September 2. . . . Except for the occurrence at Herrin, Ill., the strikes were comparatively free from disorders, the anthracite strike especially so. Intense union sympathies prevailed in Williamson County, Ill. On June 21 one of the coal companies of southern Illinois attempted to mine coal with strike breakers under armed guards. Two union miners who were reported to have gone to the mine to ask the men to quit work were killed. An armed mob stormed the mine, killed 19 nonunion miners, and wounded 30 others. . . . The worker's organization, through President Lewis, issued a statement deploring the tragedy, denouncing lawlessness of the sort, and denying responsibility for it. The special grand jury drawn to investigate the case reported back to the judge on September 23, bringing in 214 indictments. . . . As a result of . . . agitation Congress passed on September 22, 1922, a law creating the United States Coal Commission, consisting of seven persons appointed by the President, whose duty it is to investigate all phases of production, transportation, and distribution of coal and all organized or other relationships among operators and miners with a view to recommending remedial legislation. A separate report is to be made on the anthracite industry."—M. Gadsky, *Coal strikes* (*Monthly Labor Review, Nov.*, 1922).

1922.—Strike of railway shopmen in United States.—"The nation-wide seven-craft strike of the railway shopmen was admittedly the most extensive and complete tie-up of that branch of the railroad industry that this country has yet experienced. For practically three months this strike engrossed the attention of the country. For an even longer period it has partially paralyzed the transportation facilities of the Nation and endangered the safety of the traveling public. . . . On June 17, the representatives of the railway workers affiliated in the Railway Employees' Department of the American Federation of Labor addressed a letter to the Railroad Labor Board calling attention to the accumulated dissatisfaction of these employees with the board's decisions and advising that body that strike votes were in progress. The letter stated that, every effort having been exhausted to secure a remedy for the unjust conditions resulting from the refusal of the railroads to comply with the law and the failure of the Labor Board to safeguard and guarantee the workers' rights under the law, and since no appeal from the decision of the board was possible, the only alternative left the workers was refusal to accept the decisions, a procedure which, although deplored, was legal. . . . On June 28 a similar communication was addressed to the Association of Railway Executives assembled in Chicago, setting forth the grievances of these groups of workers and notifying the executives that the men had voted to strike on July 1 unless

LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS

immediate adjustment of their grievances could be provided for before that date. The men stated three grievances identical with the issues on which the strike votes were taken. The first grievance embodied the wage cut ordered by the Railroad Labor Board, effective July 1. The second involved seven working rules, fought principally because they wiped out the time and one-half rate for overtime and Sunday work; and the third concerned the practice of some of the roads of farming out their shop and maintenance work, thus removing employees engaged in such work from the jurisdiction of the Railroad Labor Board. The board, through the chairman, restated the position taken by the majority of its members in the recent wage decisions and advised against a strike. The carriers refused to take action inconsistent with the board's decisions. . . . On July 1, the date set for the wage decision to become effective, the 400,000 shopmen were reported by the unions to be practically 100 per cent out on strike. The stationary firemen joined them later, as did the clerks in some localities. Through the efforts of the board, however, the strikes of the maintenance of way men and signalmen were officially held up pending a rehearing before the board. In spite of this action on the part of their officials, however, thousands of maintenance of way men went out in the sporadic sympathetic strike which occurred throughout the country. . . . On September 1 one of the most sweeping and important injunctions ever issued was obtained by Attorney General Daugherty, forbidding [union activities which might be interpreted as hindering transportation]. . . . On September 25 a temporary order was signed modifying the original order by permitting the use of union funds for the relief of strikers' families and the meeting of members of the unions for other purposes than the encouragement of forbidden acts or of the prolonging of the conspiracy to restrain interstate commerce or the transportation of the mails. The scope of the order was also extended by further restrictions on picketing. . . . Following the suspension of negotiations between the 52 railroads and the representatives of the shopmen on August 25, Mr. S. Davies Warfield, president of the Seaboard Air Line Railway and chairman of the National Association of Owners of Railway opened with President Jewell the negotiations which finally ended on September 13, in the conclusion of . . . [an] agreement between about 50 railroads and the striking shopmen formerly employed by them. . . . It was more than 11 weeks after the strike began that this agreement (known as the Baltimore agreement), affecting about 50 carriers, was concluded. On October 27 the shopmen announced that 126 railroads had signed on the basis of the Baltimore contract. On those roads which have not signed this agreement, the strike still continues [April, 1923]. The shopmen report a growing seriousness of the equipment situation on these lines and the carriers report normal force and equipment. The carriers offer to reemploy striking shopmen, who have not been guilty of violence, without their seniority rights but with their pension-right privileges intact, but 'they consistently maintain that they are not negotiating with Mr. Jewell's organization.' On some of these roads employee representation plans are being put into effect. . . . As in the coal strike the issues which caused the railroad strike were later subordinated to crucial issues which arose during the efforts to settle the controversy. In addition to the three issues involving wages, rules, and contracting out of shop and repair work, two important controversies arose later on the establishment of national adjustment boards and the seniority rights of employees who went on strike. . . . Both shopmen and the carriers claim gains in this strike. Undoubtedly the extent to which either side won the strike varies on the individual roads, but on neither side are the winnings conspicuous. The carriers who have not signed the Baltimore agreement claim complete victory; those who have made agreements claim victory because (1) the shopmen went back to work at the wages and working conditions fixed by the board and against which they struck; (2) because the strikers have apparently retreated from their position that they would make no settlement except on a national basis, and (3) the strikers have given up the position that they must be taken back with their seniority rights unimpaired. The shopmen reply that those roads which have not signed the agreement will be forced to do so through inability to maintain equipment and that on roads which have signed, the contracting out of shops is discontinued, and disputes on rules and wages are to be taken up for adjustment locally or regionally. Their objections to local settlements, they assert, are removed with the breaking up of the national policy of the Association of Railway Executives as evidenced by the concessions of some of its members. On the seniority issue they contend that, contrary to the avowed policy of the executives, the strikers are taken back at the same places as before the strike, with their seniority to be determined by a joint committee. As a matter of fact, they state, this has resulted in most cases in the strikers regaining their seniority rights. Furthermore, they contend, the strike has halted the downward trend of wages of railway labor, has called the attention of the public to the violations of the board's decisions by the carriers, has resulted in a return to the pre-war method of direct negotiation between carriers and shopmen's organizations, and has demonstrated the ineffectiveness of the labor provisions of the transportation act."—M. Gadsky, *Strike of the railroad shopmen* (*Monthly Labor Review, Dec.*, 1922).

1922.—**New England textile strike.**—On April 1, 1922 there were "85,000 workers on strike in the New England textile mills: 8,000 in the cotton mills of the Pawtuxet Valley, and 15,000 in the Blackstone Valley, of Rhode Island; 33,000 in the New Hampshire mills; 13,000 more at Lawrence, Massachusetts; and 16,000 in other New England towns. The walk-out started . . . [in January] when the Rhode Island mills put into effect a 20 per cent cut in wages. The strike spread to New Hampshire and Massachusetts as mills in those States followed suit. . . . There . . . [were] two principal unions involved in the . . . conflict: the United Textile Workers, the older organization, affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, and the Amalgamated Textile Workers, an independent union. The Amalgamated [controlled] . . . the strike in Pawtuxet Valley, Rhode Island. The United [directed] . . . the struggle in the Blackstone Valley, Rhode Island, and in Massachusetts and New Hampshire. Both unions . . . put their case to the public, based upon investigations by economists and statisticians. The Rhode Island mill-owners, the first to cut wages, gave 'Southern competition' as the cause. Wages and costs of production in the South, they claimed, were so much lower than in the North that the northern mills were facing destruction. The unions tried to get the employers to submit the wage issue to public arbitration on this basis.

Both unions accepted the chairman of the Rhode Island State Board of Mediation as arbitrator. The employers, however, refused. 'Economic necessity,' they claimed, dictated the cut. . . . There was 'nothing to arbitrate.' This stand of the Rhode Island employers necessitated an appeal to the people by the unions. From that time on, week by week, and as the strike spread northward, the two unions have made public in press statements and paid advertisements the economic facts upon which their claims are based. These facts have been centered upon the leading mills in the three strike centers: the Consolidated Textile Corporation in Rhode Island; the Amoskeag Manufacturing Company in Manchester, New Hampshire; and the Pacific Mills in Lawrence, Massachusetts. . . . Both unions, in every locality where their members are on strike, . . . offered to submit the wage question to impartial arbitration. The mill-owners, on the other hand (with the possible exception of the Pacific Mills), . . . refused [to make a public statement or] . . . to submit their case to arbitration."—E. Clark, *Textile force vs. textile facts* (*Nation, Apr.* 19, 1922, *pp.* 463-464).—In Rhode Island the strikers made two demands: the withdrawal of the 20 per cent wage reduction announced to take effect in January, 1922 and a working week of 48 hours. In the Blackstone Valley some of the larger and more important mills already operated on the 48 hour week basis and so when they capitulated on the wage issue the strike was settled. In the Pawtuxet Valley some of the plants granted a wage increase that offset the reduction but held out on the longer hours. In those instances the strike remained in effect. In September a number of the Rhode Island companies had acceded to the demands of the strikers. However, on September 27 the Amalgamated Textile Workers, who have been conducting the strike in the Pawtuxet Valley, announced that the strike had been resumed against the mills of the B. B. and R. Knight Company in the towns of Natick, Arctic, Centerville, Riverpoint and Pontiac and against the Hope mill of the Goddard and Haines Company. When the strike was settled it had been agreed that the workers would be taken back without discrimination, but when these mills opened and the operatives reported for work it appears that certain of them were not permitted to resume their places. The workers considered this discrimination in violation of the settlement and so the strike was resumed. In New Hampshire the strike also involved both wages and hours. Here the 48 hour week had previously been established but when the wage decrease was announced in February it was also announced that the working hours would be increased from 48 to 54 per week. On August 2 the striking employes of the Newmarket Manufacturing Company returned to work on a basis of 50 hours per week and a restoration of the wage scale to rates in effect prior to the strike. This compromise on the hour issue was a local incident only and was not accepted by strikers in other parts of the state. On September 10 the Amoskeag Manufacturing Company of Manchester announced that beginning Monday September 11 the wage scale in effect prior to the February reduction would be restored, but that the 48 hour demand would not be granted. When the mills were opened Monday morning on this basis, few workers returned. In Massachusetts the strike was caused by the announcement of a twenty per cent wage reduction. The question of the lengthening of the working hours did not enter into the controversy here because the state 48-hour law for women established it as a standard for the industry. On August 16 it was announced that beginning October 1 the Pacific mills in Lawrence would restore the rate of wages that existed prior to the announced reduction, provided that the employes would return to work at once and accept the 20 per cent reduction until that time. This offer was rejected by all four unions in Lawrence and they established a joint committee to carry on the strike. The length of this strike in the various textile centers, the endurance of the strikers and the gradual concessions to their demands make this textile strike of outstanding interest. (By the middle of April, 1923 most of the demands of the strikers had been granted.)

1923.—Passive resistance strike in Ruhr district, Germany. See GERMANY: 1923 (January).

See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL; BLACKLIST, INDUSTRIAL; BOYCOTT; DIRECT ACTION.

ALSO IN: G. Sorel, *Reflections on violence.*—S. N. Janes, *Control of strikes in American trade unions.*—A. D. Lewis, *Syndicalism and the general strike.*—C. D. Wright, *Battles of labor.*—W. Z. Foster, *Great steel strike.*

LABOR UNIONS. See LABOR ORGANIZATION.

LABORERS, Statute of (1562). See ENGLAND: 1558-1603: Age of Elizabeth: Industrial regulations.

LABORING CLASSES: Education of. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education.

LABOR'S NATIONAL PEACE COUNCIL, organization in the United States, financed by Franz von Rintelen. See U.S.A.: 1914-1917.

LABOURDONNAIS, Bertrand François Mahé, Comte de (1699-1753), French naval officer. Served with the French East India Company; governor-general of Ile de France and Ile de Bourbon, 1735; recalled to France, 1748. See INDIA: 1743-1752.

LABRADOR: Name.—Labrador, a great peninsula in British North America, between the North Atlantic and Hudson bay, is so called from the circumstance that Cortereal in the year 1500 stole thence a cargo of Indians for slaves. Another derivation is given by Dr. George Johnson in a communication to the *National Geographic Magazine* of Sept., 1906, stating that the name *Labrador* was originally given to the land by Cabot, who in 1498 made a voyage from Bristol, England, and identified the territory as Greenland according to the description given him in Portugal by a certain Llavrador (land owner) in 1492. Under Settlers Patent of March 28, 1876, Newfoundland exercises jurisdiction along the coast where the fisheries constitute one of the chief industries of the people of Newfoundland. The rest of the peninsula forms part of the province of Quebec, including the whole of the northern section which was formerly the unorganized territory of Ungava.

Area and population. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent; CANADA: Map.

Boundary question.—Growth in importance of the country.—"After the conquest in 1763, when Canada was ceded to Great Britain, Labrador was assigned to Newfoundland. Eleven years later, under the terms of the Quebec act, it was transferred to Canada. [See CANADA: 1763-1774.] . . . In 1809, however, the Labrador coast was restored to Newfoundland. But . . . there appears to have been considerable indefiniteness as to what this really meant. . . . No new enactments [since 1825] have been made . . . [nor] has anything been done to define the line of demarkation. This line, which is supposed to extend from Anse

Sablon, in the Straits of Belle Isle, to Cape Chidley, a point jutting into the Hudson Straits, has an approximate length of 600 miles. It is for the purpose of making this long-deferred demarkation that [a] commission [was] appointed (in 1920). Why was this boundary question not settled generations ago? The answer is that Labrador's importance lay altogether in its famous cod fisheries and in the peltries which the Indians gathered for the Hudson Bay Company. As far as population is concerned, its importance is almost nil, for though, during the fishing season, some 15,000 Newfoundlanders flock to its coast, normally its inhabitants do not exceed 3,500. . . . Within the last decade, however, largely through the enterprise of adventurous travelers, most of whom were Americans, and the excursions of Dr. W. T. Grenfell, the famous medical missionary, it has been discovered that the interior of Labrador possesses in addition to enormous game resources, vast commercial possibilities. This is particularly true of its forest resources. . . . The principal interest in those forests lies in the discovery that they contain vast resources in pulpwood for the manufacture of paper."—W. L. Edmonds, *Canada's dispute over Labrador* (*New York Times Current History, Feb.*, 1921).

LA BRUYERE, Jean de (1645-1696), French prose writer. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1608-1715.

LABUAN, island six miles off the northwest coast of Borneo. It was ceded to the British empire by the sultan of Brunei, 1846; the administration of the island was intrusted to the British North Borneo Company, 1889. See BORNEO: 1521-1846; 1865-1890.

LABYRINTH, name applied during the World War to an elaborate system of German trenches and tunnels about two and one-half miles north of Arras and two miles south of Vimy Ridge.

Battle of. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: a, 6; d.

LABYRINTHS, MAZES.—"The Labyrinths of the classical age and the quaint devices of later times, the Mazes, of which they were the prototypes, present to the archaeologist a subject of investigation which hitherto has not received that degree of attention of which it appears so well deserving. . . . Labyrinths may be divided into several distinct classes, comprising complicated ranges of caverns, architectural labyrinths or sepulchral buildings, tortuous devices indicated by coloured marbles or cut in turf, and topiary labyrinths or mazes formed by clipped hedges. . . . Of the first class we may instance the labyrinth near Nauplia in Argolis, termed that of the Cyclops, and described by Strabo; also the celebrated Cretan example, which from the observations of modern travellers is supposed to have consisted of a series of caves, resembling in some degree the catacombs of Rome or Paris. It has been questioned, however, whether such a labyrinth actually existed. . . . Of architectural labyrinths, the most extraordinary specimen was without doubt that at the southern end of the lake Mœris in Egypt, and about thirty miles from Arsinoe. Herodotus, who describes it very distinctly, says that . . . it consisted of twelve covered courts, 1,500 subterranean chambers, in which the bodies of the Egyptian princes and the sacred crocodiles were interred, and of as many chambers above ground, which last only he was permitted to enter."—E. Trollope, *Notices of ancient and mediaeval labyrinths* (*Archaeological Journal, v.* 15).—There is a fine specimen of an old maze constructed of leaf-covered hedges in the Hampton Court Palace grounds near London.—See also ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Excavations and antiquities: Cretan area.

ALSO IN: Herodotus, *History, bk. 2, ch.* 148.

LACEDÆMON, ancient name of Sparta, and now of the nomarchy in which it is located. See SPARTA.

LA CHAPELLE-AUX-SAINTS, cave of France in the department of Corréze. Some remains of prehistoric man were discovered here in 1908. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Neanderthal skeleton.

LA CHAUSSÉE, Pierre Claude Nivelle de (1692-1754), French dramatist. See DRAMA: 1700-1799.

LACHINE CANAL, Canada. See CANALS: American: Great Lakes and St. Lawrence system.

LACHMANN, Karl Konrad Friedrich Wilhelm (1793-1851), German scholar, critic and philologist.

LACLÈDE, Pierre Ligueste. See LIGUESTE, PIERRE LACLÈDE.

LACONIA, geographical division of ancient Greece in the southeastern part of the Peloponnesus, the present nomarchy of Lacedæmon. See SPARTA: City; GREECE: Map of ancient Greece.

LACONIA, Cunard liner, torpedoed by the Germans in 1917. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VII. United States and the war: b.

LACONIA, name first applied to a region in New England, granted to Mason and Gorges in 1629. See NEW ENGLAND: 1621-1631.

LADAKH, district of British India in the east central part of Kashmir. It was originally a province of Tibet. See TIBET: Name.

LADD, WILLIAM (1778-1841), American philanthropist and advocate of peace. See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Former projects; PEACE MOVEMENT: Peace organizations.

LADE, Naval battle of (495 B.C.). See PERSIA: B. C. 521-493.

LADIES' CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION, later called the Ladies' Christian Union and Young Women's Christian Association. See Y. W. C. A.: 1858-1866.

LADIES' LAND LEAGUE, Ireland. See IRELAND: 1881-1882.

LADIES' PEACE (1529). See ITALY: 1527-1529.

LADIES' VOLUNTEER RELIEF ASSOCIATION, society of Providence. It rendered valuable service during the Civil War. See RHODE ISLAND: 1861-1865.

LADISLAUS, or Ladislas I, Saint (1040-1095), king of Hungary, 1077-1095. See HUNGARY: 972-1116.

Ladislaus II (c. 1134-1162), king of Hungary.

Ladislaus III (c. 1185-1205), king of Hungary, 1204-1205.

Ladislaus IV, the Kumanian (1262-1290), king of Hungary, 1272-1290. See HUNGARY: 1116-1301.

Ladislaus V, the Posthumus (1440-1457), king of Hungary and Bohemia, 1444-1457. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442; 1442-1458; BOHEMIA: 1434-1457.

Ladislaus VI (c. 1450-1516), king of Bohemia, 1471-1516; king of Hungary, 1490-1516. He was the son of Casimir, king of Poland. See BOHEMIA: 1458-1471; HUNGARY: 1471-1487; 1487-1526; AUSTRIA: 1437-1516; 1471-1491.

Ladislaus (c. 1379-1414), king of Naples, 1386-1414. See ITALY (Southern): 1386-1414.

LADISLAUS, kings of Poland. See WLADISLAUS.

LADOCEA, or Ladokeia, Battle of.—Fought in what was called the Cleomenic War, between Cleomenes, king of Sparta, and the Achæan League, 226 B.C. The battle was fought near the city

of Megalopolis, in Arcadia, which belonged to the League and which was threatened by Cleomenes. The latter won a complete victory, and Lydiades, of Megalopolis, one of the noblest of the later Greeks, was slain.

LADRONE, or MARIANNES, ISLANDS. See MARIANNES; GUAM.

LADY: Original use of the title.—"Hlæfdige," the Saxon word from which our modern English word "lady" comes, was the highest female title among the West Saxons, being reserved for the king's wife.—E. A. Freeman, *History of the Norman conquest of England, v.* 1, *note F.*

LADY DAY, March 25, a quarter day in England. See QUARTER DAYS.

LADY OF THE CASTLE. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1100-1400.

LADY OF THE ENGLISH.—By the West Saxons, the king's wife was called Lady, and when the Wessex king ruled England, his queen was known as the Lady of the English.

LADYSMITH, city north of the Tugela river in Natal, South Africa. Founded in 1851 and named in honor of the wife of Sir Harry Smith, governor of Cape Colony, 1847-1852. During the Boer War (1899-1902) it sustained a long siege by the Boers until relieved by General Buller, Feb. 28, 1900. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (October-December); 1900 (January-February).

LAEGD, system of boarding the poor at farms in Norway. See CHARITIES: Norway: 1845-1866.

LÆNLAND.—"Either bookland or folkland could be leased out by its holders [in early England]; and, under the name of 'lænland,' held by free cultivators."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England, v.* 1, *ch.* 5, *sect.* 36.

ALSO IN: J. M. Kemble, *Saxons in England, bk.* 1, *ch.* 11.

LAËNNEC, René Théophile Hyacinthe (1781-1826), French physician. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Rise of modern clinical medicine.

LÆTI, LÆT, LAZZI.—"Families of the conquered tribes of Germany, who were forcibly settled within the 'limes' of the Roman provinces, in order that they might repeople desolated districts, or replace the otherwise dwindling provincial population—in order that they might bear the public burdens and minister to the public needs, i.e., till the public land, pay the public tribute, and also provide for the defence of the empire. They formed a semi-servile class, partly agricultural and partly military; they furnished corn for the granaries and soldiers for the cohorts of the empire, and were generally known in later times by the name of Læti or Liti."—F. Seebohm, *English village community, ch.* 8.—"There seems to be no reason for questioning that the eorl, ceorl and læt of the earliest English laws, those of Ethelbert, answer exactly to the edhiling, the friling and the lazzus of the old Saxons. Whether the Kentish læts were of German origin has been questioned. Lappenberg thinks they were 'unfree of kindred race.' K. Maurer thinks them a relic of ancient British population who came between the free wealh and the slave. . . . The name (lazzus = slow or lazy) signifies condition, not nationality. . . . The wer-gild of the Kentish læt was 40, 60, or 80 shillings, according to rank, that of the ceorl being 200."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England, v.* 1, *ch.* 4, *sect.* 31, *foot-note.*

LA FARGE, John (1835-1910), American mural painter and decorator. See PAINTING: American.

LAFAYETTE, or La Fayette, Marie Joseph Paul Yves Roch Gilbert du Motier, Marquis de (1757-1834), French general and statesman. Took part in the American Revolution; commander-in-chief of National Guard in Paris, 1789; in command of the army of Ardennes, 1791; accused of treason, 1792, and fled to Flanders, where he was kept in prison by the Austrians for five years; revisited the United States, 1824; took an active part in the first restoration, and commanded the National Guard during the Revolution of 1830 in France. See FRANCE: 1789 (July): Mob in arms; Surrender of authority; 1789 (October): Mob of men; 1791 (July-September); 1792 (June-August); (August-September); 1830-1840; U.S.A.: 1777 (January-December); (July); 1778 (June); 1780 (July); 1781 (January-May); (May-October); 1824-1825; also NATIONAL GUARD.

Unveiling of Rochambeau monument in Washington. See U.S.A.: 1902 (May).

LAFAYETTE ESCADRILLE.—"A body of young American aviators who, in memory of Lafayette's services to the United States during our War for Independence, volunteered to aid France. Before we had yet declared hostilities upon Germany it was stated that they had brought down 30 enemy aircraft. . . . They were the first to raise the Stars and Stripes on the western front in April, 1917, upon receiving news of our entry into the war."—*War cyclopedia, p.* 149.

LA FÈRE, town of northeastern France, fourteen miles northwest of Laon. It was besieged by Henry IV, 1596 (see FRANCE: 1593-1598). During the World War, it was long held by the Germans and saw considerable fighting. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: b, 1; i.

LA FÈRE CHAMPENOISE, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March).

LA FERRASSIE, cave at Dordogne, France. Remains of prehistoric man were unearthed here. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Neanderthal skeleton.

LAFFITTE, Jacques (1767-1844), French financier. Served in the ministry of Louis Philippe, 1830-1831; elected president of the chamber of deputies, 1843. See FRANCE: 1830-1840.

LA FILLE MORTE, town in northern France, attacked by the Germans in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: g.

LA FOLIE, town of northern France, east of Épernay. It was taken by the British in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: w, 1.

LA FOLLETTE, Robert Marion (1855-1925), American statesman. Member of House of Representatives, 1885-1891; governor of Wisconsin, 1901-1905; United States Senator since 1905. See WISCONSIN: 1901-1905; U.S.A.: 1909-1912; 1911-1912 (Jan.-June); 1923 (March-Sept.).

LA FONTAINE, Henri (1854-), Belgian jurist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Peace: 1913-1914.

LA FONTAINE, Jean de (1621-1695), French poet. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1608-1715.

LAFONTAINE, Sir Louis Hippolyte (1807-1864), Canadian jurist and statesman. Formed a ministry with Robert Baldwin, 1842-1843, 1848-1851. See CANADA: 1843-1849.

LAFUENTE Y ZAMALLOA, Modesto (1806-1866), Spanish historian and critic. See HISTORY: 29.

LAGERLÖF, Selma (Ottilia Lovisa) (1858-), Swedish novelist. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1888-1920; NOBEL PRIZES: Literature: 1909.

LA GALISSONIÈRE, Roland Michel Barrin, Marquis de (1693-1756), French admiral. Governor-general of Canada, 1747-1749; during the Seven Years' War defeated the English fleet under Admiral Byng off Minorca, 1756. See MINORCA: 1756.

LA GHEIR, Battle of. See World War: 1914: I. Western front: t, 1.

LAGIDE PRINCES.—The Egyptian dynasty founded by Ptolemy Soter, the Macedonian general, is sometimes called the Lagide dynasty, after Lagus, the reputed father of Ptolemy.

LAGNICOURT, town of France, to the southwest of Cambrai. It was taken by the Germans in 1918.

LAGNY, Capture of. See France: 1590.

LAGOS, capital of the colony and protectorate of Nigeria, formerly a British crown colony and protectorate of West Africa. See Nigeria: Geographical description.

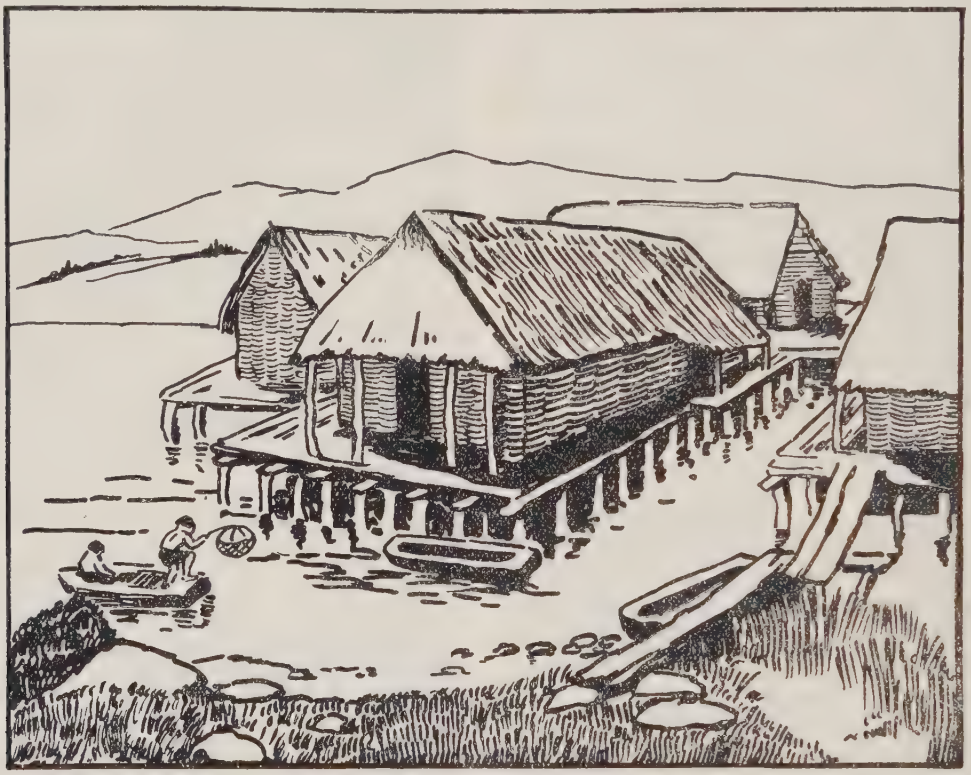
1845.—**Surrender to the British.** See India: 1845-1849.

1919.—**Revolution.** See India: 1919.

LAIBACH, or Laybach, city of northwestern Jugo-Slavia, thirty-five miles northeast of Trieste. In 1821 a congress of the European powers was held here. (See Verona, Congress of.) Slav riots occurred here and a pan-Slavic Congress met in 1918. As a result of the World War the city became part of Jugo-Slavia. See Adriatic question: Friction between Italy and Jugo-Slavia.

LAINEZ, Diego. See Láynez, Diego.

LAISSEZ-FAIRE THEORY. See Economics: 18th century: Physiocrats; Democracy: Tenden-



PREHISTORIC LAKE DWELLING

Reconstructed from the ruins found in the Swiss Alps by Prof. L. Reinhardt

LAGOS, Naval battle of. See England: 1759 (August-November).

LAGOSTA, island off the coast of Dalmatia in the Adriatic sea. Promised to Italy by the Treaty of London, 1915; ceded to Italy by the Treaty of Rapallo, 1920. See London, Treaty or Pact of; Rapallo, Treaty of (1920).

LAGTHING, upper house of the Norwegian parliament. See Norway, Constitution of.

LA GUASIMA, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1898 (June-July).

LA HALLE, Adam de (c. 1230-1287), French trouvère, poet and dramatist. See Music: Medieval: 12th-14th centuries.

LAHNDA, Indo-Aryan language of western Punjab. See Philology: 16.

LA HOGUE, Battle of. See England: 1692.

LAHORE, city of British India, capital of the Punjab. Under the Mogul empire it was a center of great power and magnificence. It is now chiefly important as an educational center. The population in 1921 was 279,558. See India: Map.

cies of the 19th century; Commerce: Era of geographic expansion: 17th-18th centuries: Mercantile system; Tariff: 18th century.

LAKE, Gerard, 1st Viscount (1744-1808), British general. Served in Seven Years' War and in the American Revolution; commander-in-chief in Ireland, 1797-1798; commander-in-chief in India, 1800-1805. See Ulster: 1791-1797; India: 1798-1805.

LAKE, Sir Percy Henry Noel (1855-), British lieutenant-general. Served in the Afghan War, 1878-1879; in the Sudan expedition, 1885; in the World War, 1916. See World War: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1, iii.

LAKE, Simon (1866-), American naval architect. Invented the even keel type of submarine torpedo boat. See Submarines: 1897.

LAKE DWELLINGS.—"Among the most interesting relics of antiquity which have yet been discovered are the famous lake-dwellings of Switzerland, described by Dr. Keller and others. . . . Dr. Keller . . . has arranged them in three

groups, according to the character of their substructure. [1] Those of the first group, the Pile Dwellings, are, he tells us, by far the most numerous in the lakes of Switzerland and Upper Italy. In these the substructure consists of piles of various kinds of wood, sharpened sometimes by fire, sometimes by stone hatchets or celts, and in later times by tools of bronze, and probably of iron, the piles being driven into the bottom of the lake at various distances from the shore. . . . [2] The Frame Pile-Dwellings are very rare. 'The distinction between this form and the regular pile-settlement consists in the fact that the piles, instead of having been driven into the mud of the lake, had been fixed by a mortise-and-tenon arrangement into split trunks, lying horizontally on the bed of the lake.' . . . [3] In the Fascine Dwellings, as Dr. Keller terms his third group of lake-habitations, the substructure consisted of successive layers of sticks or small stems of trees built up from the bottom of the lake till they reached above the lake-level. . . . Lake-dwellings have been met with in many other regions of Europe besides Switzerland and Italy, as in Bavaria, Austria, Hungary, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, France, Wales, Ireland, and Scotland. The 'Crannoges' of Ireland and Scotland were rather artificial islands than dwellings like those described above."—J. Geikie, *Prehistoric Europe.*—See also EUROPE: Prehistoric: Lake dwellings; SWITZERLAND: Lake dwellings.

ALSO IN: F. Keller, *Lake dwellings.*—R. Munro, *Ancient Scottish lake dwellings.*

LAKE ERIE, Naval battle on (1813). See U. S. A.: 1812-1813: Harrison's northwestern campaign.

LAKE ERIE, LAKE SUPERIOR, ETC. See ERIE, LAKE; SUPERIOR, LAKE, etc.

LAKE GEORGE, Battle of. See CANADA: 1755 (September).

LAKE WASHINGTON CANAL, extending from Puget Sound to Union bay, officially opened in 1917. See CANALS: American: Lake Washington canal.

LAKES, Inland: Laws governing. See RIPARIAN RIGHTS: Definition.

LALLA RKIA, wife of Mulai Hassan of Morocco.

LALLY, Thomas Arthur, Baron de Tollendal, Count de (1702-1766), French general. Commander-in-chief of French East Indies, 1756; fought in the wars with the English in India; forced to surrender after the siege of Pondicherry, 1761. See INDIA: 1758-1761.

LAMAR, José (1778-1830), Spanish-American general. President of Peru, 1827-1829. See PERU: 1826-1876.

LAMARCK, Jean Baptiste Pierre Antoine de Monet, Chevalier de (1744-1829), French naturalist. Published "Flore Français," 1778; admitted to Academy of Sciences, 1779; appointed to chair of zoölogy at Jardin du Roi, 1788; first to distinguish vertebrate from invertebrate animals. See EVOLUTION: Historical development of the idea.

LA MARMORA, Alfonso Ferrero, Marquis of (1804-1878), Italian general and statesman. Served in the Wars of 1848 and 1859; suppressed rebellion in Genoa, 1849; minister of war, 1849-1859; governor of Naples, 1861; premier, 1859-1860, 1864-1866; governor of Rome, 1870-1871. See GENOA: 1848; AUSTRIA: 1856-1859.

LAMARTINE, Alphonse Marie Louis de Prat de (1790-1869), French poet, historian and statesman. In diplomatic service, 1823-1832; elected to French Academy, 1829; in chamber of deputies, 1833; after February revolution, 1848, member of executive committee and minister of foreign affairs. See FRANCE: 1842-1848; 1848 (April-December); FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1885; HISTORY: 30.

LAMAS, LAMAISM.—"The development of the Buddhist doctrine which has taken place in the Panjab, Nepal, and Tibet . . . has resulted . . . in the complete establishment of Lamaism, a religion not only in many points different from, but actually antagonistic to, the primitive system of Buddhism; and this not only in its doctrine, but also in its church organization." Tibet is "the only country where the Order has become a hierarchy, and acquired temporal power. Here, as in so many other countries, civilization entered and history began with Buddhism. When the first missionaries went there is not, however, accurately known; but Nepal was becoming Buddhist in the 6th century, and the first Buddhist king of Tibet sent to India for the holy scriptures in 632 A. D. A century afterwards an adherent of the native devil-worship drove the monks away, destroyed the monasteries, and burnt the holy books; but the blood of the martyrs was the seed of the church—it returned triumphant after his death, and rapidly gained in wealth and influence. . . . As the Order became wealthy, rival abbots had contended for supremacy, and the chiefs had first tried to use the church as a means of binding the people to themselves, and then, startled at its progress, had to fight against it for their own privilege and power. When, in the long run, the crozier proved stronger than the sword, the Dalai Lama became in 1419 sole temporal sovereign of Tibet."—T. W. Rhys Davids, *Buddhism, ch.* 8-9.—"Up to the moment of its conversion to Buddhism a profound darkness had rested on [Tibet]. The inhabitants were ignorant and uncultivated, and their indigenous religion, sometimes called Bon, consisted chiefly of magic based on a kind of Shamanism. . . . The word is said to be of Tungusic origin, and to be used as a name for the earliest religion of Mongolia, Siberia and other Northern countries. . . . It is easy to understand that the chief function of the Shamans, or wizard-priests, was to exorcise evil demons, or to propitiate them by sacrifices and various magical practices. . . . The various gradations of the Tibetan hierarchy are not easily described, and only a general idea of them can be given. . . . First and lowest in rank comes the novice or junior monk, called Gethsul (Getzul). . . . Secondly and higher in rank we have the full monk, called Gelong (or Gelon). . . . Thirdly we have the superior Gelong or Khanpo (strictly mKhan po), who has a real right to the further title Lama. . . . As the chief monk in a monastery he may be compared to the European Abbot. . . . Some of the higher Khanpo Lamas are supposed to be living re-incarnations or re-embodiments of certain canonized saints and Bodhi-sattvas who differ in rank. These are called Avatara Lamas, and of such there are three degrees. . . . There is also a whole class of mendicant Lamas. . . . Examples of the highest Avataras are the two quasi-Popes, or spiritual Kings, who are supreme Lamas of the Yellow sect —the one residing at Lhassa, and the other at Tashi Lunpo (Krashi Lunpo), about 100 miles distant. . . . The Grand Lama at Lhassa is the Dalai Lama, that is, 'the Ocean-Lama, or one whose power and learning are as great as the ocean. . . . The other Grand Lama, who resides in the monastery of Tashi Lunpo, is known in Europe under the names of the Tashi Lama."—M. Monier-Williams, *Buddhism, lect.* 11.—"Kublai-Khan, after subduing China [see CHINA: 1259-1294], adopted

the Buddhist doctrines, which had made considerable progress among the Tartars. In the year 1261 he raised a Buddhist priest named Mati to the dignity of head of the Faith in the empire. This priest is better known under the name of Pakbo Lama, or supreme Lama; he was a native of Thibet, and had gained the good graces and confidence of Kublai, who, at the same time that he conferred on him the supreme sacerdotal office, invested him with the temporal power in Thibet, with the titles of 'King of the Great and Precious Law,' and 'Institutor of the Empire.' Such was the origin of the Grand Lamas of Thibet, and it is not impossible that the Tartar Emperor, who had had frequent communications with the Christian missionaries, may have wished to create a religious organisation after the model of the Romish hierarchy."—Abbé Huc, *Christianity in China, Tartary and Thibet, v. 2, p.* 10.

Lamaism, "not only predominates in [Tibet] . . . but also in the smaller Himalayan States, Ladak, Nepal, Bhotân, Sikkhim, as well as Mongolia, and it has branched out into Northern and Western China. . . . While Southern Buddhism only admits images of the Buddha Gautama himself and some accompanying figures, no greater contrast can be afforded than that of Lamaism, which exhibits quite a bewildering crowd of deities. Sometimes they are figures from the ancient historical Buddhism; sometimes Hindu gods which have crept into the Buddhist mythology; then, again, a number of conceptions of the speculative fancy of Mahâyâna Buddhism; yet again, other deities previously belonging to the ancient demon worship of the country and the Bon doctrine, local deities, individual guardian spirits, and so on: the whole weaves itself into a motley web which at first sight appears a hopeless tangle. For the sake of clearness we will separate into different classes the principal deities. First there are the *Buddhas;* these are not indeed *the* Buddha, namely, Gautama. The conception of many other Buddhas, who lived in long past ages, a series of predecessors of the Prince Siddhârta, is, . . . of early origin in Buddhism. The world stretches out through endless times, existing and passing away. Immense periods of time are classed together to form an epoch and to receive their special number of Buddhas. . . . But what is quite peculiar to the Lamaistic Church is the theory of rank founded on the principle of reincarnation. It is held that saintly persons who have died are reincorporate in certain lamas. The lowest grade of this kind is represented by those who are said to be the reincarnation of an earlier lama teacher as saint. Above this degree are the Julku (or in Mongolian *Khutuktu*), who are supposed to be the reincarnation of old Indian Buddhist saints. At the top there are those Lamas, in whom a Bodhisattva is reincarnate. Amongst these the most noted is the Dalai Lama at Lhasa. The method by which, on the death of such an incarnation, his successor is determined is highly interesting. It is worked out with peculiar elaboration in the case of the Dalai Lama at Lhasa. It is held that the celestial being who was incorporate in the ecclesiastical dignitary—in the case of the Dalai Lama it is the Bodhisattva Avalokita—becomes reincarnate at least forty-nine days after his death. Therefore inquiry is made throughout the whole of Tibet as to the birth of all children about that date, which took place with remarkable accompanying signs. Such marvels are easily to be heard of from one direction or another. Naturally, corroborate proofs are required. Those supplied are often astronomical phenomena, which are magnified by the eye of superstition. Or there may be some phenomenon in a tank or stream, an unexplained light (St. Elmo's fire), a special thunderclap, or a peculiar mark on the body of a child. Again, it may be averred that shortly after birth the child was found seated with its legs crossed in the Buddha's attitude of meditation, and when a rosary was placed in its hands the child appeared to be silently reciting the appointed prayers. The more remarkable the signs adduced about the child, the better. There are always a large number of aspirants; but at once a small selection is made from them, governed by certain practical considerations. These have next to undergo a remarkable test. A number of the possessions of the deceased Dalai Lama are placed or laid before them, such as a picture of the Buddha which he particularly prized, a bell, a hand-drum, and an accurate imitation of each beside it. The child must now seize the original articles, and thus show that he has the indwelling Bodhisattva by his recognition of the genuine things. From the children who have passed this test successfully one is further distinguished by means of lots. Amid great pomp in the chief sanctuary of Mount Potala at Lhasa, one name is drawn forth from a golden vase, in which all the names (sealed up) had been placed, and this is accepted as the right one. . . . The child is conducted with his parents to the appointed place and suitably brought up; they have a house and maintenance provided for them, and receive a high title. The Dalai Lama only becomes independent at the age of eighteen; until then he is under the 'Regent,' a high lama who is selected from one of the four great monasteries in Lhasa, Tengyai Ling, Kundai Ling, Tsemchog Ling, Tsamo Ling."—H. Hackmann, *Buddhism as a religion, pp.* 154, 157-158, 184-186.—See also TIBET: Name.

ALSO IN: Abbé Huc, *Journey through Tartary, Thibet and China, v.* 2.—W. W. Rockhill, *Land of the Lamas.*

LAMB, Charles (1775-1834), English essayist. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1780-1830.

LAMBERG, Franz Philipp, Count von (1791-1848), Hungarian field-marshal. Served in the campaigns of 1814-1815 in France. See HUNGARY: 1847-1849.

LAMBERT LE BÉGUE (died c. 1187), priest of Liége, founder of the Beguines. See BEGUINES.

LAMBERT VON HERZFELD (died c. 1088), German historian. See HISTORY: 19.

LAMBETH, Treaty of, Treaty of September 11, 1217, which was, in a certain sense, the sequel of Magna Carta. The barons who extorted the Great Charter from King John in 1215 were driven subsequently to a renewal of war with him. They renounced their allegiance and offered the crown to a French prince, Louis, husband of Blanche of Castile, who was John's niece. The pretensions of Louis were maintained after John's death, against his young son, Henry III. The cause of the latter triumphed in a decisive battle fought at Lincoln, May 20, 1217, and the contest was ended by the treaty named above. "The treaty of Lambeth is, in practical importance, scarcely inferior to the Charter itself."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England.*—See also ENGLAND: 1216-1272.

LAMBETH CONFERENCES, periodical assemblies of bishops of the Anglican Communion. They meet at Lambeth Palace, the London residence of the Archbishop of Canterbury. The idea was first suggested in 1851, but revived and emphasized in 1865 by the colonial church in

Canada. The first meeting was called in 1867, and was attended by seventy-six of the 144 then in the Communion. The six conferences held so far (to 1923) are as follows: *First conference,* September 24-28, 1867, convened by Archbishop Longley; resolutions in regard to the Colenso case, new sees and missionary jurisdictions, and other important matters. *Second conference,* July 2-27, 1878, convened by Archbishop Tait; attended by 100 bishops; committee reports on methods of obtaining union; boards of arbitration, missionaries and missionary bishops and continental chaplains. *Third conference,* July 3-27, 1888, convened by Archbishop Benson; attended by 145 bishops; consideration of communities not possessing the historic episcopate; resolutions and reports of committees on intemperance, purity, divorce, polygamy, Sabbath observance, socialism, emigrants, mutual relations of dioceses of various churches, and standards of doctrine and worship. Of the last the most important was the "Lambeth Quadrilateral," which promulgated a basis for the establishment of Christian unity, namely, the Holy Scriptures, the Apostles' and Nicene creeds, the two sacraments, and the historic episcopate. *Fourth conference,* July 5-31, 1897, convened by Archbishop Benson; attended by 194 bishops; consideration of the formation of a consultative body, resolutions and reports regarding organization, clerical titles. *Fifth conference,* July 6-Aug. 5, 1908, convened by Archbishop Davidson; attended by 241 bishops; consideration of the relations of faith and modern thought, education, missions, revision of the Prayer Book, relation of the church to "ministries of healing" questions of marriage and divorce, organization, and reunion. *Sixth conference,* July 5-Aug. 7, 1920, convened by Archbishop Davidson; attended by 252 bishops, of whom 177 came from outside the British Isles. With each conference, the question of the unity of the church grew in importance in the minds of the bishops. In 1920, this great subject was given chief place in their considerations, and an appeal for the "Reunion of all Christendom" was issued to "all Christian people." At the same time a number of resolutions were passed to provide a definite basis for union, not by "the absorption of any one church by another, or the reduction of all to a common denominator, but of a greater Catholic Church of the future, to which all separated communions should bring their gifts."—F. T. Woods, F. Weston, M. L. Smith, *Lambeth conference,* 1920.—See also Church of England: 20th century.

LAMIAN WAR. See Greece: B. C. 323-322.

LAMMAS DAY, August 1, a quarter day in England. See Quarter days.

LAMMASCH, Heinrich (1853-1920), Austrian jurist. Professor of criminal and international law in the University of Vienna and member of the Austrian upper house; prime minister during October, 1918. His cabinet fell with the emperor's abdication.

LAMONE, Battle of (1425). See Italy: 1412-1447.

LAMONT, Thomas William (1870-), American banker. Financial and economic adviser of American delegation to the Paris peace conference, 1919; delegate in new consortium to give aid to Chinese industries and railways. See Paris, Conference of: Sources of information.

LAMP: Early use and form. See Inventions: Ancient and medieval: Artificial light.

Electric: Experiments of Swan and Edison, etc. See Electrical discovery: Electric lighting: 1841-1921.

Chimney. See Inventions: 18th century: Artificial light.

Miners' safety. See Electrical discovery: Electric lighting: 1841-1921.

LAMPADARCHY. See Liturgies.

LAMPRECHT, Karl (1856-1915), German historian. See History: 33.

LAMSDORFF, Vladimir Nicolaevitch, Count (1845-1907), Russian diplomat and statesman. Senior counsellor of the foreign office, 1886; assistant foreign minister, 1897; secretary of state to the emperor, 1902; delegate to many important congresses including Congress of Berlin, 1878, and Conference of Algeciras, 1906.

LAMU, island off the east coast of British East Africa. See British East Africa: 1895-1897.

LANA, Francesco (1631-1687), Italian Jesuit. Proposed a scheme for aerial navigation. See Aviation: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 17th century.

LANAI, one of the Hawaiian islands. See Hawaiian islands: Geographical description.

LANARK, town of Lanarkshire, Scotland, southeast of Glasgow. It is one mile north of New Lanark, the scene of Robert Owen's coöperative experiment. See Coöperation: England; Socialism: 1800-1824.

LANCASTER, Chancellorship of the duchy of.—"The Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster is an office more remarkable for its antiquity than for its present usefulness. It dates from the time of Henry the Fourth, when the County of Lancashire was under a government distinct from the rest of the Kingdom. About the only duty now associated with the office is the appointment of magistrates for the county of Lancashire. In the other English and Welsh counties, these appointments are made by the Lord High Chancellor, who is the head of the Judicial system. The duties of the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster are thus exceedingly light. The holder of the office is often spoken of as 'the maid of all work to the Cabinet,' from the fact that he is accorded a place in the Cabinet without being assigned any special duties likely to occupy the whole of his time. Usually the office is bestowed upon some statesman whom it is desirable for special reasons to have in the Cabinet, but for whom no other office of equal rank or importance is available."—E. Porritt, *Englishman at home, ch.* 8.

LANCASTER, House of. See England: 1399-1471.

LANCE: Meaning of the term. See Military organization: 15.

LANCERS, Macedonian. See Military organization: 6.

LANCES, Free, or Free Companies.—With Sir John Hawkwood and his "free company" of English mercenaries, "came first into Italy [about 1360] the use of the term 'lances,' as applied to hired troops: each 'lance' being understood to consist of three men; of whom one carried a lance, and the others were bowmen. . . . They mostly fought on foot, having between each two archers a lance, which was held as men hold their hunting-spears in a boar-hunt."—T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence, v.* 2, *p.* 144.—See also Italy (Southern): 1343-1393.

LAND: Cultivation. See Agriculture.

Reclamation. See Conservation of natural resources.

Taxation. See Taxation; Single tax.

Nationalization. See Anarchism: Definition and theory; Single tax.

Credit. See Rural credit.

Tenure. See FEUDALISM: Continental growth; ABSENTEEISM; BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA: 1878-1908; DENMARK: Territory; AGRICULTURE: Modern: British Isles: 20th century; France: Development since the revolution; United States: Beginnings; INDIA: Agriculture; BLACK BELT; LAND TITLES; MIR; RIPARIAN RIGHTS; SERFDOM; SINGLE TAX; SLAVS: 1830-1914; etc.

LAND ACT, Canada (1906). See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Canada: 1906-1921.

LAND ACT, Ireland: 1870. See IRELAND: 1870.

1881. See IRELAND: 1881; 1881-1882.

1909. See IRELAND: 1909-1911.

LAND ACT, Victoria (1893). See VICTORIA: 1893.

LAND BANK ACT, New York. See HOUSING: United States: New York state legislation.

LAND BOUNTIES, United States. See BOUNTIES: Bounties by the United States government.

LAND COMMISSION, Ireland. See IRELAND: 1885-1903.

LAND GRANT COLLEGES, United States. See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: United States; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 43.

LAND GRANTS: Australia. See AUSTRALIA: 1810-1837.

LAND LEGISLATION AND PROBLEMS: In ancient Rome. See AGRARIAN LAWS.

Canada. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Canada: 1906-1921.

Czecho-Slovakia. See CZECHO-SLOVAKIA: 1919-1920.

Denmark. See DENMARK: 1919.

England. See ENGLAND: 1896 (June); 1918-1921; COMMON LAW: 1854-1882.

France. See FRANCE: 1789: Survey of France on the eve of the revolution: Condition of the people; 1790 (May); AGRICULTURE: Modern: France: Development since the Revolution.

Hawaii. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: 1910: Changes made, etc.

Ireland. See IRELAND: 1843-1848; 1845-1847; 1847-1860; 1870; 1881, to 1882; 1885-1891; 1896-1902; 1903; 1909-1911; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Ireland.

Japan. See JAPAN: 1895-1902.

New South Wales. See NEW SOUTH WALES: 1855-1893.

New Zealand. See NEW ZEALAND: 1853-1870; 1870-1890; 1890-1909; 1906-1909.

Russia. See RUSSIA: 16th century: System of land tenure; Economic revolution; 1916: Condition of peasantry; 1917-1920: Land distribution by the Bolsheviki.

United States. See AGRICULTURE: Modern: United States: 1776-1833; CALIFORNIA: 1900-1920; 1920; KENTUCKY: 1775-1779; 1790-1800; COMMON LAW: 1889.

Victoria. See VICTORIA: 1893.

LAND LEAGUE, Ireland. See IRELAND: 1873-1879; 1880.

LAND OFFICE, United States. See INTERIOR, DEPARTMENT OF THE; U. S. A.: 1903-1906.

LAND PURCHASE ACTS, Ireland. See IRELAND: 1903; 1909-1911; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Ireland.

LAND REGISTRATION. See LAND TITLES: 1649-1912; 1858-1922; COMMON LAW: 1630-1641; 1854-1882; 1889.

LAND TITLES: Roman titles.—"The distribution of land amongst the Early Romans is one of the puzzling problems of their history. The Serbian [Servius Tullius] constitution classified the citizens and determined their privileges, duties and burdens according to the extent of their freeholds; and yet we know very little with certainty of the way in which these were acquired. The story goes that Romulus divided the little territory of his original settlement into three parts, not necessarily of equal dimensions, one of which was intended for the maintenance of the state and its institutions, civil and religious, the second (*ager publicus*) for the use of the citizens and profit of the state [see also AGER PUBLICUS] and the third (*ager privatus*) for subdivision among his followers. Vorro and Pliny relate that to each of these he assigned a homestead of two jugers, equal to about an acre and a quarter, to be held by him and his heirs, Pliny adding that to none of them did the king give more."—J. Muirhead, *Law of Rome, pp.* 33-34.—See also AGRARIAN LAWS.

Roman colonial titles.—"As regards the land belonging either to the Roman Colonies or to the allied towns of Latinum and Latin colonies, or to the allied towns of Italy, and if we include the towns which were distinguished from them by the peculiarity of their constitution, the *municipia,* it was in all these cases, as a result of the privileges of citizenship, or the *commercium* only having been accorded to them, held and treated as Quieritarian (rights of Roman citizens) property and consequently assimilated to the *Ager Romanus.* We must not overlook the importance of this assimilation. The proprietors of this class of soil had the territorial rights of Roman citizens (dominum ex jure Puritium); they were subject to civil law, so far as it applied to this species of property and whereas in every conquered territory the Roman law only recognized the occupiers of the soil as tenants subject to the payment of a rent or annual tribute as the price of the enjoyment permitted to them (because the proprietary right was supposed to be lodged in the Roman people), this land was held under a proprietary title and its owners were free from rent and tribute."—I. T. Pritchard and D. Nasmith, *History of Roman Law, pp.* 179-180.

Early British titles.—"The English law of land is of mixed origin. The customs of the early Teutonic invaders, the inevitable effect of conquest and settlement of the land on a large scale, the gradual, and what may be called the natural growth of feudal ideas, the effect of the Norman conquest in developing these ideas into a system of law and in importing doctrines unknown before, the subsequent influence of the Roman and Canon law, all these are elements of which account must be taken in attempting to trace the growth of the law of land. A definite system of law may be said to have arisen by the time of the reign of Henry II."—K. E. Digby, *History of the law of real property, p.* 1.

1215.—Magna Carta.—"The English statute law commences with Magna Carta, or rather with the third reissue in the ninth year of Henry III of the charter granted by King John. The charter was first issued in 1215; it was reissued in the first year of Henry III, 1216; again in 1217; and again in 1225. There are variations, in some cases of some importance, between the different editions. The statute laws of John, Henry III and Edward I are characterized throughout by marks of the influence of the great lords (*domini capitales*). It was the interest of these great tenants *in capite* at once to restrict the oppressive rights of the Crown (and to that extent, no doubt, the inferior tenants participated in the benefit of the legislation), and also to protect and enhance the rights of lords of manors as against their tenants. The

former characteristic is conspicuous in the provisions for reliefs, guardians and ward, marriage, dower, scutage aids, forfeiture aids and aleation, the latter in the statutes of Mertin, De Religionis, De Donis and Quia Emptores."—K. E. Digby, *History of the law of real property, pp.* 105-106.—See also MAGNA CARTA.

ALSO IN: H. W. Challis, *Law of real property.*— F. Pollock and F. W. Martland, *History of English law.*

1607.—**American land titles.**—"The law of England—including not only the unwritten law but the statutes as well—was adopted in all of the states with the exception of Louisiana, where the Roman or Civil law is the source and depository of the common law. The period of history at which that law was taken up and incorporated into our own system varies greatly in different jurisdictions and much conflict of decision as to what were the rules of the common law and what English statutes became a part of American common law results from the fact that one judge is speaking of the English law as it existed at one date and another as it was at quite a different date. In some states, the common law of England as it was in the fourth year of James I (1607) is adopted by constitution or statute. Others have taken the law as it existed at the time of the Declaration of Independence, or some other revolutionary date; and in still others, there is no express enactment, but the common law is regarded as a heritage of the people, which they brought with them as they did their customs and language."—G. E. Beers, *Real property in two centuries of growth of American law, p.* 52.—See also COMMON LAW: 1776.

1649-1912. — **Land registration.** — "An act was passed in the reign of Queen Elizabeth requiring sales of land to be enrolled in certain counties, but it was loosely drawn and became inoperative. In 1617, another act was passed, but it met with the same fate. In 1649 and 1651 bills were introduced but dropped. From 1651 on various bills were introduced. Some of these were passed by Parliament, but few of them became effective. In England the great objection to registration has been the publicity which it gives to the conditions of the titles. The registries of the counties of York and Middlesex, established about 1708, are still in existence, but they have never been popular, and have never been extended to other countries. All of the earlier bills and acts provided for the copying, or abstracting, of deeds, but in 1862, 'An Act to Facilitate the Proof of Title to and the Conveyance of Real Estate,' generally known as Lord Westbury's Act was passed. The object of this act was to register the title to land. It was an utter failure from the start and afterward the land transfer act of 1875, commonly called Lord Cairn's act, was passed. This law was also for the registration of titles. It had a precarious existence for twenty-two years when it was modified and supplemented by the land transfer act of 1897. . . . While the laws of civilized countries differ greatly in the methods of dealing with land, it is possible to classify these methods, and to divide them into distinct systems of conveyancing. For many years only three generic systems were used: transfer without recording or registering; the ministerial system of recording or registering deeds; and the judicial system of registering lands. Within the past fifty-four years another system has been adopted in many states and countries, namely, the Torrens System of registering titles. . . . [The first system] is used in most of the counties of England where land is transferred by the production and delivery of all the title deeds, including one from the seller to the purchaser. This may seem to us a very crude system of dealing with land, but, under the laws, conditions and customs of that country, it has served its purpose so well that the agitation during the past two and one-half centuries for a change from it has not been able to bring about more than a partial abolition of the system. Under the law of primogeniture, the eldest son inherits the real estate of a deceased person, and the title papers go with the land. Except for this fact, the system would not be practicable. Until the last fifty years, land was scarcely considered a commercial article or commodity in England, and the comparative infrequency of transferring land helped to maintain this system. Under this system, a proprietor may borrow money on the security of his land by depositing his title papers with the lender, who thereupon obtains an equitable lien on the land. This method of securing a loan is popular with both borrowers and lenders, since it is cheap, safe and secret. . . . [The second] system of transcribing title papers at length on the public records of the county in which the land lies is called the recording system, and it is the one in general use in the United States. The recording system is capable of many modifications, and in some form it is in use in France, Scotland, Ireland, Belgium, Italy, Spain, Canada, Australasia, the British dependencies, Russia, Holland, Greece, Egypt, Portugal, the Republics of South and Central America, parts of Switzerland, the counties of Middlesex and York, in England, and in parts of Asia and Africa. In some of these countries, there is established in the different districts an office in which all instruments of title must be recorded in some manner, while in others separate registries are provided for deeds and for mortgages. In many countries, title papers are not copied in full, but when an executed instrument is presented to the proper officer, a mere memorandum of it is made on his records. In other countries a memorial is executed in a prescribed form when the instrument is executed, and this memorial is copied in the record. This record is not intended to show the contents or effect of instruments, or to form a repository of secondary evidence of interests in land. Its object is merely to give information of the existence of instruments affecting land, which might be suppressed otherwise, and only such particulars as are necessary to identify the instruments are placed on the record. The law of constructive notice is different in different countries, and in some countries, the recording of an instrument is not in itself constructive notice. In most of the United States, the recording system has been very highly developed. In a general way, it may be said that all deeds, mortgages, certified copies of foreign wills and of probate thereof, and notices of mechanics' liens affecting real estate in a county, are filed and recorded at length in the recorder's office of the county. Proceedings in court affecting land, and judgments and decrees entered therein, and the probate of estates are found in the records of the proper courts. Taxes and special assessments on lands are spread on the records of the treasurers. The proper records of all these matters are constructive notice of the contents of them to all the world. The record of an instrument does not give to it any validity as affecting the land, but it gives the world constructive notice of its existence and of any claim which legally may be made under it. The record preserves to the person claiming under the

instrument, and to all persons claiming under him, an evidence of an interest in the land affected by it. These records are searched by or on behalf of a person interested in any particular piece of land, and everything pertaining to that land is brought together chronologically, and forms what is called an *Abstract of Title* to it. Ordinarily, the validity and merchantability of the title shown by the abstract is determined for some interested person by a lawyer whom he employs to examine and report on the title. In some of the states, this system has been in use for more than one hundred and thirty years. . . . [The third or] judicial system of registering land is very broad and comprehensive. It embraces such registrations as were made in some continental countries two centuries or more ago. Some of its features are found today in the laws of Russia, Turkey, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Mexico, Central and South America and other countries. In these countries, conveyancing and dealings with land are done under judicial supervision, and are the subject of entries made by courts. The modes of procedure, and the effect of these entries, differ in the different countries, but the underlying principle of the system is that title vests from the date of the instrument when it has been presented to the court and the proper entries concerning it have been made on the records of the court. The distinctive feature of the fourth system is that it registers and determines the conditions and ownership of the title to land, in lieu of registering instruments as evidence of title. This is the Torrens System." —W. C. Niblack, *Torrens system of conveying land, pp.* 1-5.

1858-1922.—Torrens system of title registration.—Origin.—Chief features.—Advantages.— "From time out of mind, until Sir Robert Torrens became Land Commissioner in South Australia in 1858, title searching and examination was done by private parties, by individuals, generally lawyers. There was no co-ordination in the work done, each individual working by and for himself. Titles to land have their origin in feudal days when land was not a thing of commerce. The tendency in the early centuries was to tie up land and prevent it being bought and sold. Transfers were made with difficulty, due to various prohibitions and conveyancing was accomplished by roundabout methods. The result was that there grew up around land titles a mass of technical legal rules that were preserved in practice long after the occasion of the rules disappeared. . . . When business men finally began to deal in land commercially, they found conveyancing in the hands of lawyers, and encumbered with such a mass of technicalities that it often took months of time to make a transfer or effect a loan. The history of land title reform largely represents the effort of business men to cut loose the legal technicalities restricting transfers and to substitute simple business rules. This effort . . . found its best expression in the rules embodied by Sir Robert Torrens in his South Australian Registration Law which has become known the world over as the Torrens System. Sir Robert Torrens became Registrar-General of South Australia in 1852. Before that time he was collector of customs in charge of shipping. Under the English Merchant's Shipping Law, a page in the registry was given to each ship registered and on it appeared the name and description of the ship, the name of the owner and any liens or encumbrances. A duplicate of this page in the form of a certificate was given to the owner which was his evidence of ownership no matter where he might be. If there were several owners—and it was quite customary to have ships divided into shares—each owner received a certificate for his share. Any lien or claim against a ship was required to be noted on the registry page, so that it was possible for any interested person at a glance to see exactly the condition of the title. To make a transfer it was necessary to assign the certificate and take it to the registry office whereupon the old certificate was cancelled, the old registry page closed and a new page was opened. A duplicate certificate or copy of the new registry page was given to the new owner. At no time was more than one certificate of the same interest outstanding, and it was not necessary to go back of the face of the outstanding certificate. . . . The principle of the ship certificate in its effectiveness and simplicity was applied by Sir Robert Torrens to land transfers. The various shipping laws had been revised and consolidated in 1853 in a single act, known as the Merchant Shipping Act, and in 1857, Torrens introduced a bill on similar lines providing for the registration of land titles, which became a law, January 27, 1858, and went into effect July 1, 1858. The new system became instantly successful, although registrations were not made compulsory, except as to subsequent grants by the Crown. Its success was due entirely to the inherent superiority of the new system over the old."—J. J. Hopper, *Sketch of the Torrens system, pp.* 8-9.—"Historically, the Torrens System is clearly connected with the copyhold system in England and the Roman-Dutch system of land transfer, and is based on the same principles which underlie those two systems with respect to the necessity of registration as a part of the formality of alienation and encumbrance."—J. E. Hogg, *Australian Torrens system, 1905, p.* 21.—"The central feature of the Torrens system is the governmental register of titles. It is the pivot on which the working of the whole system turns, and it is usually called the certificate of title or land certificate. One object in registering titles under this system is to obtain from the state a certificate which is evidence that the owner of it has title to the estate or interest in land with which he is registered. In Australasia, in Ireland, in the United States, except in the Territory of Hawaii, and in the Canadian provinces of Manitoba, Alberta, and Saskatchewan, the statutes provide that, when the title to an estate, or interest in land, is registered, it becomes indefeasible and indisputable. Under these acts, certificates of indefeasible title only are issued."—W. C. Niblack, *Torrens system of conveying land, pp.* 17-18.

ALSO IN: D. J. Thom, *Canadian Torrens system.* —A. G. Cameron, *Torrens system.*—J. E. Hogg, *Registration of title to land throughout the empire.*

LANDAU, town in Bavaria on the river Quelch.

1648.—Cession to France. See GERMANY: 1648: Peace of Westphalia.

1702-1703.—Taken and retaken. See GERMANY: 1702; 1703.

1704.—Taken by the Allies. See GERMANY: 1704.

1713.—Taken and retained by France. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1815-1816.—Cession to Bavaria.—In 1815 the town was given to Austria, and in 1816 was ceded to Bavaria.

LANDEN, or Neerwinden, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1693 (July).

LANDES, district of southwestern France. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: France: 1717-1922.

LANDESAUSSCHUSS, political term used in Germanic countries to indicate either a local or provincial representative body or a committee thereof. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Austria; GERMANY: 1871-1879.

LANDFRIEDE, FEHDERECHT, SWABIAN LEAGUE.—"Landfriede — Peace of the Land. The expression, Public Peace, which, in deference to numerous and high authorities I have generally used in the text, is liable to important objections. 'A breach of the public peace' means, in England, any open disorder or outrage. But [in mediæval Germany] the Landfriede (Pax publica) was a special act or provision directed against the abuse of an ancient and established institution, —the Fehderecht (jus diffidationis, or right of private warfare). The attempts to restrain this abuse were, for a long time, local and temporary. . . . The first energetic measure of the general government to put down private wars was that of the diet of Nürnberg (1466). . . . The Fehde is a middle term between duel and war. Every affront or injury led, after certain formalities, to the declaration, addressed to the offending party, that the aggrieved party would be his foe, and that of his helpers and helpers'-helpers. . . . I shall not go into an elaborate description of the evils attendant on the right of diffidation or private warfare (Fehderecht); they were probably not so great as is commonly imagined."—L. Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany, v. 1, pp. 77 (footnote), 71, 81.*—"The right of diffidation, or of private warfare, had been the immemorial privilege of the Germanic nobles—a privelege as clear as it was ancient, which no diet attempted to abolish, but which, from the mischiefs attending its exercise, almost every one had endeavoured to restrain. . . . Not only state could declare war against state, prince against prince, noble against noble, but any noble could legally defy the emperor himself." In the reign of Frederick III (1440-1493) efforts were made to institute a tribunal—an imperial chamber—which should have powers that would operate to restrain these private wars; but the emperor and the college of princes could not agree as to the constitution of the court proposed. To attain somewhat the same end, the emperor then "established a league both of the princes and of the imperial cities, which was destined to be better observed than most preceding confederations. Its object was to punish all who, during ten years, should, by the right of diffidation, violate the public tranquillity. He commenced with Swabia, which had ever been regarded as the imperial domain; and which, having no elector, no governing duke, no actual head other than the emperor himself, and, consequently, no other acknowledged protector, was sufficiently disposed to his views. In its origin the Swabian league consisted only of six cities, four prelates, three counts, sixteen knights; but by promises, or reasoning, or threats, Frederic soon augmented it. The number of towns was raised to 22, of prelates to 13, of counts to 12, of knights or inferior nobles to 350. It derived additional strength from the adhesion of princes and cities beyond the confines of Swabia; and additional splendour from the names of two electors, three margraves, and other reigning princes. It maintained constantly on foot 10,000 infantry and 1,000 cavalry,—a force generally sufficient for the preservation of tranquillity. Of its salutary effects some notion may be formed from the fact that, in a very short period, one-and-forty bandit dens were stormed, and that two powerful offenders, George duke of Bavaria, and duke Albert of Munich, were compelled by an armed force to make satisfaction for their infraction of the public peace."—S. A. Dunham, *History of the Germanic empire, v. 2, pp. 281-283.*—The final suppression of the Fehderecht was brought about in the succeeding reign, of Maximilian, by the institution of the imperial chamber and the organization of the circles to enforce its decrees. See GERMANY: 1493-1519.

LANDGERICHT, German county court. See COURTS: Germany: Modern courts.

LANDON, Herman James Shelley (1859-), English general. Served in the World War, 1914-1918. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: s, 5.

LANDOR, Walter Savage (1775-1864), English poet and prose writer. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1780-1830.

LANDOWNERS' CONVENTION, Ireland (1902). See IRELAND: 1896-1902.

LANDRECIES, manufacturing town in the north of France, on the Sambre.

1655.—Siege and capture by Turenne. See FRANCE: 1653-1656.

1659.—Ceded to France. See FRANCE: 1659-1661.

1794.—Siege and capture by the Allies.—Recovery by the French. See FRANCE: 1794 (March-July).

1914-1918.—Occupied by the Allies during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: n; 1918: II. Western front: m; x, 3.

LANDRIANO, Battle of (1529). See ITALY: 1527-1529.

LANDSBERG, Otto (1869-), German Social Democrat. Member of the council of commissars. See GERMANY: 1918 (November).

LANDSEER, Sir Edwin Henry (1802-1873), English animal painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

LANDSHUT, Battle of: 1634. See GERMANY: 1634-1639.

1760. See GERMANY: 1760.

1809. See GERMANY: 1809 (January-June).

LANDSMAAL, peasant dialect of Norway. See NORWAY: 1911-1913.

LANDSQUENETS.—"After the accession of Maximilian I. [emperor, 1493-1519], the troops so celebrated in history under the name of 'Landsquenets' began to be known in Europe. They were native Germans, and soon rose to a high degree of military estimation. That Emperor, who had studied the art of war, and who conducted it on principles of Tactics, armed them with long lances; divided them into regiments, composed of ensigns and squads; compelled them to submit to a rigorous discipline, and retained them under their standards after the conclusion of the wars in which he was engaged. . . . Pikes were substituted in the place of their long lances, under Charles V."—N. W. Wraxall, *History of France, v. 2, p. 183.*

LANDSTURM, German reserve troops, consisting of all able-bodied men too old for service in the regular army or the second line (Landwehr). See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 28; 29.

LANDTAG, legislative body. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, CONSTITUTION OF; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1800-1840; 1840-1850; PRUSSIA: 1850-1918.

LANDWEHR, German militia, second line army. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 28; 29; FYRD.

LANE, Franklin Knight (1864-1921), American cabinet officer. Member of Interstate Commerce Commission, 1905-1913; secretary of interior, 1913-1920; treasurer of the European Relief Council. See U. S. A.: 1913 (March); 1919-1920; ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1919-1920.

LANE, Joseph (1801-1881), American pioneer and soldier. Territorial governor of Oregon, 1849-1850; delegate to Congress, 1850-1859; United States senator, 1859-1861. See OREGON: 1859-1861.

LANE, Ralph Norman Angell (Norman Angell, pseud.) (1874), American author and advocate of peace, of English birth. See PEACE MOVEMENT: Typical views against war.

LANFRANC (c. 1005-1089), Norman cleric and statesman. Archbishop of Canterbury; acted as regent during the absence of William the Conqueror. See ABBOT; BEC, ABBEY OF.

LANFRANC (d. 1315), founder of French surgery. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 12th-15th centuries.

LANGEMARCK, village in Belgium, about five miles northeast of Ypres. Seized from the Germans by the Allies, 1917. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: **d,** 13.

LANGENSALZA, Battles of (1075, 1866). See SAXONY: 1073-1075; GERMANY: 1866.

LANGLADE, Charles Michel de (1729-1800), French-Canadian explorer and trader. See WISCONSIN: 1755-1765.

LANGLAND, William (c. 1330-1400), English poet. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 14th century.

LANGLE, De Cary, Fernand Louis Armand Marie de (1849-), French general. Commanded the 4th Army at the battle of the Marne and the Champagne fighting, 1914; successful on a fifteen-mile front from Auberive to Massiges, 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: **g,** 1; **j; p,** 1; **p,** 7.

LANGLEY, Samuel Pierpont (1834-1906), American physicist and astronomer. Designed and constructed a motor-driven airplane. See AVIATION: Development of airplane and air service: 1889-1900.

LANGMUIR, Irving (1881-), American chemist. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Survey of late inventions.

LANGOBARDI. See LOMBARDS.

LANG'S NEK, or Laing's Nek, Battle of (1881). See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881.

LANGSIDE, Battle of (1568). See SCOTLAND: 1561-1568.

LANGTON, Stephen (d. 1228), English statesman and ecclesiastic. Made Archbishop of Canterbury, 1207, but was prevented from occupying that office until 1213, because of the quarrel between King John and Pope Innocent III; influential in drafting some of the clauses of the Magna Carta. See ENGLAND: 1205-1213.

LANG-SON, Battle of (1885). See FRANCE: 1875-1889.

LANGUAGE. See PHILOLOGY; INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE.

LANGUAGE STRUGGLES: Austria and Austria-Hungary. See AUSTRIA: 1909; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1902; 1903-1905.

Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1848-1897; AUSTRIA: 1893-1900.

Canada. See CANADA: 1912-1916.

Flanders. See WORLD WAR: 1917: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: **h,** 5.

Korea. See KOREA: 1910-1919.

Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1825-1844; 1868-1890.

Poland. See POLAND: 1863-1869; 1872-1910.

Serbia. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: **b,** 2.

United States. See AMERICANIZATION: Problems of language, etc.

LANGUEDOC.—When, as a consequence of the Albigensian wars, the dominions of the counts of Toulouse were broken up and absorbed for the most part in the domain of the French crown, the country which had been chiefly ravaged in those wars, including Septimania and much of the old county of Toulouse, acquired the name by which its language was known—Languedoc. The 'langue d'oc' was spoken likewise in Provence and in Aquitaine; but it gave a definite geographical name only to the region between the Rhone and the Garonne.—See also ALBIGENSES: 1217-1229; Results of the Crusades; ARAGON; PROVENCE: 1179-1207; FRANCE: Maps of medieval period: 1154-1360.

LANGUE D'OC, French dialect. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 5th-15th centuries.

LANGUE D'OIL, French dialect. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 5th-15th centuries.

Influence on English literature. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 11th-14th centuries.

LANGUEDOC CANAL, France. See CANALS: Principal European canals: France.

LANIER, Sidney (1842-1881), American poet. See AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1865-1900.

LANNES, Jean, Duke of Montebello (1769-1809), marshal of France. Served through Pyrennean campaign, 1793-1794; on reorganization of the army, 1796, enlisted in the French army in Italy; became successively general of brigade, general of division, and commandant of the consular guard; commanded advance guard in the crossing of the Alps, 1800; in the Austerlitz campaign, 1805, and at Friedland, 1807, as marshal of France.—See also FRANCE: 1800-1801 (May-February); 1805 (March-December); GERMANY: 1806 (October); 1809 (January-June); SPAIN: 1808 (September-December); 1808-1809 (December-March); 1809 (February-July).

LANSDOWNE, Henry Charles Keith Petty-Fitzmaurice, 5th Marquess of (1845-), British statesman. Lord of the treasury, 1868-1872; under-secretary of state for war, 1872-1874; governor-general of Canada, 1883-1888; viceroy of India, 1888-1893; secretary of state for war, 1895-1900; secretary of state for foreign affairs, 1900-1905. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1903-1905; DARDANELLES: 1833-1914; INDIA: 1864-1893.

LANSDOWNE, William Petty Fitzmaurice, 1st Marquess (Earl of Shelburne) (1737-1805), British statesman. President of the Board of Trade, 1763; secretary of state, 1766-1768; premier, 1782-1783. See ENGLAND: 1782-1783; U.S.A.: 1782 (September); VIRGINIA: 1779-1797.

LANREZAC, Charles Louis (1852-), French general. In command of the 5th French Army at the battle of Charleroi during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: **g,** 1; **i.**

LANSING, John (1754-1829), American jurist. Member of the New York state assembly, 1780-1786; member of the Continental Congress, 1784-1788; opposed to ratifying the constitution; justice of New York supreme court, 1790-1798; chief justice, 1798-1801; chancellor, 1801-1814. See U.S.A.: 1787.

LANSING, Robert (1864-), American lawyer and statesman. Associate counsel for the United States in Bering sea arbitration, 1892-1893; counsel for United States Bering sea claims commission, 1896-1897; counsel for the United States at Alaskan boundary tribunal, 1903; counsel at North Atlantic coast fisheries arbitration at The Hague, 1909-1910; agent of United States in American and British claims arbitration, 1912-1914; counsellor for department of state, 1914-1915; secretary of state, 1915-1920; member of American commission to negotiate peace at Paris, 1919.—See also U.S.A.: 1907-1917; 1915 (May-September); 1916 (January-April); 1918-1919; 1919-1920; AMERICAN COM-

MISSION TO NEGOTIATE PEACE; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 75; 1918: X. Statement of war aims: t.

LANSING, capital of Michigan, northwest of Detroit. In 1920, the population numbered 57,327. See MICHIGAN: 1840-1848.

LANSING-ISHII AGREEMENT (1917). See U.S.A.: 1907-1917; CHINA: 1917 (November).

LANSQUENET, German army recruits. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 13.

LANUVIUM, or Lanivium, Latin canton-center, south of Rome. It was one of the thirty cities of the Latin League; opposed to Rome in the Great Latin War, 340-338 B.C. See ALBA.

LANZA, Domenico Giovanni Giuseppe Maria (c. 1810-1882), Italian statesman. Minister of education, 1855-1858; minister of finance, 1858; president of the chamber, 1860-1861; minister of interior, 1864-1865; 1869; premier, 1869-1873. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Italy.

LAON, capital of the department of Aisne, northern France. The town was the last capital of the Carolingian kings. The rock-lifted castle and stronghold of Laon, situated in the modern department of Aisne, about 74 miles northeast from Paris, was the last refuge and capital—sometimes the sole dominion—of the Carolingian kings, in their final struggle with the new dynasty sprung from the Dukes of France. The "King of Laon" and the "King of St. Denis," as the contestants are sometimes called, disputed with one another for a monarchy which was small when the sovereignty of the two had been united in one. In 991 the "King of Laon" was betrayed to his rival, Hugh Capet, and died in prison. "Laon ceased to be a capital, and became a quiet country town; the castle, relic of those days, stood till 1832, when it was rased to the ground."—G. W. Kitchin, *History of France, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 2.*

1112.—Communal revolt. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD; 1000-1300.

1594.—Siege and capture by Henry IV. See FRANCE: 1593-1598.

1814.—Occupied by General Blücher. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March).

1914-1918.—Scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: s, 5; 1917: II. Western front: b, 1; b, 2, i; b, 2, iii; 1918: II. Western front: i; r, 1.

ALSO IN: F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England, v. 2, bk. 1, pt. 2, ch. 4, pt. 1-2.*

LAOS, region in French Indio-China. It is inhabited by a mixed population of about 2,000,000. See INDIO-CHINA.

LAO-TSE, Lao-tze, or Laocius (c. 604 B.C.-c. 517 B.C.), second of China's great sages in importance. "He was for some years keeper of the archives of the imperial court. In his old age Lao-tze, on account of the signs of decay in the state, resigned his position and set out for the West to retire from the world. When he reached the frontier one of his disciples, it is said, asked him to write a book, whereupon he wrote the *Tao Teh King*. This story comprises all that we know of the life of Lao-tze, and, as this comes from a writer many centuries later, its truth is involved in considerable doubt. Nevertheless the *Tao Teh King* gives us the oldest known form of the teachings of Lao-tze. . . . This general principle was: 'The soft overcomes the hard; and the weak, the strong.' He once said: 'I have three precious things that I prize and hold fast. The first is gentleness; the second is economy; and the third is shrinking from taking precedence of others.' Again: 'It is the way of the Tao . . . to consider what is small as great, and a few as many; and to recompense injury with kindness. He thus rose almost to the gospel rule: 'Do good to them that hate you,' and far surpassed Confucius' negative form of the Golden Rule."—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world, pp. 211-215.*—See also CHINA: Religion of the people; TAOISM; PAINTING: Chinese.

LA PALLICE, port of the ancient town of La Rochelle, France. It was used as a debarkation port for American troops during the World War. See BREST: 1914-1918.

LAPLACE, Pierre Simon, Marquis de (1749-1827), French astronomer. See ASTRONOMY: 1796-1921; SCIENCE: Modern: 18th century.

LAPLACIAN THEORY. See ASTRONOMY: 1796-1921.

LAPLANDERS, Language of. See PHILOLOGY: 20.

LAPITHÆ.—A race which occupied in early times the valley of the Peneus, in Thessaly; "a race which derived its origin from Almopia in Macedonia, and was at least very nearly connected with the Minyans and Æolians of Ephyra."—C. O. Müller, *History and antiquity of the Doric race, bk. 1, ch. 1.*

LA POINTE MISSION, Wisconsin, founded by Allouez, 1665. See WISCONSIN: 1658-1669.

LA PUERTA, Battle of (1814). See COLOMBIA: 1810-1819.

LARAMIE, fort of Wyoming, erected in 1834. See WYOMING: 1834-1862; 1851-1865.

LARAMIE CONFERENCE. See WYOMING: 1866 (June-December).

LA RÉVELLIÈRE-LÉPEAUX, Louis Marie de (1753-1824), French statesman. Deputy to states-general, 1789; prominent member of the convention, 1792; proscribed with the Girondins, 1793; member of the commission of eleven which drew up the constitution of the year 3; president of the assembly, July, 1795; member of the committee of public safety; president of the directory.

LARGS, Battle of. See SCOTLAND: 1263; NORMANS: 10th-13th centuries.

LARIAB, or Parias, province of South America. See AMERICA: 1497-1498.

LARISSA.—There were several ancient cities in Greece and Asia Minor called Larissa. See ARGOS; PERRHÆBIANS; GREECE: Map of ancient Greece.

LARKIN, Thomas (1802-1858), United States consul at Monterey. See CALIFORNIA: 1806-1846.

LAROCHEJACQUELIN, Henri Vergier, Comte de (1772-1794), French nobleman and Vendéen leader. See FRANCE: 1793 (June).

LA ROCHELLE. See ROCHELLE.

LA ROTHIÈRE, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March).

LARRA, Mariano José de (Figaro) (1809-1837), Spanish critic and satirist. See SPANISH LITERATURE: 19th-20th centuries.

LARSA, city of ancient Babylonia, the center of the Elamite dominion. See BABYLONIA: First Babylonian empire; Hammurabi.

LA SALLE, René Robert Cavalier, Sieur de (1643-1687), French explorer. Emigrated to Canada, 1666; established trading post near Montreal, 1669; discovered the Ohio and Illinois rivers, 1669-1670; sailed down the Mississippi to its mouth, 1682; deputed to found a settlement there and sailed from La Rochelle, 1684; failed in his intention and mistook Matagorda bay, Texas, for a branch of the river; murdered by his followers when trying to reach Canada by land, 1787.—See also CANADA: 1669-1687; MICHIGAN: 1616-1701; WISCONSIN: 1671-1685.

LA SALLE, St. Jean Baptiste de (1651-1719), French priest. Founded the order of Christian Brothers, 1684. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: France: Standard, etc.; 1632-1905; 17th-20th centuries: Christian Brothers.

LAS CASAS, Bartolomé de. See CASAS, BARTOLOMÉ DE LAS.

LAS CHARCAS. See CHARCAS, LAS.

LAS CRUCES, Battle of (1810). See MEXICO: 1810-1819.

LAS HERAS, Juan Gregorio de (1780-1866), Spanish-American general. Governor of Buenos Aires, 1824; acting president of Argentina, May-Feb., 1825. See LATIN AMERICA: 1823.

LASKER, Eduard (1829-1884), Prussian statesman. Prominent member of the National Liberal party of Germany. See JEWS: 18th-19th centuries.

LASSA. See LHASA.

LASSALLE, Ferdinand (1825-1864), German socialist, founder of the German Social Democratic party. See SOCIALISM: 1862-1864; COÖPERATION: Germany.

LASSEN PEAK.—A volcano 10,437 feet high, about 200 miles from San Francisco. On May 30, 1914, "Lassen Peak, a well-known old volcanic cone in the northern part of the state situated about seventy-five miles southeasterly from Mt. Shasta, suddenly burst into explosive action. . . . In general, geographers consider Lassen Peak as marking approximately the southern end of the Cascade Range, and as being the last of that series of great volcanic cones of which Rainier, Adams, Hood, Three Sisters, Mazama, Pit and Shasta are familiar examples."—R. Holway, *Volcanic activity of Lassen Peak* (*Popular Science Monthly, Mar.,* 1915).

LASSI, or Lazzi. See LÆTI.

LASSIGNY, village in France, southwest of Aisne. It was the object of German attack during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 5; j, 4.

LASSO, or Lassus, Orlando di (Roland Delattre) (c. 1530-1594), Flemish composer. Forerunner of Palestrina; considered one of the supreme masters of harmonic beauty, and, in the number of his works (2000), the most prolific composer in history. See MUSIC: Medieval: 1450-1600.

LASWARI, Battle of (1803) See INDIA: 1798-1805.

LATEINER, Joseph (1853-), Yiddish dramatist of Russian birth. See JEWS: Drama and theater.

LA TEMA NEK FIGHT. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 3; a, 4.

LATERAN, Palace of, and Church of St. John Lateran.—The church was three times destroyed, once by earthquake, twice by fire. The present church dates from the end of the fourteenth century and is in the precincts of the Lateran Palace. "The Lateran derives its name from a rich patrician family, whose estates were confiscated by Nero. . . . It afterwards became an imperial residence, and a portion of it . . . was given by Constantine to Pope Melchiades in 312,—a donation which was confirmed to St. Sylvester, in whose reign the first basilica was built here. . . . The ancient Palace of the Lateran was the residence of the popes for nearly 1,000 years. . . . The modern Palace of the Lateran was built from designs of Fontana by Sixtus V. In 1693 Innocent XII turned it into a hospital,—in 1438 Gregory XVI. appropriated it as a museum."—A. J. C. Hare, *Walks in Rome, ch.* 13.—It is now under the control of the Italian government. The church, however, is the cathedral of the diocese of Rome and is, therefore, under the direct jurisdiction of the pope as bishop.

ALSO IN: R. A. Lanciani, *Pagan and Christian Rome.*

LATERAN COUNCIL (1215). See WALDENSES.

LATHANOS, American aboriginal tribe. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

LATHES OF KENT.—"The county of Kent [England] is divided into six 'lathes,' of nearly equal size, having the jurisdiction of the hundreds in other shires. The lathe may be derived from the Jutish 'lething' (in modern Danish 'leding')—a military levy."—T. P. Taswell-Langmead, *English constitutional history, ch.* 1, *foot-note.*

LATHOM HOUSE, Siege of. See ENGLAND: 1644 (January-July).

LATIFUNDIA.—The great slave-tilled estates of the Romans, which swallowed up the properties of the small land-holders of earlier times, were called Latifundia.

LATIN AMERICA

Geographic description.—"Latin America is the name employed to distinguish, as a group, 20 American republics [Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Salvador, Uruguay, Venezuela], and . . . as a general term to designate all of the central and southern portions of the New Yorld, continental and insular, . . . between the United States and Cape Horn. . . . The total area of the 20 Latin American republics is about 8,150,000 to 8,200,000 square miles and the aggregate population of the same countries not less than 75,000,000 [in 1917]; in each the language of the ruling class is Spanish, except in Brazil, where it is Portuguese, and in Haiti, where it is French or a patois called 'creole.' "—M. Wilcox, *Latin America* (*Encyclopedia of Latin America, p.* 7).—"In nearly all the republics the population was and is small in proportion to its area, and in most of them communication across this thinly peopled area is hindered by mountains or deserts or forests. Colombia, . . . with a territory of 435,000 square miles . . . has only ten persons to the square mile . . . and is so intersected by lofty and heavily wooded ranges that most parts of it are accessible only by long and difficult journeys along mule paths. Bolivia, . . . has only three and a half persons to the square mile, and its few towns, only one of which has more than twenty-five thousands inhabitants, are separated by long spaces of wilderness. Peru is cut up by the numerous chains of the Andes into narrow valleys, each of which has little intercourse with the others. In such countries—and this applies to nearly all of them—there is, and there can be, very little public opinion common to the nation, because the means of intercommunication are defective and slow. Officials representing the central government cannot easily be supervised or controlled. When revolt breaks out, it may spread fast, and become formidable before any adequate force can be collected and dispatched to the spot to suppress it. All these conditions also prevent the growth of a press capable of informing and aiding the growth of opinion."—J. Bryce, *South America, pp.* 527-528.—"For its external means of com-

munication by water, Latin America . . . is favored above other geographical divisions. Each nation except Bolivia has an ample seaboard; the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico constitute a veritable American Mediterranean open to commerce at all seasons of the year; and the Panama Canal facilitates traffic from all corners of the globe to either side of the North American or South American republics and from the Orient to the Antilles. Thus far the settlement and the social history of Latin America have been determined by the maritime factors."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America, p.* 12.—See also under specific name of republic, subhead Geographic description: e.g. ARGENTINA: Geographic description; BOLIVIA: Geographic description, etc.

For the detailed history of the Latin American republics, see ARGENTINA; BOLIVIA; BRAZIL; BRITISH GUIANA; CENTRAL AMERICA; CHILE; COLOMBIA; COSTA RICA; CUBA; ECUADOR; GUATEMALA; GUIANA; HAITI, REPUBLIC OF; HONDURAS; MEXICO; NICARAGUA; PANAMA; PARAGUAY; PERU; SANTO DOMINGO; URUGUAY; VENEZUELA; WEST INDIES.

Agriculture. — Resources. — "Agriculture and mining, . . . constitute the main industries of Latin America. Though under manned and in general untouched by intensive methods, Latin American agriculture has through mere extent of territory and exuberance of soil, occupied for many years either the first or the second place in the world in the production of corn, sugar, coffee, cacao, the third or fourth place in the production of tobacco, and one of the front ranks in the production of cereals, cattle, and wool. . . . The mineral resources of Latin America continue to hold the high place given them by Spanish exploitation centuries ago. Mexico now stands first in the world in the output of silver and Colombia in that of platinum; Bolivia occupies the second rank in the production of tin, Chile in copper, and Mexico in petroleum; Venezuela and Cuba and British Trinidad together lead the world in the production of asphalt. Brazil supplied most of the diamonds of the world before the rise of Kimberley mines in South Africa. . . . Bolivia supplies all the bismuth used in the world, Brazil most of the thorium, one mine in Peru four-fifths of the vanadium, and Colombia practically all the fine emeralds. In spite of the incessant exploitation of the mines of Latin America for the past four centuries, nothing is yet known with certainty of their capacity. Vast areas still await scientific investigation. Even the possibilities of gold and silver mining have not been exhausted nor ascertained with precision, and the era of iron and of technically important minor metals has barely dawned. . . . The Latin American industries in which the world at large is today showing the greatest interest and in several of which modern principles are being most plainly exhibited are cattle-raising and packing, oil and coal exploitation, lumbering, and manufacturing. Some of these are new industries, whereas others are of long-standing. . . . The influence of foreign ideas is observable in all of them. Nevertheless, it is Latin American enterprise which is making all of them possible, and Latin American scientific skill, industrial acumen, and workmanship which are successfully carrying them on."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America, pp.* 53-54, 57.—"It is . . . surprising to find urban conditions in Latin America so similar to those of the United States. . . . Even in the country districts one finds the most approved agricultural and mining machinery, roads, railways, bridges, telegraph lines, irrigation works and fences, even, so like our own that one wonders whether Latin America is being 'Americanized' or whether the material progress so characteristic of the United States is but a phase of a far wider movement going on in every part of the world."—J. E. Le Rossignal, *introduction* (J. Warshaw, *New Latin America, pp.* vii-viii).—"Wherever modern scientific methods of agriculture have been applied consistently remarkable yields have been secured. Sugar cane in Cuba, according to the Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor of the island, averaged last year (1920) a gross return of $800 per acre; and the cane on virgin land may be cut without replanting for thirty years. Tobacco is planted, grown, and gathered in ninety days. Cotton, which is now the third most important crop of Peru, furnishes in the Ganete valley an average of 553 pounds to the acre, and has attained a maximum of over 1300 pounds in the valley of Lambayeque. Five good crops may be obtained without replanting, and the cotton in general is of the finest grade. The better class of grapes of Mendoza, Argentina, often yield a net profit of from $800 to $1000 per acre. In the valleys of Tacna Province, Chile, olive-trees exhibit a wonderful fruitfulness, a single tree being reported to have produced 1900 pounds of olives. The degree to which a modern system of cultivation and merchandising has expanded the banana industry from the humblest beginnings may be gleaned from the rise of the United Fruit Company, founded by Mr. Minor C. Keith, to a commanding position in the commercial world within the short space of some thirty years. A similar expansion is possible in some other tropical fruits, and especially in the fruits of the temperate and sub-tropical zones of southern South America. The business methods of the California fruit-growers, if transplanted to Chile, Argentina, and southern Brazil, would enable those sections of Latin America to supply our markets plentifully with peaches, pears, apples, plums, nectarines, apricots, melons, and grapes—which mature there during our winter and early spring months—and to compete strongly in Europe with other fruit-growing countries. Under the Incas, the Aztecs, the Mayas, and the Spaniards and Portuguese of the olden time, agriculture and mining followed a set routine. A few staple crops and the precious metals absorbed the attention of natives and conquistadores alike. . . . To-day, thoughtful Latin Americans realize that it is necessary to dig deeper and to place a more solid foundation under the future. An earnest of their desire to modernize their industries is seen in the universal establishment of agricultural, mining and engineering, trade and vocational schools and in their search for expert scientific assistance from abroad."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America, pp.* 54-56.—"The agricultural resources of Central America are abundant. Coffee-raising in Costa Rica and Nicaragua is an important industry. In Guatemala corn is the chief food crop, while coffee and cotton are two of the chief crops raised for export. Fruit culture is becoming increasingly important for the Central American states, and the export of bananas is especially large in Costa Rica, Guatemala, and Nicaragua. The great natural product of Salvador is the balsam tree. About 130,000 pounds of balsam are exported annually. It is used in surgery for its antiseptic qualities. In Honduras and Panama the growing of bananas for export is the most important industry, though coffee, cocoa, rubber, and sugar are raised in increasing quantities."—W. W. Sweet, *History of Latin Amer-*

ica, p. 243.—"Cattle-raising is one of the oldest of industries in Latin America, has long been nurtured with especial care in Argentina and Uruguay, and yet is on the eve of a new epoch. To-day, Argentina has more cattle than any country in Europe except Russia, and is, perhaps, not behind post-war Russia. Argentina and Brazil together have probably more cattle than the United States, since Argentina's 29,500,000 head in 1915 and Brazil's 30,705,000 in 1913 have been increasing, while the 61,804,000 head in the United States in 1910 diminished to 61,441,000 in 1916, and seem likely to keep on decreasing. Uruguay and Mexico combined surpass the United Kingdom in numbers of cattle, and Uruguay alone excels Canada. From the few cattle brought over by the Spaniards, and in many cases abandoned on the South American and Mexican plains, has sprung the colossal industry which purveys meat to the major part of the Western World."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America, pp.* 57-58.—See also below: 1918-1921: Effect of natural resources.

Aborigines.—Racial elements. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America; RACE PROBLEMS: Previous to 1900; ANDESIANS; also under the name of the republics, e. g. BRAZIL: Racial elements; CENTRAL AMERICA: Population; CHILE: Aborigines; etc.

Mythology. See MYTHOLOGY: Latin American.

Forms of government.—"The form of government which has been adopted throughout Latin America is republican, and however unsuccessful it may have been in practice, yet the people are thoroughly wedded to it in theory and will tolerate no other. Three times have monarchies been established in Latin America, twice in Mexico and in Brazil once, but all were failures. The chief reason for the lack of stability in Latin-America government seems to be lack of experience in self-government, as well as a lack of certain characteristics which self-government tends to create in the individual. . . . Elections give no opportunity for the free expression of the desires of the people, because they are conducted under the control of the government and the party in power [see also ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL: South American]; hence the only way for one party to replace another is by revolution. . . . Latin Americans are excellent theorists and constitution makers. On paper their instruments of government are almost perfect. Their ideas of justice and liberty are high, as high indeed as those of the Anglo-Saxon republics of the north. . . . There are two types of republics prevailing in Latin America: centralized and federal. Under the first came Peru, Chile, Bolivia, Ecuador, Colombia, Uruguay, and Paraguay, the republics of Central America as well as the three island republics. Under the federal form come the larger states of Argentina, Brazil, Venezuela, and Mexico. All of the constitutions separate the departments more or less distinctly into executive, legislative, and judicial. They all have elective presidencies, the president generally holding office for a period of four to six years. The legislative branch of the governments consists generally of a Congress of two chambers, a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The judicial department is provided with a Supreme Court, with appointive judges, while the provinces or states have special courts of their own. The constitutions generally recognize the Catholic religion as the religion of the state, though in some the establishment or prohibition of any form of religion is prohibited. In all the states education is free and compulsory."—W. W. Sweet, *History of Latin America, pp.* 214-215.—The stability of political institutions is growing in South America. In spite of the southern nations' reputation for fighting, because of local disturbances, the fact remains that South America has engaged in fewer international wars than any other continent. Local revolutions are growing less common, Chile has not had one in all her history, and countries like Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay are as stable as any nations in the world.—Based on S. G. Inman, *Obstacles to Pan-American concord (New York Times Current History, Feb.,* 1923).—See also BUENOS AIRES: Description of government.

1498-1514.—Period of discovery.—Voyages of Ojeda, Vespucci and Cabral.—Exploration of Brazilian coast. See AMERICA: 1498-1505, to 1503-1504; COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 15th-17th centuries: Spanish enterprise.

16th-17th centuries.—Spanish colonial policy.—Audiencias.—Encomiendas. — Repartimientos.—Judicial and administrative functions. See AUDIENCIAS; COLONIZATION: Spanish; CHILE: 1540-1778; also below: 1715-1810.

1504-1524.—Hernando Cortes.—Central American expeditions.—Francisco Pizarro.—Conquistadores. — The outstanding figure in the early years of Latin American history is Hernando Cortes, who had come to Hispaniola in 1504, and who set out on the expedition that resulted in the conquest of Mexico in 1518. (See AMERICA: 1517-1518; MEXICO: 1519 [February-April], to 1521 [July].) "The region called Central America was occupied by the Spaniards from 1522 to 1524 through expeditions that were sent out, on the one side by Hernando Cortés, and on the other side by Pe'drárias de Avila, who had been made governor of Darién and adjacent territory. In January, 1522, Gil González Dávila started from the Gulf of San Miguel along the Central American coast in a westerly direction. Soon compelled to beach his poor vessels, González continued his expedition by land and, after many hardships, he heard rumors of a wise Indian chief in the interior, who was named Nicaragua. González and his followers visited this cacique in his capital which was located upon the shores of a lake only a few leagues from the Pacific Ocean. After baptizing and catechizing many Indians, González returned to Panama with news of his discovery. While González was striving to secure a royal grant of the region that became known as Nicaragua, Governor Pedrárias sent Francisco Hernandez de Córdoba to occupy it. After founding settlements there, Hernandez came to blows with González, who was finally seized by a follower of Cortés. Stories of wonderful lands to the south incited Cortés to select Pedro de Alvarado to lead an expedition to a region that was called Guatemala. In December, 1523, Alvardo left Mexico City with a large force of Spaniards and Indians bound for the south. After a series of bloody conflicts he captured the important towns of Guatemala and even penetrated into a district that was designated Salvador. On July 25, 1524, he founded a city name Santiago de Guatemala."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations, pp.* 72-73.—About the year 1524, Francisco Pizarro set out from Panama on the isthmus of Darien to undertake the conquest of Peru, the second great nation of the New World. The story of the Spanish conquest of Peru includes also that of Chili, and the conquest of Ecuador then the kingdom of Quito. [See also AMERICA: 1524-1528.] "The sixteenth century was the era of the Spanish *conquistadores.* These men led expeditions which

made a permanent conquest of large areas, and developed a preliminary knowledge of nearly the whole field subsequently occupied. They were followed, perhaps in the wake of other expeditions, by soldiers, missionaries, and civilians, all of Spanish blood. The civilians were for the most part miners, a smaller number engaging in stock-raising and other pursuits characteristic of frontier life. This was a second phase of the conquest. Eventually, in a portion of the field, there came a third phase, when settled orderly government appeared, the military moving on, secular clergy replacing regular, and civilians entering in greater numbers and engaging in a greater variety of occupations. This was the final stage, when the particular region ceased to partake of the attributes of a frontier province. In all three stages the white people, although a very small minority, were the ruling class. As a rule the Indians were not driven away or killed, as in the English colonies, but, although strictly ruled and virtually enslaved, were allowed to remain."—C. E. Chapman, *Founding of Spanish California, pp.* 1-2.

1504-1685.—Spanish treatment of the Indian and of the Negro.—"When the islands and mainland of the ocean, discovered and undiscovered, were granted to us by the Holy Apostolic See [see AMERICA: 1493] . . . our principal intention was to endeavor to persuade and win over the peoples thereof, and to convert them to our holy Catholic faith, and to send to the said islands and mainland prelates and monks, ecclesiastics and other learned and God-fearing persons who should instruct the inhabitants in the Catholic faith, teach and impart to them good customs, and devote to the work a befitting diligence. . . . Most affectionately I beseech my lord the king, and I charge and command the princess my daughter and the prince her husband, that they shall neither consent nor allow that the Indian inhabitants of the said islands and mainland, gained and to be gained, shall suffer any injury in their persons and property."—*Codicil to the will of Queen Isabella.*—"That great evils existed in the treatment of the natives in the extensive regions of the 'Conquista' is certainly undeniable, although it is also incontestable that the horrors of the Indian oppression have been extremely exaggerated by the agitators for the rights of humanity, among whom Bishop Bartolomé de las Casas [1598] occupies a prominent place. The Indians were undoubtedly often overburdened by toil, and thousands of them succumbed; yet from the point of view of self-interest, it was of great importance to the colonists that those peoples under their protection should be preserved, so that unscrupulous exploitation, cannot therefore be taken as the universal rule. . . . It must be acknowledged that the policy of the Spanish government regarding the native question was the most enlightened and well intentioned of any which had been put into practice anywhere."—K. Haebler (H. F. Helmolt's *History of the World*).—"The education of Negroes was facilitated among the French and Spanish by their liberal attitude toward their slaves. Many of them were respected for their worth and given some of the privileges of freemen. Estevanecito, an enlightened slave sent by Niza, the Spanish adventurer, to explore Arizona, was a favored servant of this class. The Latin custom of miscegenation proved to be a still more important factor in the education of Negroes in the colonies. . . . This was especially true of the Spanish settlements. They had more persons of this class than any other colonies in America. The Latins, in contradistinction to the English, generally liberated their mulatto offspring and sometimes recognized them as their equals. Such Negroes constituted a class of persons who, although they could not aspire to the best in the colony, had a decided advantage over other inhabitants of color. . . . The Code Noir granted [1685] freedom, the same rights, privileges, and immunities as those enjoyed by persons born free, with the view that the accomplishment of acquired liberty should have on the former the same effect that the happiness of natural liberty caused in other subjects. . . . The Code Noir obliged every planter to have his Negroes instructed and baptized. It allowed the slave for instruction, worship, and rest not only every Sunday, but every festival usually observed by the Roman Catholic Church. It did not permit any market to be held on Sundays or holidays. It prohibited, under severe penalties, all masters and managers from corrupting their female slaves. It did not allow the Negro husband, wife, or infant children to be sold separately. It forbade them the use of torture, or immoderate and inhuman punishments. It obliged the owners to maintain their old and decrepit slaves. If the Negroes were not fed and clothed as the law prescribed, or if they were in any way cruelly treated, they might apply to the Procureur, who was obliged by his office to protect them."—C. G. Woodson, *Education of the negro prior to 1861, p.* 22.

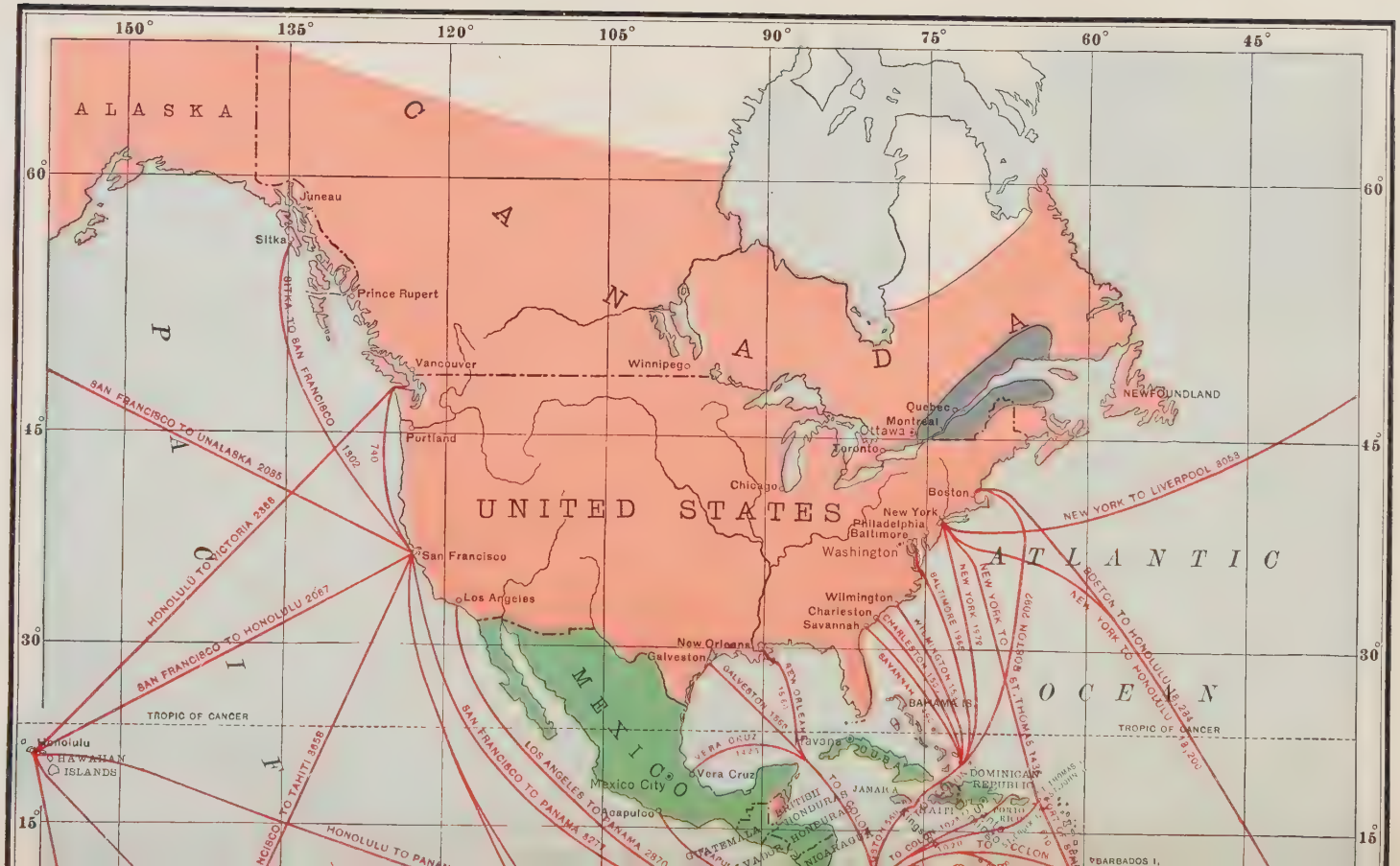
1512.—Beginning of missionary work. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Latin America.

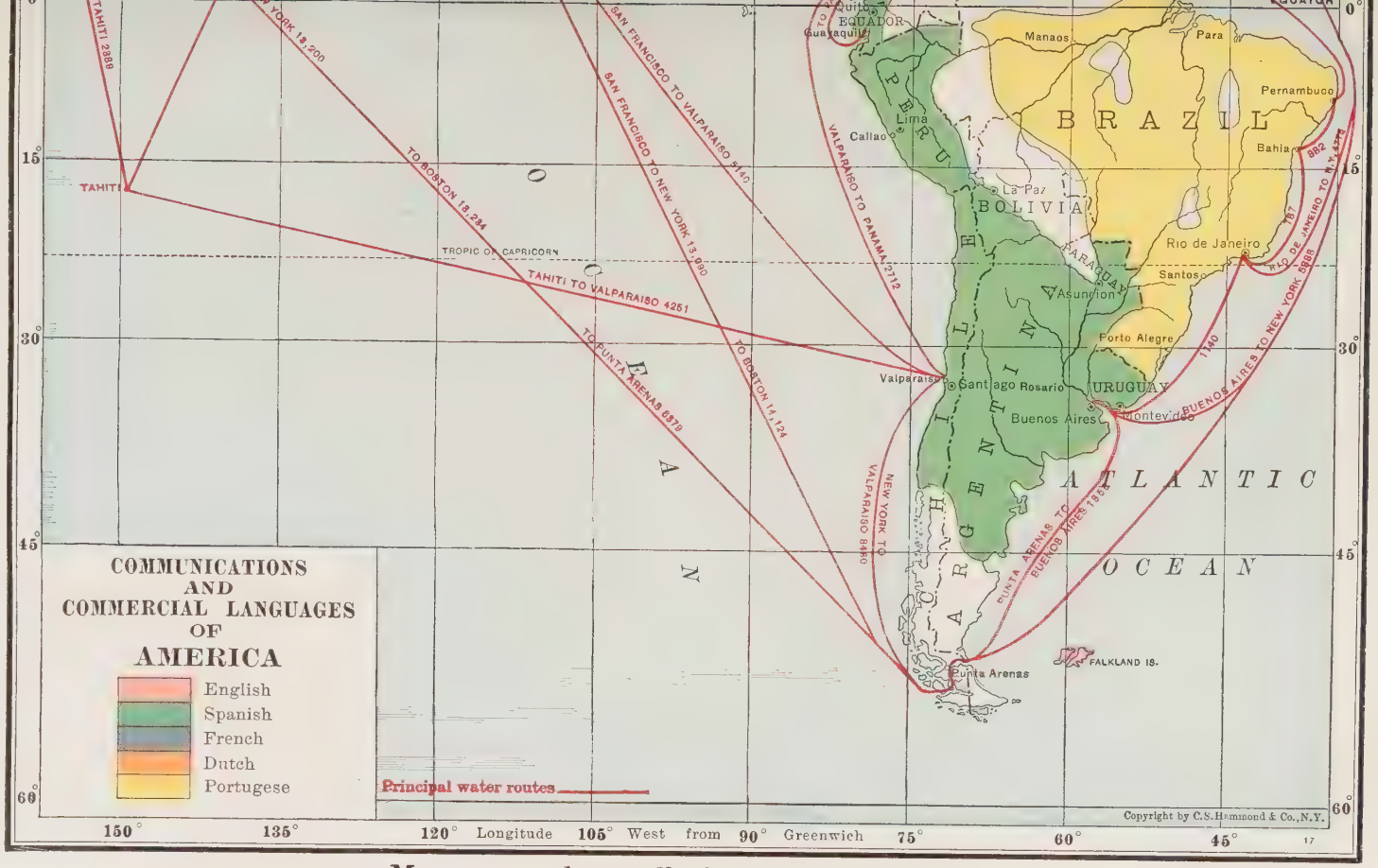
1535-1700.—Spanish colonial policy.—Viceroys.—Growth of towns.—At no time did the Spanish people at home look upon their colonists as settlers with whom they could trade; they had always kept the viewpoint of the conqueror and explorer to the fore. Therefore the emigration from Spain to America was a loss in man power which the mother country could ill afford. "The colonization of Central America proceeded slowly. Here, too, the exploration of the interior and the planting of settlements was largely carried on by members of religious orders. Jesuits were active in Nicaragua, Franciscans in Honduras, and Franciscans and Recollets in Guatemala. By the middle of the seventeenth century the city of Santiago contained monasteries belonging to six different religious orders. Shiploads of Scotchmen tried in vain in 1698 and 1700 to establish a colony on the Isthmus of Panama."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations, p.* 115.—Mexico, or New Spain, and Peru were at first regarded by the Spaniards as the most important and valuable portions of America. The Spanish possessions were automatically divided into two viceroyalties bearing those two names, one with its seat of government at Mexico, the other at Lima. What is now Central America and California was then a part of the northern viceroyalty; gradually all of South America was included in the southern viceroyalty. "The first viceroy who regularly represented the Spanish King in his American dominions was Antonio de Mendoza. His jurisdiction [established 1535] originally extended over all the Spanish dominions in Central and North America: in other words, he was the chief colonial official in the vast district which stretched from the Isthmus of Panama as far north as the Spanish claims extended. [See also MEXICO: 1535-1822; PERU: 1550-1816.] The capital of the viceroyalty of New Spain or Mexico was located at Mexico City. The earliest law concerning the viceregal institution declared that the kingdoms of New Spain and Peru were

to be governed by viceroys who should represent the Spanish monarch. Viceroys should exercise the superior governmental authority; they should administer justice equally to all Spanish subjects and vassals, and should study everything that might promote the pacification, tranquillity, and welfare of their provinces just as the King would do if he were present in person. . . . Viceroy Blasco Nuñez Vela established his capital at Lima. Originally the jurisdiction of the Peruvian viceroy extended over all the Spanish possessions in South America. Shortly after the establishment of the viceroyalty of Peru, the Spanish government issued a fundamental statute concerning the viceroys. This statute declared that in all matters arising within his jurisdiction a viceroy could take such measures as seemed to him wise: unless there existed some special prohibition, he could act with the same power and prerogatives as the King himself. It commanded the audiencias of Peru and New Spain, governors, judges, subjects, vassals, ecclesiastics, and laymen of whatsoever class or condition, to obey the viceroys as personages who represented the Spanish king. . . . During the early period of Spanish rule in America a viceroy was in general charge of the financial administration of his viceroyalty. From the very beginning a Spanish viceroy in America occupied a threefold position: he was captain general, president, and viceroy, within a special district. . . . Special directions with regard to the manifold duties of a viceroy were given in more than seventy laws. The viceroy of a particular region was often expected to be the patron of monasteries and hospitals, the protector of the poor, and the defender of the oppressed. He was the King's *alter ego*. . . . According to an official report dated 1574, there were some two hundred towns or cities in the Spanish Indies. One-half of them were in South America. The limits of municipalities were more or less carefully defined according to the density of population. Where the territory was thickly settled, a town was described as extending to the boundaries of the neighboring towns or cities. In thinly settled portions of Spanish America, the city included a considerable extent of adjacent territory. Politically the Spanish-American city was modeled after the Castilian municipality. A royal order of 1563 provided that every *adelantado* should found at least three cities with a province of dependent villages. Ordinarily the founder of a city was allowed to appoint *alcaldes* and *regidores* for the *ayuntamiento* or, as it was sometimes called, the *cabildo*. He was to assign to each settler a lot in the city and a tract of land for cultivation beyond its gates. He also had the power to allot *encomiendas* to settlers. Where there was no *adelantado* or other authorized leader, ten married men might join to establish a settlement and to form a town government. Spanish laws made careful specifications about the plan of a town. Its center was the *plaza mayor* or great square. Around that square were built the church or, the cathedral, the town hall, and the prison. Streets intersecting at right angles enclosed the blocks in which the colonists built their town houses. After a town or city was founded, the authority to grant lands passed from the *adelantado* to the *cabildo*. This 'chess-board plan' of municipalities was often followed in Spanish America."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations, pp.* 93-95, 100.—See also COLONIZATION: Spanish.

1580-1777.—Spanish and Portuguese conflicts for control. See ARGENTINA: 1580-1777.

1715-1810.—Government of New Spain in the eighteenth century.—Administration of Gálvez. —"The viceregal office [of the eighteenth century] attained to its fullest development in Mexico, or New Spain, rather than in Peru, under the special guidance of the greatest of Spain's experts in colonial affairs, José de Gálvez [1729-1787], Minister General of the Indies (Ministro Universal de Indias). . . . In the eighteenth century, notably during the last thirty years of it, New Spain shared in those far-reaching reforms of the enlightened despot, Charles III, which makes its history during that reforming epoch peculiarly important. The transformation which the Spanish colonial system underwent at this time can be studied to best advantage, as far as America is concerned, in the history of the viceroyalty of Mexico. . . . This period, the last third of the eighteenth century, was not only a reforming epoch, when Spain was again one of the great powers of Europe, but it was also the time in Spanish American history which may be called the eve of the war of independence. It is therefore the period when there can be studied to the best advantage those political and social forces which eventually lost for Spain the most splendid colonial empire known at that time, as a consequence of which this era is attractive to the historical student as a period of subsequent secession of Spanish America. . . . The viceroyalty of New Spain proper may be said to have extended from Guatemala to Louisiana and Oregon. Over this vast but not very accurately defined territory the viceroy exercised a threefold authority. . . . There is almost never discernible in the duties of a Spanish high official in the colonies that distinction between civil and military, or between executive and judicial functions which are so fundamental with us. . . . 1. The great variety of duties which are by us commonly termed civil were exercised by the viceroy in his capacity of *gobernador*, or governor. . . . However, as chief in a general way of the civil administration, it cannot be a matter of surprise to find the *gobernador* held accountable for the collection of taxes of all kinds, whether for local purposes or for the satisfaction of the rights (*derechos*) of the king of Spain. Naturally, it made no difference from what sources these taxes were derived, whether upon real or personal property, or incomes, or movable goods. Included in the above were the duties of all sorts levied on commerce, exterior and interior, and the tribute or capitation tax paid by both whites and civilized Indians. Under this heading also came the administration of the numerous mines, with its own special code of laws. With this responsibility for collecting the revenues there went a responsibility for their expenditure, and this covered disbursements of all kinds, whether for local or imperial purposes, such as the subsidies to the mother country and the neighboring colonies, the appropriations for the military and the civil service, and the carrying out of public improvements. . . . 2. It was in his second capacity, as captain-general, that the viceroy possessed some of his most distinctive powers in the administrative hierarchy of New Spain. The supreme military command over all the military and naval forces, the militia of the provinces and the police of the capital, was vested in the viceroy. . . . 3. In addition to being head of the civil administration as governor and commander-in-chief of all branches of the military service as captain-general, the viceroy enjoyed the position of the king's direct representative as the civil head of the church with the title of *vice-patrono*, or vice-patron. . . . The relations of


150°
135°
120°
105°
90°
75°
60°
45°
60°
45°
30°
15°
ALASKA
CANADA
UNITED STATES
MEXICO
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Juneau
Sitka
Prince Rupert
Vancouver
Winnipeg
Portland
Chicago
Quebec
Montreal
Ottawa
Toronto
NEWFOUNDLAND
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Washington
San Francisco
Los Angeles
Wilmington
Charleston
Savannah
New Orleans
Galveston
Mexico City
Vera Cruz
Havana
JAMAICA
HAITI
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
BARBADOS I.
Honolulu
HAWAIIAN ISLANDS
TROPIC OF CANCER
TROPIC OF CANCER
SITKA TO SAN FRANCISCO 1902
SAN FRANCISCO TO UNALASKA 2085
HONOLULU TO VICTORIA 2368
SAN FRANCISCO TO HONOLULU 2067
SAN FRANCISCO TO TAHITI 3858
HONOLULU TO PANAMA
SAN FRANCISCO TO PANAMA 3071
LOS ANGELES TO ACAPULCO
NEW YORK TO LIVERPOOL 3059
BOSTON TO HONOLULU 4200
NEW YORK TO HONOLULU 4234
NEW YORK TO BOSTON 2092
NEW YORK TO ST. THOMAS 1437
BALTIMORE 1579
WILMINGTON 1354
CHARLESTON 1352
SAVANNAH 1351
GALVESTON 1351
NEW ORLEANS 1511
VERA CRUZ 1421
HAVANA 1021
BARBADOS 1920
TO COLON 1920
TO COLON 1920
TO COLON



Maps prepared specially for the NEW LARNED under direction of the editors and publishers.

church and state had been settled in Spain in the latter half of the fifteenth century, during the reign of the Catholic rulers, Ferdinand and Isabella, and had been settled in nearly every important particular to the advantage of the state. . . . The change which most profoundly affected the position of the viceroy, both in respect to his actual direction of the government in Mexico and to his relation to the king of Spain, was embodied in the Decree of the Intendants, of the year 1786. . . . It was reserved for Charles III to attempt to transplant this office, with certain modifications, to the colonies, and intendants were first heard of there in the year 1782, as playing a very significant part in the new government of the Rio de la Plata. . . . Four years later they were brought to Mexico with the double purpose of relieving and regulating the viceroy. . . . The control of all financial matters was by this decree of the intendants taken from the viceroy, but such a bald statement gives no idea of the real loss of power involved in the transfer. . . . In other words, these reforms of Gálvez and Charles III set up a dual system of administration in place of a single, autocratic one, and in such a way that collusion between the two elements of that dual system to oppress the natives or defraud the home government was well nigh impossible. . . . He [the Viceroy] was still charged with the highest military command, the exercise of royal patronage in matters ecclesiastical, and he was still the highest civil officer in the country. Moreover, it was discovered after a few years' trial that the process of decentralization and division of responsibility had gone too far and the pendulum began to swing back. [See also MEXICO: 1535-1822; PERU: 1550-1816.] . . . A great deal of what is stated to be true for the region of Mexico was also true for Peru and other parts of America. . . . In making a comparison between the colonial systems of Spain and her European rivals, it would seem natural to begin with their respective methods of control over the colonies by the home government. . . . The Portuguese system was throughout very much like that of the Spaniards, but it is not easy to draw a very close parallel even between these two. The Brazilian plantations were not organized into a viceroyalty until 1720, so that Brazil, as a full-fledged dependency of the first rank, was much younger than the adjacent Spanish viceroyalties in America, excepting only Buenos Ayres. . . . The Portuguese viceroys of Brazil were no better supplied with administrative assistants than the viceroys of Peru and Mexico, and their control over the provinces under their care was even less effective and immediate. The nine sub-divisions of Brazil were fairly independent of the viceroy and of each other, so that the centralization of the government in Portuguese America was less marked than in the neighboring Spanish territories."—D. E. Smith, *Viceroy of New Spain* (*University of California publication in history, v.* 1, *ch.* 1, *pp.* 100-109).

1750-1777.—Boundary Treaty of 1750.—Boundaries between Spanish and Portuguese America.—"In theory, until the middle of the eighteenth century, the limits between Spanish and Portuguese America were indicated by the line of demarcation drawn by the Treaty of Tordesillas. [See AMERICA: 1493; 1494.] That boundary was never surveyed. It was probably because of the cordial relations existing between the crowns of Spain and Portugal that on January 13, 1750, a treaty was signed at Madrid by commissioners of those nations which sketched a new demarcation line between the Spanish and the Portuguese territories in the Indies. By the Treaty of Madrid the Portuguese government recognized the Spanish title to the Philippine Archipelago. On the other hand, this treaty transferred seven flourishing Jesuit missions to Portugal in return for Colonia which was ceded to Spain. It acknowledged the Portuguese claim by settlement to large portions of the Amazon and Paraná basins. It further stipulated that the contracting parties should select commissioners to survey the boundary line. Some time afterwards the two governments appointed commissioners who encountered many difficulties when they attempted to determine the boundary. In addition, the mission Indians upon the Uruguay River fought for three years to prevent the transfer of the Jesuit reductions to Portugal. . . . Partly because of difficulties encountered in the survey of the boundary line sketched in 1750, on February 12, 1761, a convention was signed between Spain and Portugal that completely annulled the Treaty of Madrid. In theory, for the time being, the line of Tordesillas again marked the limits between Spanish America and Portuguese America. On October 1, 1777, a new treaty was signed at San Ildefonso between Spain and Portugal which sketched the boundary between their American possessions. It also provided for the choice of commissioners who should determine the boundary line exactly and who should prepare a map of the Spanish-Portuguese frontiers in America. At many points that line followed the demarcation of 1750. Yet in the south the Treaty of San Ildefonso recognized the Spanish claim to Colonia and to the seven missions on the left bank of the Uruguay River. On the other hand, that treaty acknowledged Portugal's claim to the island of Santa Catharina, to the adjacent mainland, and to extensive interior districts that had been explored and sparsely settled by Jesuit fathers and by pioneers from São Paulo. It is probably not an exaggeration to say that by this treaty Portugal obtained a clear title to territory in South America that was more than twice as large as that conceded to her by the Treaty of Tordesillas. Yet, because of various difficulties, the boundary drawn by the Treaty of San Ildefonso was never completely surveyed. In a report which he made to his King more than ten years after the signing of that treaty, a Spaniard who had been acting as a commissioner to determine the boundary between the possessions of Spain and Portugal in America complained that the Portuguese were planting new settlements beyond the demarcation line of 1777 and recommended that a definite treaty should be framed which would end the controversies over the limits."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations, pp.* 143, 148, 150.

1764-1797.—Spain's commercial policy in the New World.—Reform law (1778).—"Until the middle of the eighteenth century the commerce between Spain and Spanish America was regularly carried on by fleets of merchant vessels which were convoyed across the Atlantic Ocean either to Mexico or to the Isthmus of Panama. At that juncture direct trade might legally be carried on only between a few ports in Spanish America and certain ports in Spain. . . . By a series of measures, however, Spain gradually abandoned certain features of her commercial system. Partly due to the influence of liberal political economists, she abolished the practice of carrying on commerce with the Indies by fleets. These were replaced by registered vessels which were conceded permits to sail from Spain to particular ports of

Spanish America. In the third decade of the eighteenth century permission was granted to certain Spanish merchants to carry on direct trade from Spain with Buenos Aires. In 1764 Charles III, the reforming king, established mail packets which plied every month or two between Coruña and certain ports in Spanish America. By a royal decree of October 16, 1765, Spaniards were conceded the right freely to carry on commerce between nine Spanish ports and certain ports in the islands of Cuba, Santo Domingo, Porto Rico, Margarita, and Trinidad. A few years later this freedom of intercourse was extended to Yucatan, Campeche, and Louisiana. About the same time the King swept away some of the restrictions that had long hindered the direct interchange of products between certain regions in America. . . . On October 12, 1778, a law was promulgated that marked a significant change in Spanish colonial policy. In addition to the ports specified in the decree of 1765, this law named thirteen other ports in the Balearic and Canary Islands and in Spain that might carry on commerce with Spanish-American ports. It opened to that trade twenty-four additional ports in Spanish America, including Buenos Aires, Montevideo, Valparaiso, Arica, Callao, Guayaquil, Cartagena, and Santa Marta. With regard to the payment of duties, those Spanish-American towns and cities were grouped into major and minor ports: the minor ports should collect duties of one and one-half per cent upon the value of Spanish products that might be imported, and duties of four per cent upon the products of foreign countries; while the major ports should collect duties of three per cent upon Spanish and of seven per cent upon foreign products. Article XXII of the law provided that all goods manufactured in Spain from wool, cotton, and flax should be exempt from duties at Spanish-American ports for ten years. In order to promote the development of the national merchant marine, the law further provided that Spanish vessels which were exclusively burdened with national products should enjoy a reduction of one-third of the regular duties, while Spanish vessels which had cargoes that were two-thirds national products should enjoy a reduction of one-fifth. This reform law gave the commerce between Spain and her American colonies a great stimulus. It has been calculated that from 1772 to 1776 there only entered Buenos Aires thirty-five vessels, while during each year from 1792 to 1796, there entered that port more than fifty ships. Another liberal measure was taken because of a war between Spain and England: in 1797 a royal decree was issued providing that, subject to certain restrictions, neutral vessels might engage in the carrying trade with the Spanish colonies."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations, pp.* 125-126.

1778-1824.—Rise of Spanish-American republics.—After the death of Charles III in 1778 dissatisfaction among the Spanish colonies grew rapidly. "It is clear that among the conditions which made the revolution in Spanish America possible was a conviction entertained by some colonists that the burdens of the colonial régime were unendurable:—the oppressive fiscal system of Spain was particularly detested. Then, too, the Spanish officials often displayed a shocking disregard for the humane provisions of the antiquated laws of the Indies,—a behavior on the part of colonial officials which encouraged among the people a spirit of contempt for the motherland's authority. . . . The revolution in Spanish America was partly due to the lack of a well-managed colonial system. The secret spread of philosophic, revolutionary doctrines emanating from France constituted an intellectual cause of the Spanish-American revolution, as did also a desire among certain leaders to emulate the revolutionists who separated the English colonies in North America from the motherland. As a moral cause of the revolution may be characterized the fact that, because of his traditions, training, and environments, the creole of Spanish America was a different type of man than the Spaniard overseas."—W. S. Robertson, *Rise of the Spanish-American republics, as told in the lives of their liberators, p.* 315.—"Because of certain economic, religious, and political conditions a spirit of discontent was present in various sections of Spanish America, yet this was not enough to provoke a general rebellion. It was the usurpation of Napoleon in the Iberian peninsula that precipitated the movements which developed into the protracted revolution. [See SPAIN: 1807-1808, to 1813-1814 (December-May).] The inflammable tinder that lay scattered throughout the vast dominions of Spain in America was lighted by Napoleon's hand. . . . The territory which became free as a result of the wars between Spain and her colonies was about seven times as large as the territory conceded to the United States by the treaty of 1783. From this it is obvious that in the struggle with her revolted colonists Spain had, in some respects, a more difficult task than England [had in the United States]. Spain's far-flung battle line extended from the Sabine River to the Río de la Plata: in more accurate terms, Spain had in America a number of detached battle lines which fronted the alert enemy. Again, because of the nature and extent of the arena of combat, the Spanish-Americans could not coöperate as did the North Americans. Between Mexico and South America, . . . there was absolutely no coöperation and scarcely any sympathy. . . . In truth the strongest links between the widely-separated sections of South America were the activities of the revolutionary soldiers led by the liberators San Martín, Bolívar, and Sucre. Unlike the North-American revolutionists, the South Americans received no aid, material or moral, through an alliance with a foreign state. . . . The South-American revolution differed from the North-American in another particular: namely, it was neither accompanied nor followed by the establishment of a general government. . . . It was largely because the colonists lived in isolated groups that, in the sections which later became independent nations, they successively framed separate and distinct declarations of independence. There were indeed some features in which the Spanish-American revolution was analogous to the Anglo-American revolution. Perhaps the most striking analogy was the fact that a considerable number of the Spanish colonists—the Tories of the Indies—opposed the revolution. It must never be forgotten that there were many devoted loyalists who followed . . . the Spanish standard on many widely-separated battlefields. In certain sections of the Indies the revolution which separated those regions from the motherland was, in some stages at least, the work of a capable, vigorous, and determined minority. . . . Sympathy for the revolutionary colonists in the mother country . . . was particularly significant during the years from 1820 to 1823 when Spain was a constitutional monarchy. The liberal government actually commissioned envoys who were instructed to negotiate with the insurgent provinces from Mexico to Patagonia with a view to the pacification of America. But, after Ferdinand VII. was restored to absolute power,

the proceedings of those envoys were formally repudiated. That monarch announced that a preliminary convention of peace which the commissioners of the constitutional government had signed on July 4, 1823, with the revolutionary government at Buenos Aires, was void. No treaty of peace recognizing the triumph of the revolutionists —like the treaty of 1783 between England and the United States—terminated the Spanish-American wars for independence. Neither were they terminated by contemporaneous conventions which acknowledged the independence of all the Spanish-American nations. The government of Spain disavowed the treaty of Cordoba [1821] and ignored the treaty of Ayacucho [Dec. 9, 1824]. . . . To some extent the achievements of the partisans of independence in America were made possible by the governmental fluctuations in Spain,—fluctuations which rendered a firm and consistent policy toward the revolutionists well-nigh impossible. At war with Napoleon, successively governed by a junta, by the regency and a *cortes,* by an absolute king, by a constitutional ministry and a *cortes,* and again by her misguided and illiberal monarch, Spain was heavily handicapped in her long struggle to win back the disaffected colonists to their allegiance. Those fluctuations coupled with the fact that the Holy Alliance cautiously refrained from any attempt to restore Spain's authority over her revolted colonies, help to explain why the Spanish navy played such an unimportant part in the revolution. In truth, at the battle of Trafalgar Spain's naval power had been shattered. . . . The only occasions when a fleet played a very important role were in transporting Morillo's expedition to Venezuela, and in conveying San Martín's soldiers to Peru. In the main, the struggle was fought upon the land."—W. S. Robertson, *Rise of the Spanish-American republics, as told in the lives of their liberators, pp.* 316-318.

Chile secured its independence at the battle of Chacabrico in 1817. (See CHILE: 1810-1818.) Peru, beginning its struggle for liberty in 1780, finally succeeded with the aid of Bolívar on September 1, 1823. (See PERU: 1820-1826.) Upper Peru voted to be a separate state calling itself Bolivia. (See PERU: 1825-1826.) Venezuela and New Granada, uniting into the republic of Colombia, elected Bolívar as its first president, 1824. (See COLOMBIA: 1810-1819; 1819-1830.) The Argentines refused to acknowledge the Napoleonic dynasty established at Madrid and the provisional government of the Rio de la Plata was established, May 25, 1810. Buenos Ayres was later declared the seat of government but Paraguay and Uruguay both became independent. On Jan. 25, 1825 a national constitution for the present Argentine Republic was promulgated. (See also ARGENTINA: 1806-1820; 1819-1874.) Portugal, taking advantage of internal dissension in Uruguay and the formation of the Banda Oriental, declared war on the Argentine. Uruguay was made a part of Brazil and when the latter declared its independence the condition of the former became again a moot point. (See also BRAZIL: 1808-1822.) On July 18, 1830 a republican constitution was formally adopted. "After the disruption of Great Colombia in 1831, there existed in Spanish America eleven independent states. On the north of these new nations, the boundary line between Mexico and the United States was the line which had been drawn by the treaty of 1819 between the United States and Spain. . . . The subsequent history of the Spanish-American states demonstrated that their boundaries in 1831 were more or less uncertain, largely because the *uti possiditis* of 1810 upon which by tacit consent those boundaries depended, was based upon Spanish laws and orders which, dealing as they sometimes did with extensive areas that were unexplored, were often vague or conflicting in regard to the metes and bounds of the colonial divisions. The heirs of presidencies, as Bolivia and Ecuador, were most unfortunate. . . . In 1802 a royal decree had been issued commanding that an extensive region in the interior of the presidency of Quito should be transferred to the jurisdiction of Peruvian authorities. . . . After the dissolution of Great Colombia that decree furnished the basis for a controversy between Ecuador and Peru. . . . The mode of procedure which was followed in the administration of justice was essentially Spanish. The transactions of merchants were often regulated by the ordinances of Bilbao. The legal codes of Spain still remained influential, for the new states sometimes enacted statutes providing that the Spanish laws which harmonized with their laws were still to be considered in force. Throughout the Spanish American republics the capital cities . . . continued to play a most important rôle in politics. . . . That régime left its impress upon the governmental systems of the new nations, which sometimes borrowed Spanish names and functionaries. The early Spanish-American constitutions often presented a curious mingling of ancient ideals, colonial customs, and French revolutionary philosophy. In form they were ordinarily republican, more or less in imitation of the Constitution of the United States. . . . The founding of republics in Spanish America necessarily involved the formation of new international relations. From the very beginning of the secessionist movement some insurrectionary provinces in South America attempted to enter into closer relations with neighboring provinces. In the course of time . . . certain nascent states adopted the policy of treating their neighbors as political entities which were vested with sovereign rights. Some Spanish-American states which had declared their independence of Spain, sent diplomatic missions to the capitals of other states, while several of the rising states recognized the independence of their neighbors. For example, in August, 1823, the United Provinces of Central America appointed a diplomatic agent to Mexico, while in the same month the Mexican congress recognized the independence of Central America. The most notable event in the relations of the Hispanic-American states during the third decade of the nineteenth century was the attempt of Simon de Bolívar to realize his dream of a congress composed of representatives of these states."—*Ibid., pp.* 322-323.—See also CENTRAL AMERICA: 1821-1871; MEXICO: 1810-1819; 1820-1826; URUGUAY: 1821-1905.

1822-1830.—First international Spanish-American council called by Bolívar.—Recognition of independence by the United States.—"On December 7, 1824, Bolivar issued from Lima an invitation to the governments of la Plata, Brazil, Chile, Guatemala, Colombia, and Mexico, to send delegates to a congress on the Isthmus of Panama. He proposed that the congress should serve those nations as a council in great danger, as a faithful interpreter of treaties, and as an umpire and conciliator when disputes arose. Appealing to the spirit of the Spanish-American peoples, Bolivar declared that a common basis should be found for the protection of their independent governments. Anxious to find a *point d'appui* for common action against Spain, he declared that the congress should establish a supreme authority to direct the policies of the Spanish-American states. The

replies to Bolívar's invitation differed. La Plata disliked the plan, while Chile, Colombia, and Mexico praised the proposal for a league directed against their common enemy, Spain, or against European intervention in America. The instructions of Bolívar to the Peruvian envoys to this congress dated May 15, 1825, suggested that the Spanish-American states should make a concerted attack upon the coasts of Spain. He urged that these states should solemnly agree not to cease the war until Spain should formally recognize their independence. He proposed that certain principles of American international law should be formulated, and that a declaration against European intervention in America be promulgated similar to the announcement contained in President Monroe's message to [United States] congress of December 2, 1823. In connection with his project for an international congress, Bolívar even dreamed of a league of American nations which should be sanctioned by Great Britain. In the end of 1825 and early in 1826, the delegates from Colombia and Peru held some preliminary conferences on the Isthmus of Panama. The delegates of Central America arrived on the isthmus in March, 1826, and the Mexican delegates arrived in June. The formal meetings of the Panama congress, which was composed of eight delegates, were held in June and July, 1826. The concrete results of the congress were a treaty of perpetual union, league, and confederation, and two other treaties, which dealt with the contingents of ships, soldiers, and monies that the states concerned were to furnish to the projected confederation. Although these treaties were ratified only by the government of Colombia, yet the amphictyonic council was not without significance. It symbolized a unity of spirit among the Spanish-Americans. . . . It was the first of a series of international congresses which served to crystallize the ideas of American publicists concerning the relations of independent states. Negatively, the congress of Panama indicated that Bolívar's dream of a league composed of the nations of Spanish America was Utopian. About the time when the Panama congress was being convoked, the United States and the leading nations of Spanish America were interchanging diplomatic missions. . . . At various stages in the revolt against Spain the Spanish-Americans sent emissaries to the United States to plead for aid and for the recognition of their independence. At first the government of the United States did not receive those envoys officially: it strove to remain neutral in the protracted struggle between Spain and her colonies. Not until 1822 . . . did the United States decide to recognize the independence of the de facto states. On March 8, 1822, President Monroe sent to congress a special message recommending that five Spanish-American states, Colombia, Chile, Peru, la Plata, and Mexico, should be recognized as independent nations. On May 4 of the same year, the president signed a law which made an appropriation for diplomatic missions to 'the independent nations of the American continent.' By this act the United States announced her intention to acknowledge the independence of the revolted colonies of Spain in America which stretched from the parallel of forty-two degrees, north latitude, to Cape Horn. With the exception of the Portuguese monarchy seated at Rio de Janeiro, the North-American Republic was the first member of the society of nations to extend the hand of fellowship to the new family of states. The announcement of the United States concerning her foreign policy caused great dissatisfaction to the Spanish ministry, which sent to the leading nations of Europe a manifesto protesting against the acknowledgment of Spanish American independence. Ignorant of the excitement which the policy of recognition by the United States provoked in the chancelleries of continental Europe, the significance of that policy was not sufficiently appreciated by statesmen throughout the Spanish-American republics. The act of May 4, 1822, was not completely carried out for several years. The first Spanish-American nation formally recognized by the United States was Colombia. On June 19, 1822, Secretary Adams presented Manuel Torres, as *chargé d'affaires* from Colombia, to President Monroe. On December 12 following, José Manuel Zozaya, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary from Mexico, was officially presented by Adams to Monroe; that ceremony constituted the recognition of the independence of the Mexican empire by the United States. The recognition of the independence of other Spanish-American nations by the United States during the revolutionary epoch of their history was consummated by the appointment of diplomatic agents to these countries. On January 27, 1823, the senate of the United States confirmed the appointment of ministers to Colombia, la Plata, and Chile. Richard C. Anderson, the first minister of the United States to serve in a Spanish-American state, was formally received in the Capital of Colombia on December 16, 1823. Later in the same month Minister [Cæsar A.] Rodney was received by the government of la Plata. In April, 1824, Heman Allen was formally received at Santiago de Chile as minister of the United States. In May, 1826, James Cooley was received as *chargé d'affaires* of the United States at Lima. . . . In December, 1825, John Williams was received as *chargé d'affaires* of the United States by the Government of Central America. Joel R. Poinsett, the first envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States to serve in Mexico, was formally received in the Mexican capital on June 1, 1825. During a critical period in Hispanic History, the United States accordingly established legations in six capitals of Spanish America. From 1822 to 1830, four Spanish-American states, Mexico, Central America, Colombia, and Argentina accredited envoys to Washington. In this reciprocal fashion the governments of the Three Americas laid the foundations for Pan-Americanism."—W. S. Robertson, *Rise of the Spanish-American republics, as told in the lives of their liberators, pp.* 324-327.

1823.—**Promulgation of the Monroe Doctrine.** —"Whatever influence the decision by the United States to acknowledge the independence of the Spanish-American nations may have exerted upon the fortunes of those nations was reënforced by the President's message to congress of December 2, 1823, announcing the Monroe Doctrine. The original Monroe Doctrine was given a cordial reception by journalists and publicists in Bogotá and Buenos Aires. In the United Provinces of la Plata it was mentioned with approval in certain state papers of 1824 by Bernardino Rivadavia and General las Heras. In a message to the congress of la Plata on December 16, 1824, Las Heras said that the United States had assumed that the Plateau provinces could struggle single-handed against Spain, but had 'constituted herself the guardian of the field of battle in order that no foreign power' might interfere. In a message to the Colombian congress on April 6, 1824, Vice President Santander declared that the announcement of President Monroe was 'an act eminently just,—an act worthy of the classic land of American liberty.' Shortly be-

fore the battle of Junin, Bolívar read about Monroe's message in the columns of a Jamaica gazette which reprinted the news from the London Courier. On April 28, 1824, he made the following comment upon the news: 'The United States of North America have solemnly declared that they will view as an act of hostility toward themselves whatever measures the powers of the European continent may take against Spanish America and in favor of Spain.' Bolívar associated this declaration of policy by the United States with the policy of opposition to European intervention in Spanish America which England had avowed; and hence he believed that those nations would protect the Spanish-Americans against an attack by the Holy Alliance. During the third decade of the nineteenth century, Colombia and la Plata actually invited the United States to guard their respective national interests against foreign aggression by enforcing the Doctrine of Monroe. Upon these proposals the United States did not consider it necessary to take action. As was suggested by Bolívar's comment upon Monroe's message, the influence which the United States exercised by its foreign policy upon the fortunes of the Spanish-American States was sometimes inextricably associated with the influence of England, which sprang from 'the dear-bought glories of Trafalgar's day.'"—W. S. Robertson, *Rise of the Spanish-American republics, as told in the lives of their liberators, pp.* 327-328.—See also MONROE DOCTRINE: Text and comment; 20th century.

ALSO IN: S. G. Inman, *Problems in Pan-Americanism.*—J. B. Lockey, *Pan-Americanism: Its beginnings.*—J. H. Latané, *United States and Latin America.*

1825-1833.—Recognition of independence by England.—Financial relations.—"During the revolutionary epoch the foundations were also laid of diplomatic and commercial relations between the Spanish-American states and European nations. . . . In June, 1822, Lord Castlereagh, the English secretary for foreign affairs, intimated to Spain that his government was contemplating the recognition of the Spanish-American states. From time to time divers English merchants petitioned their government to take such a step. In October, 1823, George Canning, who had succeeded Castlereagh as Foreign Secretary, wrote instructions for agents to Mexico City, Bogotá, and Buenos Aires, who were to make reports concerning the conditions in Spanish America. In January, 1825, the English government formally notified the diplomatic corps in London of its intention to recognize the independence of certain Spanish-American states. [See also VERONA, CONGRESS OF.] That announcement evoked a protest from Spain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia. Still, early in 1825, England negotiated treaties with la Plata and Colombia; late in the following year, she negotiated a treaty with Mexico. In thus acknowledging the independence of those states, Canning was animated by the notion that this policy would aid England to counterbalance the growing influence of the United States in the New World. It was during this epoch that several Spanish-American states borrowed money from English financiers in order to promote the revolution. The basis was thus gradually laid for the financial dependence of those states upon England. According to an estimate which was published in the Times, Central America, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, and Peru had incurred in England, as the price of liberty, a bonded indebtedness which in 1833 with the arrears of interest, exceeded twenty-two million pounds."—W. S. Robertson, *Rise of the Spanish-American republics, as told in the lives of their liberators, p.* 328.

1836-1895.—Recognition of independence by Spain.—"Not until long after the revolutionary period, *par excellence,* had terminated, did the Spanish government deign to recognize her former colonies as sovereign nations. For Ferdinand VII. persistently strove to prevent or to retard such action by other nations. From time to time the ambassadors of Spain at various European courts were instructed formally to protest against the acknowledgment of the independence of her revolted colonies either by the reception of diplomatic agents or by other acts. The Spanish-American republics—whose independence was acknowledged by important nations in America and Europe—accordingly occupied an anomalous position for many, many years. Although they had established their independence *de facto,* their motherland had not recognized them as independent *de jure.* It was not until after Isabella II. became queen of Spain, on December 4, 1836, that the *cortes* reluctantly passed a decree which authorized the government to negotiate treaties with the Spanish-American states acknowledging their independence. In accordance with that decree, José M. Calatrava, Spain's secretary of state, and Miguel Santa María, envoy extraordinary from Mexico, signed a treaty at Madrid on December 28, 1836, which recognized Mexico as 'a free, sovereign, and independent nation.' By that treaty Isabella II. renounced all pretensions to the government, property, and territory of Mexico. Article five declared that an immediate result of the treaty of peace would be to open commercial relations between the contracting parties upon the reciprocal basis of the treatment accorded to the most favored nation. The treaty with Mexico was the first treaty which Spain ratified with a state that had been carved out of her former American dominions. In the same manner, during the period from 1836 to 1895, by conventions of recognition, peace, and amity—which were sometimes preceded by the establishment of commercial relations between the contracting parties—the court of Spain tardily recognized the independence of Ecuador, Chile, Venezuela, Bolivia, Argentina, Peru, Colombia, Paraguay, Uruguay, and also of five other states that had formerly been members of the Central-American Federation."—W. S. Robertson, *Rise of the Spanish-American republics, as told in the lives of their liberators, pp.* 328-329.

1890.—First International American Congress at Washington. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1890-1914.—Influence of immigration.—"So far as European immigration into the various republics is concerned, though still insufficient, it is increasing [1914] with especial rapidity in the southern countries. Among the newcomers, outside of those from Spain and Portugal, the Italian predominates. Then come in order the German, the French, the English and a small number of other nationalities. . . . The Italian and the German . . . are to be encountered almost anywhere that foreigners are apt to go; but their drift is toward the southern republics of the temperate zone. The Italian forms a very considerable element in the population of the State of Sao Paulo, Brazil, in the population of Uruguay, and especially in that of the Argentine Republic. The German is found chiefly in the far southern State of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil, and in southern Chile. Of the several European colonies, those of Latin stock are naturally the most popular and influential, and the German is not far behind them. The Latin

immigrants, as a rule, put their fortune into the country of their adoption, identify themselves with it, and their children become its citizens. . . . So marked has been their influence on the languages of the countries in which they are most numerous, that the lower classes often speak a patois of Spanish or Portuguese and Italian. The immigrants from Spain and Portugal commonly become small shop-keepers. On the other hand, the influence of the French is visible in connection with thought, art and fashion; theirs is a force to embellish life on its social side, for their number is too small to affect appreciably the size of the population. In the Argentine Republic the inhabitants are less homogeneous than elsewhere in Latin America. Being peculiarly a 'land of promise' for the European immigrant, it has had great difficulty in merging the newcomers with the residents of Spanish origin into a single nationality. In many places the immigrants are massed in ethnic communities where they speak their own languages, observe their own religious customs, maintain their own usages and keep socially aloof from the Spanish-speaking people. As the Germans have contributed comfort, sobriety, solidity and methodical habits in business, so the English and the Americans, though few in number, as compared with some of the other classes of immigrants, have aided the development of national wealth by their capital, aroused a liking for sports and imparted a tendency to cherish the practical side of life. Unlike most of the other immigrants, or temporary residents, they do not readily assimilate with the native population. Americans, of course, are found particularly in Mexico, the Central-American States and Cuba. The English go preferably to the southern republics in South America. . . . British and German names are very prevalent among those of the leading families in Chile. The use of the English language, also, is making rapid headway everywhere in Latin America, and the growth of English influence is more or less commensurate with it. The 'word of an Englishman' (palabra de inglés) is proverbial; bonds and other financial securities are jocularly referred to as 'ingleses' (i. e., Englishmen), and all the native of Albion needs, in order to be identified, is to 'wear a sandy mustache and have a W in his name.' In these distinctions, also, the American is coming to have a share. Several of the republics, and in particular Brazil, encourage immigration from Japan. Along the northwest coast of South America, and at various points in Mexico and in the countries of Central America, Chinese, as well as Japanese, have established themselves. In many cases the Chinese were originally coolies imported to work on the plantations; but not a few of them have since become shop-keepers and herb-doctors (*herbolarios*). So far as Brazil is concerned, the Japanese have been imported under government contract to labor on the coffee plantations and to devote themselves to rice culture."—W. R. Shepherd, *Latin America, pp.* 126-129.—See also IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Argentina: 1854-1914; Brazil: 1817-1919; Japanese emigration problem; GERMANY: 1881-1913.

1901-1902. — Second International American Congress at Mexico City. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1901 - 1921. — Transportation. — Railways. — Waterways.—"Except in Haiti, the Dominican Republic, Nicaragua and Honduras, the railway facilities in the group of republics in North America are [1914] fairly adequate for present demands. In South America, on the contrary, apart from certain areas, the railway situation is very deficient; but the first half of the twentieth century promises to be a great railway-building era. Never has the construction of iron roads, especially in the Argentine Republic, Brazil, Chile, Uruguay and Bolivia been so active. . . . Distinct progress in this direction, also, is visible in Peru, Ecuador and Paraguay, though not so much in Venezuela and Columbia. Political disturbances, unsettled social conditions, lack of funds and the needful labor, and the difficulties arising out of the physical conformation of the mountainous countries, are all responsible for the existing backwardness. In the western countries of South America, traversed by the Andes, there are more problems for the modern railway engineer to solve than in almost any part of the world where railways are required. On account of the enormous obstacles to construction, no railways have as yet been completed to connect adequately the great river system of the Atlantic side of the continent with the Pacific Coast. It should be said, however, that the magnificent work of waterways in Brazil, the Argentine Republic, Uruguay, Venezuela, and Columbia have compensated in some measure, so far, for the relative lack of railways, particularly in view of the great progress in steam navigation. . . . On the lakes and rivers one still finds craft as primitive as any of those in colonial times. Such, for example, are the native boats called 'caballitos' (little horses), on Lake Titicaca, made of straw and propelled by sails of woven grass. . . . River steamers are largely, but not wholly, owned and run by foreigners, among whom the British occupy the foremost place. Many of the governments, also, are actively engaged in the task of improving the internal waterways, chiefly with European aid. On the larger rivers of the Argentine Republic and Uruguay the Argentine steamer service is excellent. Except in the case of small coasting-vessels, Brazil is the only Latin-American country that has steamships of its own for oceanic trade on a large scale. . . . In the great majority of Latin-American harbors the methods of landing and embarking are rather primitive. Owing to the lack of wharves, the steamers have to anchor at some distance off shore. Passengers and luggage, ordinarily, are transferred in rowboats, and articles of freight in barges rowed with long sweeps."—W. R. Shepherd, *Latin America, pp.* 181-182, 189-190.—Brazil holds "great promise for future railway construction. There are now some 16,000 miles of railroad in the country. . . . Almost one-half of the total mileage of the country is owned by the Federal Government, although most of this is leased. . . . The line that connects the capital with many of the important cities of southern Brazil and the oldest line in the country is the Central of Brazil Railway, whose broad and meter gauge tracks lead to São Paulo in the southwest and to Bello Horizonte and other important centres in the north. . . . Far removed from all other lines is the Madeira-Mamore Railway, 1,800 miles into the interior, which spans a series of rapids in the Madeira, Mamore, and Beni Rivers. These rapids are the only obstruction to river traffic from the interior of Bolivia to the Atlantic, and the road of 225 miles was constructed (with great difficulty and only after repeated failures) to afford an outlet for the products of eastern Bolivia."—O. Wilson, *Railway transportation in Latin America* (M. Wilcox, ed., *Encyclopedia of Latin America, pp.* 119-121).—See also RAILROADS: 1872-1912; AMAZON RIVER: Its course; ARGENTINA: Railroads; CHILE: 1909-1910; 1909-1912; PAN-AMERICAN RAILWAYS.—From the time Columbus made his initial exploratory trip in the section of Central

America now known as Panama, it has been the dream of all those with vision that there should be a canal, separating the continent of North America from South America, and uniting the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The tremendous commercial advantages of such a waterway is at once apparent, but the undertaking was fraught with innumerable difficulties. Under the able executive leadership of Major G. W. Goethals of the U. S. A. Corps of Engineers the Panama Canal has become a reality. Since its opening in 1915 mail and passenger service between the United States and the countries of South America as well as those of the Far East have immeasurably improved.—See also PANAMA CANAL.

1901-1921.—Education.—Importance of newspapers.—"All advices from South America show continued activity with respect to increase of the means of public education and the extension of its scope. . . . Every State of South America has legal provision for establishing primary schools throughout its area. . . . In general the official regulations provide for the grading of the primary schools, a grade corresponding to a year as in the United States. Flexible grading is provided for in nearly all the large cities, provision being made for semiannual promotions. Teachers are appointed by the local school authorities, and assigned sometimes to the grades for which they are respectively best fitted and sometimes to the charge of particular subjects. The courses of study for primary and secondary schools are drawn up by committees or boards pertaining to the central or local departments of education; the official programs are usually supplemented by lists of authorized textbooks. . . . The textbooks for the usual branches of study in both elementary and secondary schools are in the Spanish (Castilian) language. Sometimes for use in the most elementary grades a primer or easy reader in the native dialect is allowed."—United States Bureau of Education, *Report of the Commissioner of Education, Year ending July* 30, 1915, *v.* 1.—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General: Latin America; BOLIVIA: Education; BRAZIL: 1911; CHILE: 1919; CUBA: Education; PARAGUAY: 1918; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1551-1912.

"Newspapers play a very important part in the formation of public opinion in South America. . . . A visitor from North America is struck by the peculiar conditions obtaining in the newspaper world of South America. With prices higher than our own, with a much more restricted circle of readers, circulations of 100,000 and 150,000 daily are reached in such centers as Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro. *La Prensa* (The Press), Buenos Aires, *La Nacion* (The Nation), Buenos Aires, *El Mercurio* (The Mercury), Chile, *O Journal de Comércio* (Journal of Commerce), Brazil, are among the most influential.

1902.—Compulsory arbitration treaty signed by Central American states. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1902.

1903-1909.—Acré disputes.—Claims of Brazil, Peru and Bolivia.—Final partition. See ACRÉ DISPUTES.

1904-1915.—United States financial control in Nicaragua, Santo Domingo and Haiti. See DOLLAR DIPLOMACY; HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1911-1916.

1906.—Third International American Congress at Rio de Janeiro. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

1910.—European and American invasion.—German power and influence.—"Against flat invasion by any power the tutelage of the United States is a protection, but the Monroe doctrine is powerless against the slow and imperceptible invasion of German immigration. By virtue of their capital and their adventurers, Germany and the United States are slowly [written in 1913] occupying South America."—F. Garcia-Calderon, *Latin America, p.* 291.—The following immigration figures show the approximate flow of European nationalities into Argentina, Brazil, and Chile during 1910. Argentina: Austrians, 2,551; Belgians, 239; English, 1,879; French, 3,823; Germans, 2,469; Spaniards, 93,479; Swiss, 125,497. Brazil: Austrians, 522; Belgians, 26; English, 119; French, 202; Germans, 845; Italians, 18,238; Portuguese, 25,681; Russians, 703; Spaniards, 9,235; Swedes, 8; Swiss, 12; Turks, 1,480.—Based on *Reports of the Immigration Commission* (61 *Congress, 3rd Session, Senate Document no.* 761, 1910).—For several years before 1914, when immigration practically ceased, the average entry into Chile was less than 2,000, of whom at least seventy-five per cent were Spaniards.—Based on L. E. Elliott, *Chile, today and tomorrow.*—"That phase of German expansion which is now commonly treated as the most premeditated and possibly the most dangerous to Latin America and to foreign interests in Latin America appears to have come about perfectly naturally, without malice aforethought, and so to speak, accidentally. German immigration into Latin America was not an invasion or an onslaught, but a slow current running parallel with the stream of immigration into the United States and originating in the same political, economic, and social conditions. . . . [The total German population of Brazil in 1921 did not exceed 500,000, and that of Latin America as a whole, 1,000,000. The proportion of Germans to the entire population in Latin America or any single Latin American country is much smaller than in the United States.] The German settlers in Latin America have wielded no undue political influence nor constituted the most significant element in the German commercial campaign."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America, pp.* 120-121.—See also IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Argentina: 1854-1914; GERMANY: 1881-1913.

1910.—Fourth International American Congress at Buenos Aires. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1910.

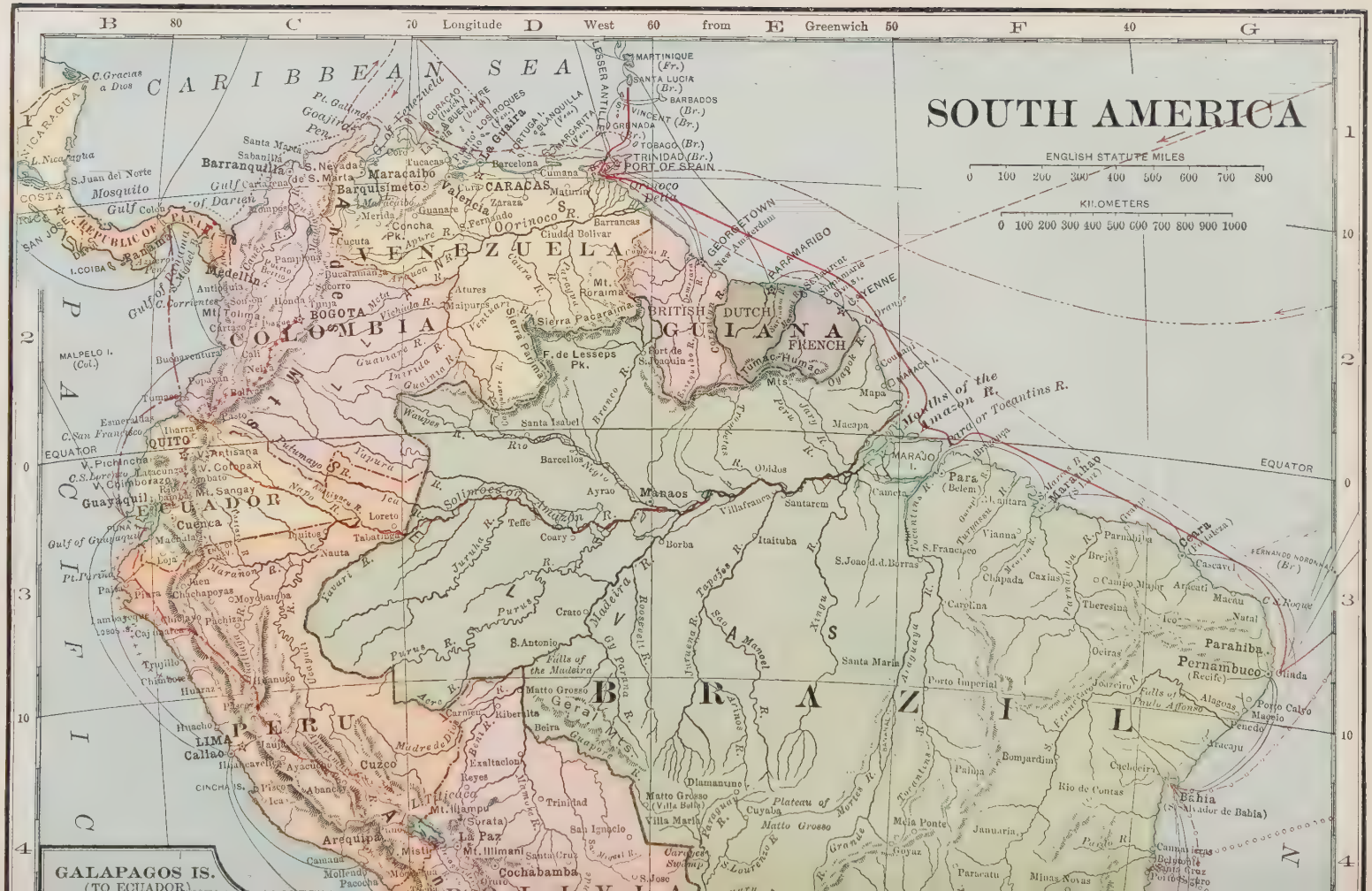
1910-1914.—Italian immigration to Argentina and Brazil.—"The Italians . . . [1913] are invading the Argentine and Southern Brazil. Theirs is a current of increasing volume; more than 50,000 Latins emigrate annually; they adapt themselves to their new country, acquire immense stretches of soil, and accumulate enormous fortunes, until names of foreign origin begin to predominate in the world of Argentine letters and in the plutocratic salons of the new continent. They trasmit their Latin heritage to their numerous children. [In 1910, the number of Italians that had immigrated to Brazil alone, numbered 18,238.]"—F. Garcia-Calderon, *Latin America, p.* 297.—"The total Italian population of Brazil, including children born of Italian parents, is now [1922] considerably more than 2,000,000. In the State of Sao Paulo, where the Italians are principally congregated, they number fully one-third of the entire population, or more than 1,000,000 out of a total of 3,000,000: and their influence in making that State the most progressive and energetic in the Brazilian Union can scarcely be overestimated."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America, p.* 39.—The World War temporarily put a stop to all immigration. The European continent has now embarked upon a period of reconstruction, which,

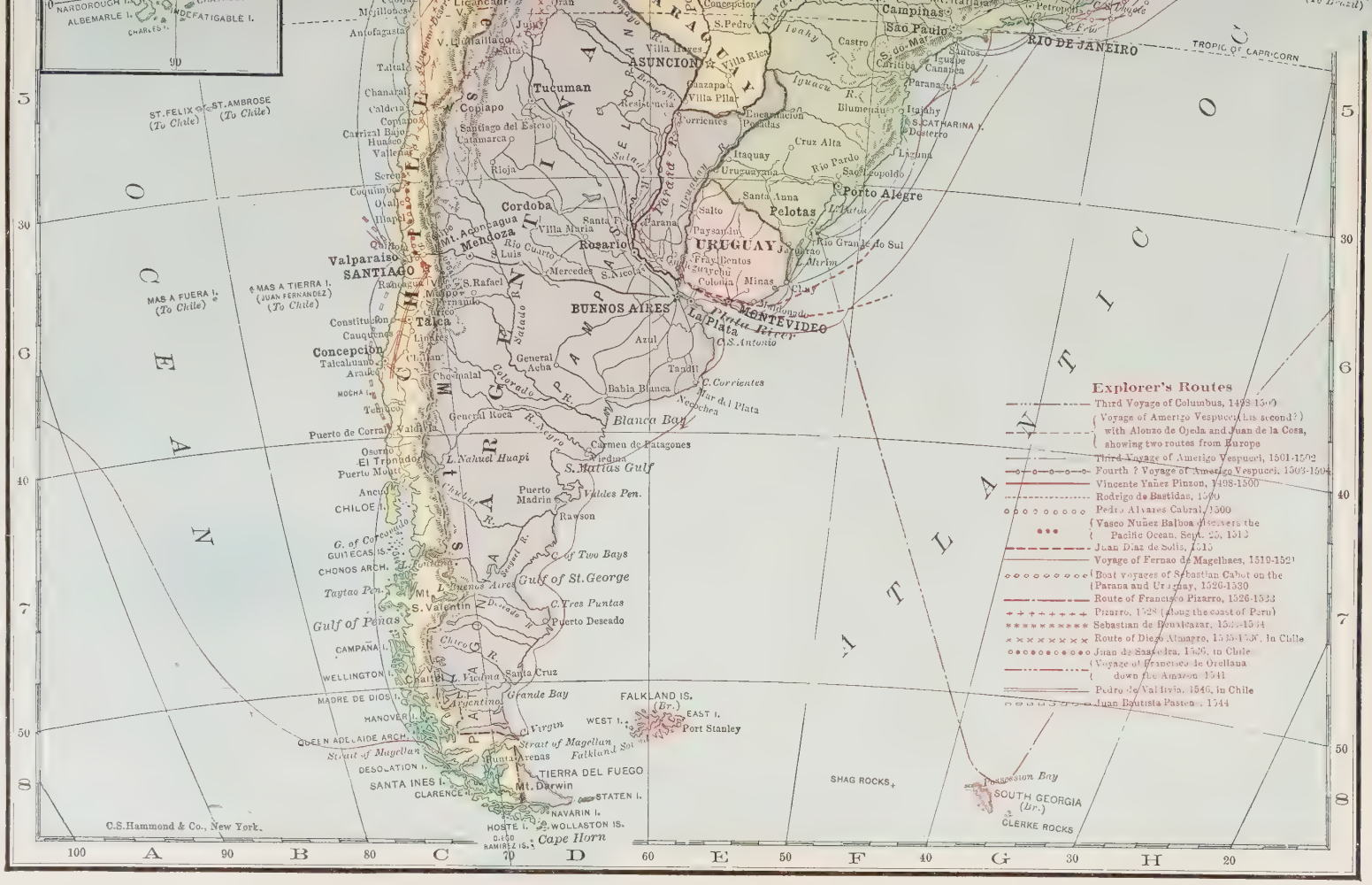
demanding as it does the utmost in man power, has temporarily put a stop to the immigration problems of the South American countries.—See also IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Brazil: 1817-1919.

1911-1914.—United States and Colombia.—"During the Taft Administration . . . it was proposed to buy from Colombia the concession for an interoceanic canal following in general the course of the Atrato River. . . . In return, the United States agreed to pay Colombia $10,000,000 and arbitrate certain claims involving the Panama Railroad. This treaty . . . met defeat in the Colombian Congress. . . . The desire to reestablish friendly relations with Colombia again found expression early in the Wilson Administration. . . . The Colombian Government accepted the offer to negotiate and, after personal interchange of views between her representatives and those of the United States, presented at the American Legation on February 3, 1914, a counter proposition. . . . After several interchanges of views . . . the Colombian Government accepted a compromise. . . . The first article [of the treaty] is . . . as follows: 'The Government of the United States of America, wishing to put at rest all controversies and differences with the Republic of Colombia arising out of the events from which the present situation on the Isthmus of Panama resulted, expresses in its own name and in the name of the people of the United States, sincere regret that anything should have occurred to interrupt or to mar the relations of cordial friendship that had so long subsisted between the two nations. The Government of the Republic of Colombia, in its own name and in the name of the Colombian people, accepts this declaration in the full assurance that every obstacle to the restoration of complete harmony between the two countries will thus disappear.'"—C. L. Jones, *Caribbean interests of the United States, p.* 234.—See also COLOMBIA: 1902-1903; 1909-1917.

1912-1915.—Formation of the A B C Alliance.—"The closest approximation toward the illusory ideal of a Latin-American union or confederation has been the rapprochement of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile. The association of those three powers, indubitably the strongest economically and politically in South America, was no chance grouping. With the adjustment of the dispute about their Andean boundary, Chile and Argentina felt the strengthening of bonds that had existed since 1817. At the other extremity of Latin America from that over which the United States has been extending her hegemony, the publicists of Argentina, in particular, have believed that the nations of southern South America ought to form an association which might serve to counterbalance the influence of the Anglo-Saxon Republic. Into this group Argentina and Chile were naturally inclined to admit Brazil because she possessed the most extensive territory of any Latin-American nation. In September, 1910, the Argentine secretary of foreign relations referred to the fraternity existing between Chile, Argentina, and Brazil, and declared that they as the three strongest states of South America should direct the other nations of that continent upon the path of progress. Other countries, he declared, would see in the friendship between those powers a strong guaranty for peace. [In the spring of 1914, the A B C offered to mediate between the government of the United States and Huerta, provisional president of Mexico.] An inspiration to the formation of a tripartite treaty was apparently the negotiation by Secretary of State Bryan of a series of peace treaties with the nations of America. At Buenos Aires, on May 25, 1915, the secretaries of foreign relations of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile signed a treaty which gave a definite basis to the tripartite understanding. The A B C treaty stipulated that whatever controversies might in the future originate among the contracting parties, or between two of them, which could neither be settled by diplomatic means nor adjusted by arbitration in accordance with other treaties, should be submitted to investigation by a permanent commission. That commission should be composed of one person representing each of the contracting parties. The disputants were to furnish the data necessary for the investigation. The contracting parties bound themselves not to commit any hostile acts until the commission had made its report or until one year had elapsed. The dominant idea was that the lapse of time would render an armed conflict between disputants unlikely. . . . The tripartite treaty was . . . evidently intended to prevent wars among Latin-American states and to shield them against foreign attacks. This treaty, however, remained an aspiration; for it was not ratified by all of the contracting parties."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations, pp.* 541-543.

1913.—President Wilson's proposal regarding an international commission.—"In the spring of 1913 a paper, later published under the title of 'President Wilson's Peace Proposal,' was handed by Mr. Bryan to members of the Diplomatic Corps in Washington. It proposed that all disputes which diplomacy should fail to adjust should be submitted to an international commission, pending whose investigation and report war should not be declared nor hostilities begun. In a memorandum accompanying the proposal Mr. Bryan suggested that the international commission, which was to have the power to act on its own initiative, should be composed of five members, each government choosing two, only one of whom should be its own citizen, while the fifth should be agreed on by the contracting parties. A year was to be allowed for the investigation and report. It was further stated that the United States was prepared to consider the question of maintaining the *status quo* as to military and naval preparations during the period of investigation; and it was tentatively suggested that, pending such period, there should be no change in the military and naval program of either party unless danger from a third power should compel a change, in which case a confidential written statement of the fact by the party menaced was to release both parties from the obligation. Salvador was the first power to sign the plan in treaty form. She accepted it in its entirety, including the clause as to military and naval programs, as did Guatemala, Panama, Honduras, and Nicaragua. Treaties, without this clause, were concluded with various powers. Up to July, 1917, the ratifications of treaties embracing the essentials of the plan have been exchanged with Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, China, Costa Rica, Denmark, Ecuador, France, Great Britain, Guatemala, Honduras, Italy, Norway, Paraguay, Peru, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, and Uruguay. They do not, as sometimes is apparently supposed, bind the parties to arbitration, but expressly reserve to them entire freedom of action after the report of the commission shall have been made. The underlying thought of the plan is threefold: (1) That it furnishes an honorable means of suspending controversy; (2) that the suspension of controversy will tranquillize the minds of the disputants; and (3) that the report of the commission of investigation probably will


SOUTH AMERICA
ENGLISH STATUTE MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500 600 700 800
KILOMETERS
0 100 200 300 400 500 600 700 800 900 1000
Longitude West from Greenwich
80
70
60
50
40
CARIBBEAN SEA
VENEZUELA
COLOMBIA
ECUADOR
PERU
BRAZIL
BOLIVIA
PARAGUAY
BRITISH GUIANA
DUTCH GUIANA
FRENCH GUIANA
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
EQUATOR
BOGOTA
QUITO
LIMA
CARACAS
Maracaibo
Barranquilla
Cartagena
Medellin
Guayaquil
Cuenca
Cuzco
Arequipa
La Paz
Cochabamba
Maracay
Valencia
Barquisimeto
Ciudad Bolivar
Georgetown
Paramaribo
Cayenne
Manaos
Belem (Para)
Santarem
Villafranca
Itaituba
Borba
Coary
Teffe
Ayrao
Rio Negro
Rio Branco
Rio Solimoes or Amazon R.
Rio Madeira
Rio Tapajos
Rio Xingu
Rio Tocantins R.
Mouths of the Amazon R.
Parador Tocantins R.
Falls of the Madeira
Falls of the Paulo Affonso
Falls of the Theresina
Falls of the Tocantins R.
Rio Purus
Rio Juruena
Rio Guaporé
Rio Paraguay
Rio Negro
Rio Parnahiba
Rio Grande
Rio Doce
Rio de Contas
Rio Pardo
Rio Jequitinhonha
Rio Mucury
Rio Francisco
Rio Araguaya
Rio Tocantins
Rio Tapajos
Rio Xingu
Rio Madeira



Maps prepared specially for the NEW LARNED
under direction of the editors and publishers.

point the way to a fair and equitable adjustment. The plan, it may be observed, makes no distinction between different kinds of rights. It embraces 'all disputes' as to 'questions of an international character,' no matter what may be the nature of the right asserted or denied. A point which it apparently does not cover, a point which it is indeed very difficult to meet in advance by any specific provision, is that of what may be called a continuing injury, consisting of a wilful and persistent aggression upon substantial rights either as to persons, or as to property, or as to jurisdiction, or as to commerce, rights in whose deliberate and prolonged invasion other governments cannot lawfully or properly be asked to acquiesce."—J. B. Moore, *Principles of American diplomacy, pp.* 335-337.

1914 (May-June).—A B C conference at Niagara to promote peaceful relations between Mexico and the United States. See A B C CONFERENCE; U. S. A.: 1914 (April): Occupation, etc.

1914-1918.—German propaganda. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports: d, 1.

1915.—Pan-American conference. See U. S. A.: 1915 (August-October).

1916-1918.—Pan-American Federation of Labor.—"A significant event in the economic progress of the nations of the Western Hemisphere occurred two years ago [1916] in Washington. . . . This event was the organization, at the headquarters of the American Federation of Labor, of a small body of men called the Pan American Federation of Labor Conference Committee. The members of this committee represented organized labor in Mexico (Yucatan), Cuba, Porto Rico, and Chile, as well as the older organization in the United States. . . . Between labor organizations of Mexico and the United States it seemed imperative that a better understanding be created, and to that end a commission was formed to visit Mexico in the summer of 1918. . . . On dispatching the special mission to Mexico, President Gompers of the American Federation of Labor outlined the object of its labors as follows: 1. To bring about a better understanding between the workers of Mexico and of the United States. 2. To bring about a more reciprocal and cooperative course between the working people of the United States and Mexico. 3. To lay the basis for the mutual acceptance of the union cards of the bona fide unions of both countries, subject to the approval of the particular unions involved. 4. To help secure the economic, political, and social improvement of the conditions of the workers of both countries through (a) economic action, (b) sympathetic and cooperative legislation, and (c) sympathetic and cooperative administration. 5. To establish the permanency of the Pan American Federation of Labor between the workers of Mexico and of the United States and thus help secure the extension of the Pan American Federation of Labor to the labor movements of all the Latin American countries. 6. To endeavor to have a representative labor man or two to visit the convention of the American Federation of Labor, St. Paul, Minn., beginning June 10, 1918. 7. To endeavor by every honorable means and within the limits of the powers of private voluntary associated effort to secure the co-operation of the Governments of the United States and Mexico in firmly establishing the principles of protection of the peoples and the Governments of all American countries against sinister influences or power from any other country or group of countries in the war. 8. To safeguard as far as it is possible the principles of autonomous independence and democratic Pan American countries from open or insidious attempts of autocratic forms of government."—J. Barrett, *Pan American Federation of Labor* (*Bulletin of Pan American Union, Oct.*, 1918).

1917.—Dispute between Chile and Argentina over Straits of Magellan. See ARGENTINA: 1916-1917.

1917-1918.—Part played in World War.—"Not all the Latin-American nations were treated alike by Germany. When the German Empire, on Jan. 31, 1917, instituted its submarine blockade of the British, French, and Italian shores, several Latin-American nations followed the lead of the United States and entered a strong protest against such a violation of international law. These nations were Bolivia, Brazil, Cuba, Haiti, Honduras, Guatemala, Peru, and Uruguay."—B. J. Perez-Verdia, *Latin America in the war* (*New York Times Current History, Feb.*, 1919, *p.* 358).—"Only eight of the twenty Latin-American republics eventually entered the war: Brazil, Costa Rica, Cuba, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama [Cuba and Brazil in 1917, the rest in 1918]. Five others broke off relations with Germany: Bolivia, Peru, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, and Uruguay [all in 1917]. Seven remained neutral: Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Salvador, Venezuela, and Paraguay. Only two Latin-American states, Brazil and Cuba took an active part in the war. At the request of the British government in December, 1917, Brazil sent two cruisers and four destroyers to European waters to coöperate with the British navy, and a few months later a group of Brazilian aviators took their place on the Western front. A number of physicians and several Red Cross units from Brazil also coöperated with the Allies. Cuba turned over to the United States several German steamships interned in her waters. A compulsory military service law was passed and a number of training camps established. In October, 1918, the Cuban government announced that it had 25,000 troops ready to send to France, but the armistice was signed before arrangements could be made for their transportation. The only active service rendered by Cubans was in the field of aviation, where several individuals won high distinction."—J. H. Latané, *United States and Latin America, pp.* 312-313.—See also BRAZIL: 1917-1920; CUBA: 1917 (April); BOLIVIA: 1917.

1917-1918.—Central America in the World War.—When Germany instituted its blockade, 1917, the diplomatic communications "from small nations were received with the greatest contempt. Accordingly, the Government of Guatemala, in a decree dated April 27, 1917, stated that 'as the German Government has not had even the courtesy to acknowledge the receipt of Guatemala's protest against the submarine blockade, either directly or through her representative in Guatemala, the only becoming action in the circumstances is the severance of diplomatic relations.' Haiti protested on May 11, 1917, against the submarine blockade. . . . When several natives of Haiti lost their lives on the Karnak and Montreal the proper representations were made. Germany in reply handed the Chargé d'Affaires of Haiti his passports, thus compelling Haiti in turn to dismiss the German Chargé d'Affaires in June, 1917. . . . Guatemala entered the war on April 21, 1918, . . . through a decree of her Legislative Assembly. . . . Nicaragua declared war against Germany, as well as against Austria-Hungary . . . and Costa Rica, . . . broke off diplomatic relations on Sept. 21,

1917, and on May 24, 1918, declared war on the German Empire. She was thus the third Central American republic to assume a belligerent attitude. On July 19, 1918, Honduras declared war on Germany. . . . The Government of Haiti declared war on July 12, 1918. . . . Mexico remained neutral." —B. J. Perez-Verdia, *Latin America in the war* (*New York Times Current History, Feb.*, 1919).

1918.—**Post-war effects upon United States and Latin American friendship.**—"By its active entrance into the war, Brazil acquired an international position which is recognized with envy by the other two powers [of the A B C Alliance]. Brazil was a signer of the Treaty of Peace and is a charter member of the League of Nations. The result is that the largest country in South America, because of its clean-cut stand against the Teutonic Powers, has received such recognition from the Allied Nations as gives it predominance in international affairs over both Argentina and Chile. At the same time a kindred desire on the part of both the United States and Brazil to continue the relationships engendered in fighting for a common cause has brought these two countries . . . together."—O. Hardy, *South American alliances: Some political and geographical considerations* (*Geographical Review, Oct.-Nov.*, 1919).—"The first changes to be felt in Latin America consequent upon the war were economic. South America had depended chiefly upon European capital for its development. England had invested in Argentina alone some five hundred million pounds sterling. Railroads, port works, street railways, mines, telephones and extensive land projects were owned by Europeans. Latin America had been selling her enormous resources to the foreigner and living in ease on the proceeds, with no thought that in this modern world of science and commerce and wealth such conditions could ever change. If a nation desired a new loan for some pet project or for the reward of a political party, a concession to a foreigner would bring it. If the rich *estanciero* desired a new palace, the foreigner was ready with the money in exchange for some of his valuable land. If native labor was scarce or indolent, immigrants from Spain and Italy would come to reap the crops and build public works. When the European war began all of this order of things, which had come to seem most natural, was suddenly changed. Countries which were not only accustomed to borrow extra funds but to receive money for their raw materials from the foreigner, found both processes stopped because the European kept both his capital and his ships at home. . . . In an endeavor to extricate herself from this trying situation Latin America did two things which are making a profound and permanent change in her life. The first was to turn to the United States for [financial] aid. . . . Besides Latin America's endeavor to arrange for new credits and supplies in the United States, she did a second thing which is destined to have a very large effect on all her life. She began to make a most determined effort to develop her own resources and to manufacture her own goods."—S. G. Inman, *Problems in Pan Americanism, pp.* 227, 230.—See also AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1915-1920.

1918-1920.—**Housing problem.** See HOUSING: South America.

1918-1921.—**Trade effects.—American investments of capital.—Paramount foreign interests.**—"Trade prior to the [World] war was well based, a natural and healthy growth of the industrial development of the United States and of Latin America. It had nothing to fear from British or German competition and was almost a monopoly in 10 of the 20 countries. These were Mexico, Cuba, Haiti, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Honduras, Salvador, Costa Rica, and Panama. In four others—Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru—it led British and German trade and was rapidly ousting both. In the six remaining countries—Brazil, Bolivia, Uruguay, Paraguay, Chile, and Argentina—it was behind British and German trade, but was gaining on both, and promised to surpass Germany, at least, in 8 or 10 years. The new trade developed since the war began is in general of the same character as the old trade, that is, it is in goods in which prior to the war the United States demonstrated ability to compete. The exceptions are principally in textiles, of which trade prior to the war the United States had but a small share."—*Latin American foreign trade as affected by the war* (*Pan American Union, Jan.*, 1918).—"American investments of capital, . . . which formerly lagged far behind those of European countries, have begun to assume . . . importance in Latin America. . . . Within the last half dozen years . . . considerable loans . . . have been secured in the United States for Latin American governments, states, cities and industrial undertakings. . . . Over a quarter of a billion dollars of American money is invested in Chilean iron, copper, and nitrate; over a hundred million dollars are distributed among Argentine government and industrial loans; heavy investments have recently been made in Venezuelan and Colombian gold mine and oil deposits; down to 1918, one billion fifty-seven million dollars had been invested in Mexican properties; and about one billion dollars have been placed in Cuban enterprises. The total investment of American money in Latin America aggregates at the present moment (1921) something like three billion dollars. . . . Without overexertion, without subsidies, without American colonies in the Latin American countries, without a credit system palatable to Latin Americans, without a thorough comprehension of Latin American needs, habits, requirements in packing, or custom house technicalities . . . and in the face of deterrent exchange values, our [United States] manufacturers and merchants nevertheless did business with Latin America in 1920 to the amount of $3,256,295,601. . . . Our total trade with the whole world in 1920 was $13,508,151,959. Hence, Latin America furnished one-fourth of our entire export and import business. . . . Our imports increased between 1919 and 1920 in every single country of Latin America with the exception of Brazil, in which a drop from $233,570,620 to $227,589,594, or about six million dollars. . . . Our exports in 1920 exceeded the figures for 1919 in every single country except Bolivia, in which a drop from $4,573,381, or less than $200,000, took place. . . . By what agencies have we increased our exports to Argentina from 45 million dollars for the year ending June 30, 1914 . . . to nearly 214 million in 1920: our exports to Brazil from 30 million dollars in 1914 to nearly 157 million in 1920: our exports to Cuba, from about 69 million dollars in 1914 to 515 million in 1920? Manifestly, the rise in commodity prices cannot account for the almost incredible difference. . . . None of the Allies ever retired one moment from the Latin American trade, and England's competition has always been strong. . . . Whatever the causes, the evidence is plain that we acquired markets more valuable than China and the entire Orient and that the question of holding or giving up these markets now rests with us."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America, pp.* 309-

310, 107-109.—"The old idea in the United States was that Latin America, being so largely made up of Indians and illiterates, offered little opportunity for commerce. Business men are gradually awakening to the great error of such an opinion. Little Cuba, with a 2,500,000 population, had a foreign commerce in 1920 about equal to that of China, with a 400,000,000 population. Argentina alone did about $2,000,000,000 worth of foreign trade in the year closed June, 1920. In spite of the revolution in Mexico, the United States sold more farm implements to that country in 1920 than it did to France in the midst of reconstruction work. . . . With three times more territory than the United States, Latin America has at present about the same population as the United States in 1900, namely, 80,000,000. But her foreign commerce today is twice what ours was twenty years ago. In the hundredth year of the independence of the United States we had a population of 50,000,000 and foreign commerce of $1,500,000,000. Latin America has just celebrated the centennial of her independence, and her population is 80,000,000, with a foreign commerce, of $5,000,000,000. Can any one doubt that with more rapid transportation, more scientific machinery and a greater economic efficiency, and with three times the territory, Latin America will make at least the same record in the next forty years as the United States did from 1880 to 1921?"—S. G. Inman, *Obstacles to Pan-American concord* (*New York Times Current History, Feb.*, 1923).—See also AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1915-1920.

1918-1921.—Effect of natural resources.—Development of agricultural, mineral, and manufacturing products.—"This movement [development of resources, 1918-1921] was most notable in Brazil, the one big country in South America that actually declared war. The federal government took up systematically the whole question of increasing agricultural products and cattle raising and the manufacturing of goods formerly imported. Previously her export had been largely coffee, with the proceeds of which she had bought many staples which could have been easily raised at home. In the new effort toward development, a North American missionary was called upon to help in planning a corn exhibit and other methods of increasing production like those used in the United States, and several thousand Japanese colonists were brought in to teach the people to grow rice cheaply. The methods of producing rubber began to be reformed. The coal mines in the south were again opened. An official campaign around the world was initiated to promote the sale of Brazilian tea, *mate*. Manufacturing has grown to an astounding extent. Brazil is now almost entirely shod with nationally made shoes. The importation of hats in Sao Paulo has practically ceased because of the nineteen hat factories now in that city. Native textile products are rapidly replacing the foreign makes. Brazil's shipping industry has profited enormously by the taking over of nearly fifty interned German ships, with which it is planned to establish lines between Brazil and many other countries, including Chile and China. The demand in the warring nations for beef and wheat and the high prices paid, caused a great increase in their production. Argentina has now become the leader of the world in the exportation of beef, surpassing the United States and Australia. She has also come to occupy first place in the export of wool and third place in the export of wheat. She has begun the use of native petroleum and firewood, and to search for her own coal deposits and exploit her own forests since denied these necessities by Europe. Argentina's total foreign commerce for 1920 approximated the remarkable figure of 2 billion American dollars. Argentina's trade balance in her favor for 1919 was 375 million dollars. Her per capita foreign business amounts to more than $200 per capita, whereas that of the United States is estimated at $86. Chile has learned her lesson as did Brazil, not to depend entirely on one product for her national commercial existence."—S. G. Inman, *Problems in Pan-Americanism, pp.* 230-231, 233.—See also ARGENTINA: 1918-1920.—"South America is [written in 1920] by all means the most deficient in coal supplies of all the continents, and this fact must inevitably affect the course of its commercial evolution. . . . We have, first of all, a group [of countries] along the north or Caribbean coast of South America, from Colombia through Venezuela to the three Guianas. This group, aside from any other resources that it may have, has large known and probable petroleum deposits. . . . Further, there are in the same regions large deposits of iron ore, of the type which makes important the north coast of Cuba, and perhaps equally large deposits of bauxite, or aluminum ore. . . . The countries on the west coast have little prospects of becoming manufacturers until we reach Chile. Here there are coal deposits of some size. . . . It may be that some developments along manufacturing lines may be looked for, using this coal as a basis. Otherwise the only possibilities along the west coast are water power and the Peruvian oil deposits. With Argentina we reach one of the most promising countries in the world, so far as future is concerned, but even here the chances are against very heavy manufacturing developments. . . . So far as fuel is concerned Brazil is practically coalless. It has one of the largest tonnage of iron ore found anywhere in the world, however, and from time to time efforts are made to secure government subsidies for iron manufacture. Nothing of serious export importance could possibly grow out of these attempts; but there is no question but that cotton and other textile manufactures could be developed by the use of the very well-located water powers which are so abundant near the coast. . . . The continent will remain largely an exporter of vegetable, animal and mineral raw materials and a good market for many lines of manufactured goods."—E. C. Eckel, *Coal, iron and war, pp.* 336-337.—See also above: Agriculture.

1918-1922.—Strikes in Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, Peru and Mexico. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1918-1922: Latin America.

1919-1922.—Peace conference.—Treaty of Versailles.—League of Nations.—"For the first time in history certain Latin-American nations . . . were represented in a conference of nations which was held at the conclusion of a War. When the Peace Conference assembled at Paris on January 18, 1919, provision was made for the attendance of diplomatic representatives of several nations of Latin America. As members of the group known as the Allied and Associated Powers, representatives of Bolivia, Brazil, Cuba, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, and Uruguay, besides Haiti and the United States, signed the Treaty of Versailles [1919]. The Latin-American states were represented upon the commission of Associated Nations that formulated the Covenant of the League of Nations by Epitacio Pessoa of Brazil. . . . Latin-American nations that through their representatives signed the treaty of peace between the Allied and Associated Powers

and Germany also subscribed the Covenant of the League of Nations, which was an integral part of the treaty. An annex to the Covenant provided that other states were invited to join the League. Among those states were the Argentine Republic, Chile, Colombia, Paraguay, Salvador and Venezuela. . . . For some reason or other, Costa Rica, Mexico, and the Dominican Republic were not invited to join the League of Nations. The Treaty of Peace with Germany was signed at Versailles on June 28, 1919. . . . Of the American nations which had subscribed that treaty only Bolivia, Brazil, Guatemala, Panama, Peru, and Uruguay signed the *procès verbal*. . . . Although that treaty failed of ratification in the United States Senate, yet every nation of Latin America which signed it, except—at present writing [1922] —Ecuador, subsequently signified her accession to the Covenant of the League of Nations. Each of the Latin-American nations which was invited to join the League filed its acceptance, within the specified time. Outside of the League there remain at present among American nations the United States and Ecuador, which were original signatories of the covenant, and Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, and Mexico, which have not been vouchsafed an opportunity to join. . . . Some of those states, notably Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Paraguay, and Venezuela, were represented at the first Assembly of the League which met in December, 1920, on the shores of Lake Geneva."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations, pp.* 566-569.—See also PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.—That "the thirty other nations outside America which are members are fully mindful of the influence of Latin America and are desirous of tying those countries closely to the League is clearly evident by their recent election of a Chilean diplomat [Augustin Edwards] to the Presidency of that organization. A distinguished Brazilian had previously been serving as Chairman of the League's Assembly. Add to this the facts that two of the six elected members of the League's Council are Latin Americans, and out of the eleven judges forming the League's World Court of Justice two are Latin Americans, with only one North American, one Britisher and one Frenchman, the new place that these Southern countries occupy in international affairs is clearly seen."—S. G. Inman, *Obstacles to Pan-American concord* (*New York Times Current History, Feb.*, 1923).

1921.—**Rapprochement among the Latin American countries.**—"International rapprochement . . . is not restricted to the creation of bonds of interest between Latin America and the United States, Spain, France, or the rest of the outside world, but is at this moment [1921] exceedingly active among the Latin American republics themselves; its effects are visible in the magnanimous utterance (August, 1921) of President Tamayo of Ecuador concerning the boundary dispute between his country and Peru: 'I believe that by the exercise of good will, serene judgment, and a spirit of sincere Americanism an equitable and reciprocally beneficial arrangement can be effected, particularly since the prosperity of one of the countries will tend to contribute to the progress of the other'; in the peaceful measures recently taken to settle questions relating to frontiers and doubtful territory between Bolivia and Paraguay and between Uruguay and Brazil; in Chile's support of the Argentine amendments before the League of Nations, followed by expression of sympathy from nearly all the Latin American republics; in the rules adopted by the A B C Treaty . . . 'for proceeding to facilitate the friendly solution of questions that were formerly excluded from arbitration'; and in the visit of the Argentine battleship *Sarmiento* to Mexico during the present year (1921), which gave rise to expressions of cordial friendship."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America, p.* 167.

1921.—**Colby's diplomatic mission.** See U. S. A.: 1921.

1921-1922.—**Plan for the formation of Central American confederation.—Formation of Central American republic.—Collapse of union.** See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1921, to 1922 (January-February); also CENTRAL AMERICA, CONSTITUTION OF.

1921-1922.—**Recent labor legislation.—Eight-hour day laws.—Emancipation of peons in Ecuador.—Labor organization.—Effect of immigration on labor organization.** See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1921-1922: Canada, etc.; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922.

1922-1923 (December - February).—**Central American conference.**—The Central American conference which was assembled at Washington Dec. 4, 1922, signed a convention for the limitation of armaments at its closing session, Feb. 7, 1923. This was the outstanding agreement of eleven conventions, one treaty and three protocols which resulted from the conference. Reduction of armament was agreed upon on the basis of the area and population of the countries, but modified by private agreements among the delegates. The other conventions provide for free trade, extradition, conditions of labor, scholarships, liberal professions, public works, electoral laws, and establishment of Central American pedagogical institutes, and a Central American agricultural college. After the treaties and conventions were signed, the governments of Guatemala and Honduras submitted their boundary dispute for arbitration by President Harding.

See also AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF; PAN AMERICANISM; EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Latin America; LIBRARIES: Modern: South America; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Central and South America; MONROE DOCTRINE: 20th century.

ALSO IN: J. B. Lockey, *Pan-Americanism: Its beginnings.*—R. Reyes, *Two Americas.*—B. Moses, *Spanish-American dependencies in South America.* —J. Bryce, *South America.*—W. R. Shepherd, *Hispanic nations of the New World.*—S. G. Inman, *Intervention in Mexico.*—J. Bigelow, *American policy: The western hemisphere in its relation to the eastern.*—A. H. Verrill, *Getting together with Latin America.*—W. W. Pierson, *Hispanic-American history* (*Institute of International Education, International Relations Club, syllabus no. 7.*—E. Root, *Latin America and the United States.*—G. Clemenceau, *South America of today.*—F. O'Malley, *Our South American trade and its financing.*—W. H. Lough, *Financial developments in South American countries.*—J. Barrett, *Pan-America and Pan-Americanism.*—R. E. Speer, *South American problems.*—S. G. Inman, *Problems in Pan-Americanism.* —G. H. Stuart, *Latin America and the United States.*

LATIN-AMERICAN AFFAIRS, Division of. See STATE DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES: 1909-1913.

LATIN BIBLE: Old version. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: 7th-8th centuries.

Revised translation. See PAPACY: 1907-1909.

LATIN CHURCH.—The Roman Catholic church is often referred to as the Latin church, in distinction from the Greek or Orthodox church of the East. See PAPACY.

LATIN EMPIRE, established by the Crusaders at Constantinople, 1204; succeeded by the Byzantine empire, 1261. See ROMANIA, EMPIRE OF; BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1204-1205.

LATIN FREEMASONRY. See MASONIC SOCIETIES: France: American criticism of French masonry.

LATIN LANGUAGE: Prevalence and importance.—Influence on English and Romance languages. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 6th-16th centuries: Latin language; 871-900: England: King Alfred; Modern: 15th-16th centuries: Italy the center; 16th century: Schools in England; Schools in Germany; Melanchthon, etc.; Sturm, etc.; 17th century: England; 18th century: England; PHILOLOGY: 8; 9; 11; 18; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: University customs; COMMON LAW: 1730.

LATIN LEAGUE, confederation of ancient Italian cities. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 493.

LATIN LITERATURE

circa B. C. 753-264.—Beginnings.—Song of the Salii.—Birth of drama.—Early prose.—Twelve tables.—Speech of Caecus.—Beginning of Greek influence.—"The Romans themselves traced the origin of their poetry, as of all their literary culture, to their contact with the mind of Greece. . . . But it has been maintained, in recent times, that this was but the second birth of Roman poetry, and that a golden age of native minstrelsy had preceded this historical development of literature. The most distinguished supporters of this theory were Niebuhr and Macaulay. In the preface to his *Lays of Rome,* Macaulay says that 'this early literature abounded with metrical romances, such as are found in every country where there is much curiosity and intelligence, but little reading and writing.' Niebuhr went so far as to assert that the Romans in early times possessed epic poems, 'which in power and brilliance of imagination leave everything produced by the Romans in later times far behind them.' He held that the flourishing period of this native poetry was the fifth century after the foundation of the city. He supposed that the early lays were of plebeian origin, strongly animated by plebeian sentiment, and familiarly known among the mass of the people; that they disappeared after the ascendency of the new literature, chiefly through the influence of Ennius; and that his immediate predecessor, Naevius, was the last of the genuine native minstrels. He professed to find clear traces of these ballads and epic poems in the fine legends of early Roman history. His theory was supported by arguments founded on the testimony of ancient writers, on indications of the early recognition of poetry by the Roman State (as, for instance, the worship of the Camenae), on the poetical character of early Roman story, and on the analogy of other nations. Although there may be no more ground for believing in a golden age of early Roman poetry than in a golden age of innocence and happiness, yet the question raised by Niebuhr deserves attention, not only on account of the celebrity which it obtained, but also as opening up an inquiry into the nature and value of the rude germs of literature which the Latin soil spontaneously produced. Though there is no substantial evidence of the existence among the Romans of anything corresponding to the modern ballad or the early epic of Greece, yet certain kinds of metrical composition did spring up and flourish among the Italians, previous to and independent of their knowledge of Greek literature. It is worth while to ascertain what these kinds of composition were, as they throw light on some natural tendencies of the race, which ultimately obtained their adequate expression, and helped to impart a native and original character to Latin literature."—W. Y. Sellar, *Roman poets of the republic, pp.* 28-29.—"For Horace Roman literature began with Livius Andronicus—that is to say, it began with the imitation of the Greeks. But despite the fact that it is to a very great extent imitative few will deny that Roman literature is somehow different from Greek. And this difference, while it is to be accounted for partly by other causes—as, for example, that Roman literature is largely the expression of a different national character—seems also to be due to the fact that the two literatures sprang from different roots. . . . For these reasons a consideration of the first beginnings of Roman literature, obscure as they are, is not to be omitted. . . . Not much, indeed, can be built on the early recognition of *Carmenta,* nymph of the springs and goddess of prophecy, whose predictions were transmitted by prophets (*carmentes*) in the form of a *carmen,* or solemn utterance. . . . *Vaticinia* . . . are either pronouncements of an oracular kind, like the directions for ensuring the capture of Veii, preserved in Livy (5, 16), or precepts of practical wisdom. . . . Earlier than these were charms and lullabies and some ancient maxims of husbandry. . . . The most important surviving remains of primitive Latin literature are religious litanies. In March, when, according to the ancient calendar, the new year and the time for warlike operations began, the leaping priests of Mars (*Salii*) performed a war-dance, . . . accompanying their dance with song. This song consisted of two parts. . . . The first is lost; of the latter a few lines remain. . . . More important, because better preserved, is the song of the field brethren (*Fratres Arvales*). . . . More promising of future development, because more spontaneous, as born of pleasure rather than of fear or calculation, were the beginnings of drama at Rome. In Italy, as in Greece, comedy arose out of country festivals. Horace describes how the stout countrymen of long ago signalised the conclusion of their labours by merry-making, and how, originating in this practice, 'the Fescennine licence uttered rustic abuse in alternate lines.' The epithet has been derived from *Fescennium,* a village in Etruria, but it is more probably connected with *fascinum,* the spell of the evil eye. . . . But there was another rudimentary form of drama possibly developed out of the Fescennine songs. . . . Absence of plot, then, was another distinguishing feature of this form, and its name *satura* probably means a medley, and has reference to the same feature. . . . If in these rudimentary forms we see the possibility of a further development of drama, we may discover the germ of epic poetry in the dirges and songs in praise of ancestors. . . . The beginnings of prose are subsequent to those of poetry. They presuppose the art of writing. How old this art was at Rome is a matter of conjecture. Written records were already known in the regal period. . . . The so-called 'laws of the kings' was a collection of legal and religious maxims of great antiquity, but in their original form they were versified. . . . Such were the first beginnings of indigenous literature. They contain the potential germs of epic

and drama. But these germs did not fructify. In Mommsen's words, 'the development of the fine arts in Italy was rather a shrivelling up than an expanding into bloom.' . . . The fact was the community required the soldier and did not require the poet. . . . A day was added to the *ludi Romani* after the conclusion of each of the great internal crises. . . . The last occasion saw the appointment of *ædiles curules*, . . . and from this occasion dates the improvement in the *satura* due, according to Livy, to the imitation of the more artistic music and dancing exhibited by Etruscan performers. As far as prose was concerned, it was, indeed, fostered by the struggle between the orders. From it resulted (450 B. C.) that codification of existing custom known as the twelve tables, which from the literary point of view was the first attempt to adapt the Latin language to the purposes of written prose. . . . But rudimentary though they were in style, the literary influence of the twelve tables was very great. Down to Cicero's time the youth of Rome learnt them by heart. . . . As with law so with oratory. The stress of political strife must have been favourable to its growth rather than the reverse. In the year 280 B. C. Appius Claudius Cæcus delivered a speech urging that no terms should be made with the invader Pyrrhus. This, the earliest speech which is known to have been committed to writing, was published, and existed in Cicero's time. Nor did verse cease to be produced. Appius Claudius made a collection of maxims in Saturnian verse. The best known of the three preserved is that which asserts that every man is the architect of his fortunes. Besides these there were the epitaphs on L. Cornelius Scipio Barbatus, *cos* 298 B. C., and his son, L. Cornelius Scipio, *cos* 258 B. C., of which the latter is undoubtedly the earlier. Each records in six Saturnian lines the name, the qualities, and the exploits of the departed. . . . Concise, masculine, and restrained in expression, they are thoroughly Roman in tone. And yet both the maxims of Appius and the Scipionic epitaphs show symptoms of Greek influence."—M. S. Dimsdale, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 1, 3, 12.—"The first contact with Greece probably came in the course of trade along the coast, as Greek vessels crept up to the Tiber's mouth. But the gradual expansion of Rome on land was inevitably to bring the Romans into contact with Greece, as the state pushed its arms toward the south. Cumae was the first Greek city to meet this movement, and in giving to the Romans the alphabet it forecasted the mighty rôle that Greek was to play in Latin literature. The first contact with the Greece of the mainland occurred in 280 B. C., when Pyrrhus sent his embassy from Epirus to Rome. After this event this contact became much more frequent, and we hear again and again of Greeks who spoke Latin and of Romans who spoke Greek. By the close of the First Punic War Rome was on terms of intimacy, not to say alliance, with the Italian Greeks. This association, however, was in the main, political rather than social. But little interchange of ideas or genuine association of individuals can be discerned. Hence there is practically no trace of Greek influence upon Latin thinking or upon Latin literature until well on in the third century."—G. Lodge, *Greek influence upon Latin literature, p.* 273.

B.C. 264-169.—Comedy and tragedy adapted from the Greek.—Livius Andronicus and his translation of the Odyssey.—Nævius and the "Bellum Punicum."—Ennius and the "Annales."

—"Three names stand out preëminently in connection with the third century, Livius Andronicus, Naevius, and Ennius; during the brief period which these three names span, the native Roman literature sank into obscurity, while Greek literature came to monopolize more and more the minds of literary Romans. Livius Andronicus [c. 284-204 B. C.] was himself a Greek. Brought to Rome by the event of war [after the fall of Tarentum, 272 B. C.], he established himself there and devoted himself to letters. In 240, at the request of the aediles, he brought out a play adapted from the Greek, for a performance at the public games. This was a new departure, not so much in metrical form . . . but in organized and fully developed plot. As compared with the old *Fabula Atellana*, or *Satura*, its superiority could not but be felt immediately, and it seems to have met with great success. Thus encouraged Livius continued his dramatic work, particularly in tragedy, though we have indications of at least three comedies. The chief work, however, associated with him is a translation of the *Odyssey* of Homer, which became at once a school-book. To this fact Livius owed the place in Latin literature which he always held. As in the case of his plays, he used a Latin metrical form which had been already developed for the heroic lay, the Saturnian. He had neither the capacity nor the desire to transfer the Greek epic form."—G. Lodge, *Greek influence upon Latin literature, p.* 274.—"In Cn. Naevius (*circ.* 270-circ. 199) greater independence and originality are recognisable. He may be called home-born, and the native spirit is strong in him. Especially in the historical plays (*fabulae praetextae* or *praetextatae*) invented by him, and in his epic, he proves himself inspired by the greatness of the national life. . . . But it must have been in comedy that Naevius's varied genius most fully expressed itself. a list of thirty-four *palliatae*—or about five comedies to every tragedy—certifies his fertility. . . . The dramatic talents of Naevius cannot be said to have obtained absolutely free play. His comic genius was hampered by the indignant opposition of the great families, while his historical plays were eclipsed by the superior attractions of Greek tragedy. Through the epic of his old age he was destined to exert a far more powerful influence on literature. The *Bellum Punicum*, of which less than eighty lines survive, was in the main a narrative in Saturnian verse of the first war between Rome and Carthage, in which the poet had played a part. . . . Strict chronology would present Plautus next in order, but the eminence of Quintus Ennius (239-169) in epic suggests his name immediately after that of Naevius. His birth at Budiae, an old Calabrian town in touch with Hellenism, made him a 'semi-Graecus,' to use the phrase of Suetonius. . . . By the death of Andronicus and the exile of the too democratic Naevius about the very time of Ennius's arrival in Rome, an opening was made for a new dramatist. . . . The dramatic activity of Ennius is represented by the fragments of twenty-two tragedies, two comedies, and one *praetexta*, or, as some think, two. . . . The *Saturae*, of which Ennius left four books, were miscellaneous enough to include didactic, sportive, and narrative pieces. . . . The *Annales*, in eighteen books, as finally issued by the poet, were the great fountain of his influence upon posterity. What survive are roughly six hundred lines or partial lines. The total includes a few continuous passages of about twenty lines each. We possess, then, something like a fortieth of the whole. Ennius's aim was to celebrate the glories of Rome from Aeneas to his own days. . . . The barest summary proves the man's versatility. He had a high, some would say the highest, place in Roman tragedy, and a minor place in comedy. He

LATIN LITERATURE, B. C. 234-103

was the precursor of Lucilius in satire, of Lucretius in didactic, of Virgil in epic. Not only did he mould the hexameter to Latin use, but he was the introducer of the elegiac distich. He left a permanent impress on the language. The very details of orthography and shorthand notes had an interest for him."—J. W. Duff, *Literary history of Rome, pp.* 126, 130, 132, 136, 138-139, 145-146, 155.

B. C. 234-103.—Growth of Latin spirit.—Cato, creator of Latin prose.—Comedy at its height.—Greek influence.—Plautus and Terence.—Tragedies of Pacuvius and Accius.—Lucilius, founder of classical satire.—"The creator of Latin prose writing was **Cato** (234-149 B. C.). In almost every department he set the example, and his works, voluminous and varied, retained their reputation until the close of the classical period. He was the first thoroughly national author. . . . We have said that Cato's name is associated with the contempt of letters. This is no doubt the fact. Nevertheless, Cato was by far the most original writer that Rome ever produced. . . . In every position he made many enemies, but most notably in his capacity of censor. No man was oftener brought to trial. Forty-four times he spoke in his own defence, and every time he was acquitted. . . . Besides private causes, he spoke in many important public trials and on many great questions of state: Cicero had seen or heard of 150 orations by him. . . . His originality is in nothing more conspicuously shown than in his method of treating history. He struck a line of inquiry in which he found no successor. The *Origines*, if it had remained, would undoubtedly have been a priceless storehouse of facts about the antiquities of Italy. Cato had an enlarged view of history. It was not his object to magnify Rome at the expense of the other Italian nationalities, but rather to show how she had become their greatest, because their truest, representative. [See History: 17] . . . Pliny, Gellius, and Servius, are the authors who seem most to have studied it; of these Pliny was most influenced by it. . . . Quintilian attests the many-sidedness of his genius: 'M. Cato was at once a first-rate general, a philosopher, an orator, the founder of history, the most thorough master of law and agriculture.' The work on agriculture we have the good fortune to possess; or rather a redaction of it, slightly modernized and incomplete. . . . In after times Cato's own apophthegms were collected for publication, and under the name of *Catonis dicta,* were much admired in the Middle Ages. We see that Cato's literary labours were encyclopædic. In this wide and ambitious sphere he was followed by Varro."—C. T. Cruttwell, *History of Roman literature, pp.* 92-93, 95, 98.—"This period, however, is preëminently the period of Roman comedy, which is represented chiefly by two names, Plautus and Terence, although of a number of other writers we have fragmentary remains. **Plautus** [254-184 B.C.] is in spirit the immediate successor of Naevius and thus stands in sharp distinction to Terence, who is related, spiritually, rather to Ennius. Plautus was an Italian, an Umbrian, who after a varied experience, mainly in mercantile pursuits, became a playwright and a manager, perhaps an actor. In seeking means of amusement for the public, he, like Naevius, had recourse to the vast mass of Greek material ready at hand in the New Comedy, whose chief representative was Menander. This material he used quite independently, combining, transforming, supplementing it as his histrionic feeling dictated. Of the twenty-one plays which have come down to us in more or less complete form every title is Latin, but the location and the plot are Greek. Sometimes he has combined two Greek plays into one, when the comic effect of one of them seemed too meager. The spirit of Greek comedy was distinctly un-Roman. The chief motif, illicit love, revolted the Roman sense of propriety. The position of the courtesan and the low esteem of the family relation were also distinctly un-Roman. The carelessness with which serious matters were treated, the success that always attended upon knavery, the role played by the parasite and the pander, were utterly foreign to the Roman taste. But all this material provided abundant opportunity for comedy, and, inasmuch as it represented Greek manners and morals, for which the Roman had in general a profound contempt, not only was no umbrage taken, but many of the plays were extremely successful. A great part, however, of this success was unquestionably due to Plautus's own skill in devising comic situations, or to the purely Roman elements with which he amplified his originals. Plautus was not restricted by any considerations of dramatic technique. Unity of time and place did not worry him, nor did he, any more than Shakespeare, care about geographical details. To most of his auditors one Greek name was as good as another, and not one of his spectators cared whether Thebes was a seaport or not. On the other hand, a play where every allusion was Greek, every situation was Greek, would naturally soon pall upon a Roman audience. Consequently the plays of Plautus are replete with references to specifically Roman practices, situations, and events. The habits of the Roman marketplace, the regulations of the Roman government, transactions among the Romans themselves, are played upon again and again. We even find the Roman *Lar familiaris* acting as tutelary deity to an Athenian household. Many characteristics of manners are also distinctly Roman. Thus the position occupied by some of the matrons is much above their corresponding position in Greece, and the severe and brutal treatment of slaves is essentially Roman rather than Greek. There is also an undercurrent throughout of that seriousness of mind which never forsook the Roman even in his lighter moments. There are numerous reflections on life and its problems, such as would hardly belong to a mere comedy of manners."—G. Lodge, *Greek influence upon Latin literature, pp.* 276-277.—"He was a prolific writer; 130 plays are attributed to him, but their genuineness was the subject of discussion from a very early period. Varro finally decided in favour of only 21, to which he added 19 more as probably genuine, the rest he pronounced uncertain. . . . The conventional refinement with which Menander invested his characters, and which was so happily reproduced by Terence, was not attempted by Plautus. His excellence lies rather in the bold and natural flow of his dialogue, fuller, perhaps, of spicy humour and broad fun than of wit, but of humour and fun so lighthearted and spontaneous that the soberest reader is carried away by it. In the construction of his plots he shows no great originality, though, often much ingenuity. . . . The *Menaechmi* and *Trinummus* are the best known of his plays; the former would be hard to parallel for effective humour. . . .

"The dramatic career of **Terence** [B. C. 185-159] may, nevertheless, be pronounced as brilliantly successful as it was shortlived. His fame increased with each succeeding play, till at the time of his early death, he found himself at the head of his profession, and, in spite of petty rivalries, enjoying a reputation almost equal to that of Plautus himself. The elegance and purity of his diction is

the more remarkable as he was a Carthaginian by birth."—C. T. Cruttwell, *History of Roman literature, pp.* 44-45, 50.—"Sainte-Beuve conjures up the ghost of Menander saying: 'For the love of me love Terence.' It is through love of Terence that moderns are able to love Menander; and what is preserved of Terence has not, apparently, given us the best of the friend of Epicurus. . . . Of the six comedies of Terence, four are derived from Menander; two, the *Hecyra* and the *Phormio,* from Apollodorus. These two are inferior, in comic action and the peculiar sweetness of Menander, to the *Andria,* the *Adelphi,* the *Heauton Timorumenos,* and the *Eunuchus;* but Phormio is a more dashing and amusing convivial parasite than the Gnatho of the last-named comedy. . . . In what degree of faithfulness Terence copied Menander—whether, as he states of the passage in the *Adelphi* taken from Dipihilus, *'verbum de verbo'* in the lovelier scenes (the description of the last words of the dying Andrian, and of her funeral, for instance)—remains conjectural. For us, Terence shares with his master the praise of an amenity that is like Elysian speech, equable and ever gracious."—G. Meredith, *Essay on comedy, pp.* 107-109.—Terence "died at the age of twenty-six, while sailing round the coast of Greece. The maturity of mind shown by so young a man is very remarkable. It must be remembered that he belonged to a race whose faculties developed earlier than among the Romans, that he had been a slave, and was therefore familiar with more than one aspect of life, and that he had enjoyed the society of the greatest in Rome, who reflected profoundly on social and political questions. His influence, though imperfectly exercised in his lifetime, increased after his death, not so much through the representation as the reading of his plays. His language became one of the chief standards of classical Latin, and is regarded by Mr. Munro as standing on the very highest level—the same as that of Cicero, Caesar, and Lucretius."—C. T. Cruttwell, *History of Roman literature, p.* 54.—"Between him [Plautus] and Terence a generation intervenes, filled by another comedian, Caecilius, whose works were said to unite much of the special excellences of both; while after the death of Terence his work was continued on the same lines by Turpilius and others, and dwindled away little by little into the early Empire. But there can be no doubt that Plautus and Terence fully represent the strength and weakness of the Latin *palliata.* Together with the seven plays of Aristophanes, they have been in fact, since the beginning of the Middle Ages, the sole representatives of ancient, and the sole models of modern comedy."—J. W. Mackail, *Latin literature, p.* 16.—"During this period also, Roman tragedy had had a short and more or less fitful success. No complete plays have come down to us, but two great authors, **Pacuvius** [c. 220-130 B. C.] and **Accius** [c. 170-90 B. C.], are referred to again and again. These poets restricted themselves almost entirely to Greek subjects and to Greek treatment. There are indications that they tried Roman subjects occasionally, but their hearts seem not to have been in such themes. We are unable to form any clear idea of the structure of these plays. But the Roman element was unquestionably very slight. How successful they were in retaining popular approval it is also impossible to say. The fragments seem to indicate that the model was Euripides and that the problems of humanity were treated rather than the relations of God and fate to man. The appeal of Roman tragedy must have been primarily to the cultivated class. The ordinary public of Rome could have been interested only by a realism which was foreign to the Greek taste, and seems not to have been present in the Roman imitations."—G. Lodge, *Greek influence upon Latin literature, pp.* 278-279.—"**C. Lucilius** (148-103 B. C.), the founder of classical Satire, was born in the Latin town of Suessa Aurunca in Campania. He belonged to an equestrian family, and was in easy circumstances. . . . His position, at once independent and unambitious (for he could not hold office in Rome), gave him the best possible chance of observing social and political life, and of this chance he made the fullest use. He lived behind the scenes: he saw the corruption prevalent in high circles; he saw also the true greatness of those who, like Scipio, stood aloof from it. . . . Although a companion of the great, he was strictly popular in his tone. . . . In one sense Lucilius might be called a moderniser, for he strove hard to enlarge the people's knowledge and views. . . . His satire seems to have ranged over the whole field of life, so far as it was known to him; and though his learning was in no department deep, it was sound so far as it went, and was guided by natural good taste. . . . This genial humour Horace tried with success to reproduce, but he is conscious of inferiority to the master."—C. T. Cruttwell, *History of Roman literature, pp.* 78-79, 81.—"The only work which Lucilius appears to have written was a collection of *Saturae* or *Satirae,* in thirty books. . . . In these satires he expressed with great freedom his thoughts upon everything he saw, heard, or read, exercising his criticism upon politics, manners and literature. He did this with a boldness which neither before nor after him any satirist has ventured to imitate, for he assailed many of his contemporaries by name, and did not scruple to attack the whole city."—L. Schmitz, *History of Latin literature, p.* 44.—With Lucilius, closes the pre-Ciceronian period of Latin literature.—See also EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Origins.

B.C. 82-43.—Ciceronian age of politics and prose.—Varro.—Julius Cæsar.—Preëminence of Cicero.—Poetry of Catullus and Lucretius.—Sallust, first artistic historian.—"When we reach the Ciceronian Age we find new influences at work, on the one side Greek philosophy as shown in Lucretius and the work of Cicero's advanced years, on the other the learned poetry of Alexandria as developed and molded by Catullus and more especially by Vergil. . . . Cicero desired to put Greek philosophy within reach of the Roman public. He shows in his works little evidence of original thinking, but his Greek material is treated from the Roman point of view and the wealth of illustration is entirely his own."—G. Lodge, *Greek influence upon Latin literature, p.* 281.—"The last stage of the Republic (82-43 B. C.) forms the first division of the culminating epoch of Latin literature, the second division (43 B. C.-14 A. D.) being the Augustan age. But the literature of the late Republic differs markedly from that of the reign of Augustus. Less perfect and on the whole less mature, it exhibits more individuality and more vigour. . . . The keenness of the political struggle accounts for another characteristic of the literature of the period, the predominance of prose over poetry. . . . History as well as oratory was enlisted in the service of politics. . . . Thus it is that while the traditions of an encyclopædist like Cato and a grammarian like Ælius Stilo were carried on by Varro, we find in the latter days of the Republic the first artistic historian in Sallust, the most lucid writer of military memoirs in Caesar [see HISTORY: 17], and the consummator of Roman oratory in Cicero. To this predominance of prose over poetry there are two

LATIN LITERATURE, B.C. 82-43

notable exceptions, one a philosopher [Lucretius] who stood aloof from politics, the other a man of pleasure [Catullus] to whom they meant but little. The first is an isolated figure, the second the most brilliant representative, indeed the only member whose works survive, of what was in his day the most fashionable school of poetry."—M. S. Dimsdale, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 118-119. —"This may be called the golden age of Latin literature, in regard to its form as well as to its substance. During the first half of the period, that is, the age of Cicero, prose reached its highest perfection. . . . The number of men who, like Varro, still tried to preserve the national character in life and literature, was reduced to a very small minority; the current of Greek influence was irresistible. . . . But the Romans now, as before, did not choose the great classical authors of Hellas for their models, but were more fascinated by the demoralising productions of more recent times. . . . But notwithstanding all this, the better spirits of the Romans soon discovered wherein the great excellence of the Greeks lay, and were thus enabled to produce works that may be compared with the master works of Greek genius. . . . The branch of literature which flourished most throughout the time of Cicero was oratory, in which the practical and energetic spirit of the Romans was tempered by artistic principles developed by Greek rhetoricians. . . . Political discussions and historical and antiquarian researches, of which Varro furnished the most splendid examples, also engaged the pens of many men of eminence. The only philosophical works produced during this period are those of the poet Lucretius and of Cicero. . . . By far the most important and most productive writer of this period, both in prose and verse, next to Cicero, is **M. Terentius Varro** [116-28 B.C.]. . . . He belonged to an ancient senatorial family, and was brought up in the simple and hardy manner. . . . Although a strong upholder of everything that was national, he did not neglect Greek culture, but he seems to have been little concerned about beauty or elegance in his own works. The number of books he wrote is computed, perhaps by himself, at 620, which belonged to 74 distinct works. . . . The most important among these were—*Antiquitates Rerum Humanarum et Divinarum,* in forty-one books, twenty-five of which were devoted to human affairs. They were addressed to Julius Cæsar as pontifex, and seem to have been intended to check the general decay of the national religion."—L. Schmitz, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 54-58.—See also HISTORY: 17.—"Unfortunately, those works which would give us the clearest idea of the man and his time are lost, and of very many we only know the titles. Only two of them [*De Lingua Latina* and *De Re Rustica* or *Rerum Rusticarum Libri tres*] have come down to our time, and even these not without many defects and mutilations."—*Ibid., p.* 57.—"**Caesar** [100-44 B.C.] possessed the most varied talents: a great politician and a great general, his clear mind and the iron energy of his will qualified him to be the ruler of an age not able to rule itself. This task he conceived at an early time and pursued it with the whole power of his intellect, with cunning and boldness, with quiet perseverance and farsighted calculation. But the very qualities which made him the ruler of Rome were not likely to make him a brilliant writer. Handling his language, as he did, with complete mastery both in speaking and writing, he still used it only as a means of attaining definite political aims, and both his subjects and his style were controlled by those aims and by the unimaginative cast of his mind. For this reason, he himself thought little of his own oratory, though in his time he was surpassed only by Cicero, being distinguished for precision, good taste and vivacity of style and delivery; if possible, he thought even less of his verses, though his metrical compositions were not confined to his youth. His precise thinking is attested by his treatises on grammatical correctness, while his jovial disposition appears from his collection of witticisms; political ends were served by the pamphlets against Cato, who had been set up as the martyr of the Republic, as well as by Caesar's most important literary achievement, the commentarii. His astronomical work (de astris) probably arose from his rectification of the calendar. . . . Of Caesar's literary works only his Memoirs (commentarii) are preserved. These contain the history of the first seven years of the Gallic war in seven books, and the history of the Civil war down to the Alexandrine war in three books, and lie midway between a mere collection of materials, or the rapid and sketchy remarks of a diary, and a carefully elaborated historical work. But artless and unpretentious as the form is, it is equally attractive in its brevity, perspicuity and definiteness; while the substance, which is manifestly the direct product of the events, is most carefully weighed and meditated. Without any flagrant violation of truth, the author knows thoroughly how to interpret the facts in his favour or, if more convenient, to pass them over in silence; without ever boasting or sacrificing the semblance of an objective 'historia,' he perfectly succeeds in displaying his personal merits to the greatest possible advantage, in justifying his actions and clearing his motives. The books on the Gallic war were published on its termination, a 703/51; those on the Civil war do not seem to have been finished."—W. S. Teuffel, *History of Roman literature, v.* 1, *pp.* 332, 335.

"The pre-eminence of **Cicero** [106-43 B.C.] in Latin prose is only to be compared to the pre-eminence of Phidias and those who worked with him at Athens in sculpture. He stands alone, above predecessors and contemporaries and successors. . . . Cicero owed more to himself and less to his surroundings than most great Latin writers. All the great orators before him, with the exception of Cato, had been men of rank and family; and the oratory of Cato, though elaborate, pretentious, and clever, was still essentially plebeian; while the oratory of Cicero is full of an ideal dignity and nobility, which surpasses the tone that rank can give, because it proceeds from an honest enthusiasm for Roman institutions as they had been and might be. . . . In the age of Cicero there were no less than five distinct forces in politics: the old nobility, enriched by several generations of high office; the mob of the capital, who, in virtue of the legislation of the Gracchi, continued to receive outdoor relief; the great banking and financial corporations, which dated from the time of Gracchus too; the notables of the country towns all over Italy; the great general, or great generals, of the period, who had conducted several campaigns continuously. . . . Cicero's career was affected in various ways by the complications of politics. . . . Cicero himself began to write early. . . . The first speech of Cicero's which has reached us was that for P. Quinctius, delivered in the twenty-sixth year of his age."—G. A. Simcox, *History of Latin literature from Ennius to Bœthius, v.* 1, *pp.* 140-143, 145, 146.—"Cicero possessed, to a wonderful extent, the power of appropriating and assimilating to his own individuality foreign ideas and dressing them up anew in an easy and pleasant style. Ow-

LATIN LITERATURE, B. C. 82-43

ing to this gift, he amplified Roman literature by introducing into it several new departments which had previously not been attempted; he became the creator of a standard prose, which was so rich and refined and so eminently suited to the genius of the Latin language that it was impossible to surpass it in subsequent centuries. . . . The real business of his life Cicero exhibits in his speeches, where indeed his talent shows to the greatest advantage. His speeches were carefully prepared beforehand and generally edited subsequent to their delivery. The knowledge and experience gained in this career were utilised by him in his rhetorical treatises. His theoretic composition he also extended to other fields, first to political science, then to ethics, and the philosophy of religion, and he even attempted the simpler parts of theoretic philosophy. Besides all this, his extensive personal connections and the habit of thinking pen in hand led to a very voluminous correspondence. . . . Hence he succeeded, as is now universally admitted, in gaining a place beside Demosthenes, or at all events immediately after him, though he does not come up to the moral earnestness and consequent impressiveness of the Attic orator. But Cicero surpasses him in variety and splendour, where he is more akin to the Asiatic School than to the Attic. He commands such abundance of words as sometimes to become diffuse, though often, where he is verbose, it is to cover the weakness of his arguments. His great strength lies in his style; it is clear, refined, concise and apt, perspicuous, elegant and brilliant." —W. S. Teuffel, *History of Roman literature, v.* 1, *pp.* 277, 281.—"The works of Cicero must be classified as follows:—A. Orations—We still possess fifty-seven orations, and fragments of about twenty others. . . . *Orations against Verres* belong to the year B. C. 70. . . . *De Imperio Cn. Pompei,* sometimes called *Pro Lege Manilia,* is a splendid speech, delivered in B. C. 66, when Cicero was prætor, in support of a bill proposed by C. Manilius, tribune of the plebs, who proposed that the command against Mithradates should be given to Pompey. Cicero's praise of Pompey is somewhat overdone. . . . Three speeches, *De Lege Agraria,* against P. Servilius Rullus . . . are the first speeches delivered by Cicero in his consulship, B. C. 63. In them he combats the reckless proposal of the tribune Servilius Rullus, to appoint a commission of ten men, with unlimited power, for the purpose of purchasing and distributing lands in Italy. . . . [The first of the four speeches *In L. Catilinam* were] delivered in the senate on the 7th of November, B. C. 63, and in it Cicero boldly attacks Catiline, and shows that he is acquainted with all his proceedings. The second was delivered on the day following to the people, whom Cicero informs of Catiline's sudden departure, and of what had taken place in the senate. The third was addressed to the people on the 3rd of December, and told them of the arrest of the conspirators who had remained in the city. The fourth was addressed to the senate on the 5th of December, during the discussion as to what punishment should be inflicted on the prisoners. Cicero inclines to the opinion that they should be put to death. *Pro L. Murena* was delivered in B. C. 63, about the same time that Cicero attacked Catiline. It is a defence of Murena, consul-elect, who was accused of bribery. The speech is excellent, composed in a playful tone, and full of witty allusions to jurisprudence and the Stoic philosophy. *Pro Cornelio Sulla* belongs to B. C. 62, and is a very successful defence of Sulla against the charge of having been an accomplice in the Catilinarian conspiracy. *Pro Archia,* delivered in B. C. 62, is a defence of the poet Archias, who was accused of having illegally usurped the rights of a Roman citizen. . . . Fourteen *Orationes Philippicæ,* delivered in the years B. C. 44 and 43. They are speeches against M. Antony, and are called Philippicæ because of their resemblance to the speeches which Demosthenes had delivered at Athens against King Philip of Macedonia. . . . The following is a list of his extant rhetorical works. . . . *De Oratore,* in three books, was written in B. C. 55, in the form of dialogues among the most illustrious orators of former days, supposed to have taken place in B. C. 91. . . . *Brutus* or *De Claris Oratoribus,* written in B. C. 46, is a valuable history of Roman oratory; it is rich in historical materials and delineations of historical characters, at the same time showing the course of training through which Cicero himself had passed. . . . *Orator ad M. Brutum,* describes what Cicero considered the beau ideal of an orator. . . . Cicero himself in his work *De Divinatione* enumerates his philosophical treatises. The following is a list of those still extant. . . . *De Re Publica,* was commenced in B. C. 54, and published three years later, just before his departure for Cilicia. . . . *De Legibus,* in six books, was probably commenced in B. C. 52, immediately after the publication of *De Re Publica,* to which it forms a natural sequel. . . . *De Finibus Bonorum et Malorum,* in five books, was composed during the first half of the year B. C. 45, and dedicated to Brutus. It is preserved entire, and the care with which it has been composed entitles it to be regarded as the best of Cicero's philosophical works. . . . Cicero himself preferred the system of the Academics, and his *Academica* are to us the chief source of information about that school of philosophy. . . . *De Natura Deorum,* in three books, was commenced in B. C. 45, and completed in the following year. . . . *De Divinatione,* in two books, is properly the complement to *De Natura Deorum,* treating of the revelations made by the gods and their apprehension by man. . . . Cicero alsó attempted to write history, and seems to have thought that, if he persevered, he might become an eminent historian. He possessed, indeed, an immense amount of historical knowledge, but his oratorical powers, and his inability to look at things objectively, would have proved a great hindrance. . . . As it is he wrote historical works only on his own consulship. [See also HISTORY: 15]. . . . The collection of letters *Ad Familiares* consists of sixteen books, and extends over the period from B. C. 63 until the year of Cicero's death. . . . The collection of letters *Ad Atticum,* in sixteen books, extends over the period from B. C. 68 till a few months before Cicero's death. . . . There is a third collection of letters, *Ad Quintum Fratrem,* in three books, extending over six years, from B. C. 60 to B. C. 54. A fourth collection, lastly, consists of a *correspondence between Cicero and M. Brutus,* in two books. . . . Cicero seems to have acquired a taste for poetry when he studied under the poet Archias. But his attempts in this direction were little more than youthful exercises, which beyond their versification, in which Cicero must have had great facility, were of little value, and certainly did not increase his reputation."—L. Schmitz, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 65-77, 79-81.

"C. Valerius Catullus of Verona (a. 667/87-c. 700/54) is the greatest lyric poet of Roman literature. Though he followed at first the track of the Alexandrine poets, he subsequently developed in the most varied forms a rich lyric talent, which was ripened by his bitter experience of life and his love for Lesbia. He is one of the few Romans to whom poetry was a necessity of their being; he was

LATIN LITERATURE, B. C. 82-43

and could be nothing but a poet. His early death prevented him from attaining to consummate excellence, maturity, and unblemished beauty; he remained a youth, passionate both in love and hatred, hot-blooded and reckless, unreserved in his attachments and intensely sensitive, ideal and yet coarse, tender and yet venomous, boldly spurning the bars of manners and modesty, a loyal loveable child of nature. But the directness with which the poet reveals his whole richly gifted temperament delights and fascinates his reader. The larger Catullus' poems are (with the exception of c. 61), the less they are successful, and the poet does not handle dactylic metres quite easily: on the other hand he is masterly in the lighter lyrical forms. The harmony of substance and form, the refinement and transparent clearness of the thoughts are incomparable, as are the grace, strength and warmth of feeling in the shorter pieces, especially his hendecasyllabics and iambics, which springing from the mood of the moment evidence the true nobility of a born poet."—W. S. Teuffel, *History of Roman literature, v.* 1, *p.* 391.—"Catullus is in some ways the most enigmatical of the great poets. For one thing, we know very little of the order of his poems; he brought out his works himself in one volume, in an entirely arbitrary arrangement. He put the lyrics first, the long poems in the middle, and the epigrams in elegiacs at the end. . . . Catullus's place in literature is harder to determine than his place in chronology: he seems to have no precursors, and hardly any successors. All the poetry that can be said in any sense to belong to his school is included in the narrow circle of the appendix to Vergil. . . . He translates or imitates the idyl of enchantments from Theocritus, who also supplies the model of an epithalamium—which, unlike the other, has reached us. Catullus even composes a very complete and musical miniature epic or heroic idyl—of the orthodox Alexandrine pattern—on the marriage of Peleus and Thetis. But none of these belong to his most characteristic work: none appeal to the inner circle of admirers, who are the best judges of a poet. There is no Alexandrine precedent for the hendecasyllabics or iambics, for the poems to Lesbia, or the Roman Epithalamium, or the 'Attis.' "—G. A. Simcox, *History of Latin literature from Ennius to Boethius, v.* 1, *pp.* 107-109.—"It is hardly an exaggeration to say that the Rome of Cicero is as familiar to modern English readers as the London of Queen Anne, to readers in modern France as the Paris of Louis Quatorze. . . . Yet in the very centre of this brilliantly lighted world, one of its most remarkable figures is veiled in almost complete darkness [**T. Lucretius Carus,** 95-51 B. C.]. The great poem of Lucretius, *On the Nature of Things,* though it not only revealed a profound and extraordinary genius, but marked an entirely new technical level in Latin poetry, stole into the world all but unnoticed; and of its author's life, though a pure Roman of one of the great governing families, only one or two doubtful and isolated facts could be recovered by the curiosity of later commentators. . . . In the *De Rerum Natura* we are brought face to face not only with an extraordinary literary achievement, but with a mind whose profound and brilliant genius has only of late years, and with the modern advance of physical and historical science, been adequately recognised. The earliest Greek impulse in Latin poetry had long been exhausted; and the fashion among the new generation was to admire and study beyond all else the Greek poets of the decadence, who are generally, and without any substantial injustice, lumped together by the name of the Alexandrine school. The common quality in all this poetry was its great learning, and its remoteness from nature. . . . Not unaffected by this fashion of the day, but turning from it to older and nobler models—Homer and Empedocles in Greek, Ennius in Latin—Lucretius conceived the imposing scheme of a didactic poem dealing with the whole field of life and nature as interpreted by the Epicurean philosophy. He lived to carry out his work almost to completion. . . . Inscriptions of the last century of the Republic show that the saturnian still lingered in use side by side with the rude popular hexameters which were gradually displacing it; and the *Punic War* of Naevius was still a classic. Lucretius' choice of the hexameter, and his definite conquest of it as a medium of the richest and most varied expression, placed the matter beyond recall. The technical imperfections which remained in it were now reduced within a visible compass; its power to convey sustained argument, to express the most delicate shades of meaning, to adjust itself to the greatest heights and the subtlest tones of emotion, was already acquired when Lucretius handed it on to Virgil."—J. W. Mackail, *Latin literature, pp.* 39-42, 50-51.—"Cicero and Cæsar, Lucretius and Catullus are the four great names of Roman literary tradition between the beginning of the First Century before Christ and the final establishment of the Roman Empire. There were other writers during the last half-century of the Republic; but in general we may consider them either as virtually negligible, like Cornelius Nepos, or as substantially lost, like Terentius Varro, whose Menippean Satires exist hardly more than in name. The only secondary Latin author of this period whom we cannot quite neglect here is **Sallust** [86-34 B. C. (see HISTORY: 17)]. His two surviving monographs—one about Catiline, the other about Jugurtha—are at once the first examples we possess of serious historical writing in Latin, and implicitly indicate the persistence through these crashing years of characters neither so dominantly active as Cicero or Cæsar nor so passionately sensitive as their contemporary poets. The personal history of Sallust, so far as it is known is creditable only to his practical intelligence. . . . Favoured by Cæsar, he so enriched himself with the spoils of African provinces that the splendour of his Roman villa—the Gardens of Sallust—has never been quite forgotten by legend; and here, while Antony and Octavian, not yet Augustus, were plotting and struggling for mastery of the world, he passed his later years in magnificent and luxurious literary leisure. The most considerable fruits of this were five Books of Histories, believed to have been concerned with what happened throughout the Roman dominions during the years which ensued on the death of Sylla. Of these only fragments remain. His monographs on the conspiracy of Catiline, however, and on the African wars with Jugurtha some fifty years earlier, are preserved intact. In manner and in temper they are curiously unlike what we know of the self-seeking and self-made millionaire who wrote them. It is generally agreed that he modelled his literary methods on those of Thucydides. First among the Romans, accordingly, he wrote history as if it were not so much a mere record of fact as a sound basis for reflection and reasoning. Himself a partisan, he more than probably gave a partisan turn to his work, intending rather that his readers should think with him than that they should think rightly. Like Thucydides, however, he had the art—or perhaps better he learned from Thucydides the art—of seeming to write dispassionately. In consequence, when you read his clear though never quite great

LATIN LITERATURE, B. C. 43-A. D. 14

narrative, you find yourself quietly disposed to believe what he says, and never either excited or repelled by the intensity of his partisan feeling. He can deal with actualities as if he stood grandly aloof from them—which is perhaps the most subtle method of leading the doubtful unwittingly to agree with you. So his Catiline and his Jugurtha, who lived and plotted and fought and died, have been throughout the centuries the Catiline and the Jugurtha of European tradition."—B. Wendell, *Traditions of European literature, from Homer to Dante, pp.* 219-221.—"It were idle to trace the the Greek influence at Rome beyond the great authors of the Golden Age. With these it culminated and, broadly speaking, ceased. To subsequent authors the literary heritage was neither Greek nor Latin, but Graeco-Roman, and this influence was not merely potent in the case of strictly Roman authors but among later Greek authors as well. When we analyze the style of a Tacitus, a Seneca, a Quintilian, a Pliny, we are led back not to Greek but to Roman sources."—G. Lodge, *Greek influence upon Latin literature, p.* 295.

B. C. 43-A. D. 14.—Augustan Age.—Chief characteristics.—Literary cirles.—Livy, chief prose writer.—Poetry of Virgil, Horace, Tibullus, Propertius and Ovid.—Prose writers during reign of Tiberius.—Phædrus, the fabulist.—"The Augustan Age, regarded as a critical epoch in the history of the world, extends from the date of the battle of Actium, when Octavianus became undisputed master of the world, to his death in the year 14 A. D. But the age known by that name as a great epoch in the history of literature begins some years earlier, and ends with the death of Livy and Ovid in the third year of the following reign. Of the poets belonging to that age whose writings have reached modern times—Virgil, Horace, Tibullus, Propertius, and Ovid—all were born, and some had reached manhood, before the final overthrow of the Republic at the battle of Philippi. The earlier poems of Virgil and Horace belong to the period between that date and the establishment of the Empire. The age of the Augustan poets may accordingly be regarded as extending from about the death of Julius Caesar in 44 B. C. to the death of Ovid 17 A. D. The whole of this period was one of great literary activity, especially in the department of poetry. Besides the writers just mentioned, several others were recognised by their contemporaries as poets of high excellence, though there is no reason to doubt that the works which have reached our time were the most distinguished by original genius and finished execution."—W. Y. Sellar, *Roman poets of the Augustan Age, p.* 1.—"The Augustan period presents a twofold aspect, in that it contains the decay of the old and the formation of the new institutions, the death of the Republic and the development of the Monarchy. . . . The official hypocrisy, which continued the old forms and names in spite of the complete change of their meaning, diffused a spirit of untruth through the upper classes and through the literature of the time; this was further increased by the empty declamation, which began to take the place of oratory. Another result of the hypocritical character of the government appears in the increased sensitiveness of the ruler himself as to unwelcome revelations, and in the exertions made by him to bury the past in oblivion and consolidate the new institutions. Owing to these tendencies, literature was partly circumscribed, partly degraded to a servile 'instrumentum regni.' Oratory suffered most under these conditions. The restrictions, which weighed upon it even under Caesar, became permanent and continually heavier. . . . The other branch of literature which had attained a high perfection under the Republic, namely historical composition, likewise suffered seriously. . . . Contemporary history was impeded by the cessation of publicity and the sequestration of public documents. To a still greater extent the possibility of pronouncing unbiased judgments on historical characters was reduced. Hence writers selected subjects removed by time or locality. . . . As concerns Jurisprudence, Augustus succeeded in gaining it for the Monarchy by rendering the right of giving jurisdicial consultations (until then merely left to the confidence of the public) dependent on the consent of the prince. . . . In the possession of these privileges, the jurists devoted themselves to the cultivation of their science. . . . The extinction of public political life was still more favorable to the development of art-poetry and erudition. Whereas formerly the Romans had admitted literary activity only in the second rank to fill up their otium, now that the negotia of the Republican time had been so greatly reduced, it became with many a serious life-task. Poetry especially was now zealously studied as an art, and Hellenic finish was a regular requirement. The form of the poems became of greater importance, as the range of subjects was narrowed deliberately or under compulsion and subjected to various limitations. . . . Independently of this general assistance derived from the existing political situation, the representatives of the new school of poetry were also assisted by the rulers themselves, partly from dilettantism, partly from political calculation. Augustus did not forget to encourage the poets, and his favourites became the centres of literary circles which, though not without rivalry and quarrels, were held together and influenced by their common relations to Augustus. First of these should be mentioned the circle of Maecenas, in which Horace was not the oldest, but the most distinguished member on account of his independent character, acute mind and poetical talent. Other members of the same circle were Vergil and L. Varius, . . . and at a later time, when Horace had almost entirely withdrawn from Rome, Propertius, who is never mentioned by Horace, joined it. This whole circle was decidedly in favour of the existing government, and all its members were gradually imbued with these views. The circle of Messalla was less forward in politics, and in the writings of the principal member of it, Tibullus, the name of Augustus does not occur a single time. . . . Among the various branches of poetry, epic poetry was especially cultivated and perfected by Vergil, together with the kindred branches of didactic poetry and idylls. In reference to contemporary events, epic poetry naturally assumed a panegyric character. Satire was regenerated by Horace, but, constrained by circumstances to eschew political hostilities, it was soon limited to personal, literary and social subjects and soon afterwards disappeared from the arena altogether, though the poetical epistles of a later period were merely an innocent reproduction of it: in the former product of his earlier, and in the latter product of his riper years, Horace produced by far his best work. He himself indeed set a higher value on his lyrical (melic) poetry. But however much we may recognise in this masterly method and fine artistic perception, extensive culture, mature judgment, etc., yet all this skill could not compensate for the want of lyrical feeling and creative power.—Elegy was developed with much success; here the Romans were at least the equals of their Greek models. Cornelius Gallus was the first to cultivate erotic elegy, and Tibullus sub-

sequently imparted to his poems the lucidity and loveliness of the productions of the Greek mind. Propertius enriched this department by his vigour and versatility in the poetry of passion, and in Ovid we meet with a graceful ease and perfection of form which seem to vie with the naughtiness of the contents. The drama, however, no longer prospered. Tragedy in the hands of contemporary poets became erudite. . . . Even prose lost ground in this period. Livy, indeed, was a writer of the first rank, as far as style is concerned; but even in him, a certain poetical colouring of his style showed a marked deviation from the Ciceronian standard, which indicated the approach of the silver age."—W. S. Teuffel, *History of Roman literature, v.* 1, *pp.* 403-408, 410-411.—"No Augustan prose-writer is for a moment comparable with Livy [T. Livius, 59 B. C.-17 A. D.]. His prose-epic is own sister to the *Aeneid*. Not even in Virgil has the greatness of the Roman character found a more dignified or more lasting monument than in the colossal ruins of Livy's history. . . . At Rome, Livy's taste for philosophy and rhetoric produced sundry minor works. For example, dialogues semi-philosophical and semi-historical are mentioned by L. Seneca. . . . Soon after 27 B. C. it is clear that he was engaged on the great work of his life—the narration of the history of Rome from the beginning to his own times. . . . The work was given to the world—like Gibbon's—in instalments, and brought Livy wide renown."—J. W. Duff, *Literary history of Rome, pp.* 637, 639-640.—See also HISTORY: 15; 17; ANNALS: Roman.

"Publius Vergilius Maro was born at the village of Andes near Mantua, on the 15th of October, 70 B. C. . . . Virgil's father was a small freeholder in Andes, who farmed his own land, practised forestry and bee-keeping, and gradually accumulated a sufficient competence to enable him to give his son—an only child, so far as can be ascertained—the best education that the times could provide. . . . For the next ten years we know nothing of Virgil's life which no doubt was that of a profound student."—J. W. Mackail, *Latin literature, pp.* 91-92.—"After the battle of Philippi, the first task of the victorious triumvirs was to provide for the disbanding and settlement of the immense armies which had been raised for the civil war. The lands of cities which had taken the Republican side were confiscated right and left for this purpose; among the rest, Virgil's farm, which was included in the territory of Cremona. But Virgil found in the administrator of the district, Gaius Asinius Pollio, himself a distinguished critic and man of letters, a powerful and active patron. . . . Virgil was compensated by an estate in Campania, and introduced to the intimate circle of Octavianus, who, under the terms of the triumvirate, was already absolute ruler of Italy. It was about this time that the *Eclogues* were published, whether separately or collectively is uncertain, though the final collection and arrangement, which is Virgil's own, can hardly be later than 38 B. C. The impression they made on the world of letters was immediate and universal. . . . The poems destined to so remarkable a significance are, in their external form, close and careful imitations of Theocritus, and have all the vices and weaknesses of imitative poetry to a degree that could not well be exceeded. . . . Yet granted that all this and more than all this is true, it does not touch that specific Virgilian charm of which these poems first disclosed the secret. Already through their immature and tremulous cadences there pierces, from time to time, that note of brooding pity which is unique in the poetry of the world. The fourth and tenth *Eclogues* may be singled out especially as showing the new method, which almost amounted to a new human language, as they are also those where Virgil breaks away most decidedly from imitation of the Greek idyllists. . . . Seven years following on the publication of the *Eclogues* were spent by Virgil on the composition of the *Georgics*. They were published two years after the battle of Actium, being thus the first, as they are the most splendid, literary production of the Empire. They represent the art of Virgil in its matured perfection. . . . Virgil was now, without doubt or dispute, the first of contemporary poets. . . . The *Aeneid* was begun the year after the publication of the *Georgics*, when Virgil was forty years of age. During its progress he continued to live for the most part in his Campanian retirement. . . . The *Aeneid*, carefully edited from the poet's manuscript by two of his friends, was forthwith published, and had such a reception as perhaps no poem before or since has ever found. Already, while it was in progress, it had been rumoured as 'something greater than the *Iliad*,' and now that it appeared, it at once became the canon of Roman poetry, and immediately began to exercise an unparalleled influence over Latin literature, prose as well as verse."—J. W. Mackail, *Latin literature, pp.* 92-95, 97-98.—Virgil "was also much in Sicily, and the later books of the *Aeneid* seem to show personal observation of many parts of central Italy. It is a debated question whether he visited Greece more than once. His last visit was in 19 B. C. He had resolved to spend three years more on the completion of his poem, and then give himself up to philosophy for what might remain of his life. . . . A fever, caught while visiting Megara on a day of excessive heat, induced him to return hastily to Italy. He died a few days after landing at Brundisium, on the 26th of September. His ashes were, by his own request, buried near Naples, where his tomb was a century afterwards worshipped as a holy place."—*Ibid., p.* 97.—See also ANNALS: Roman.

—"Brisk, genial, practical, and a lover of society, **Quintus Horatius Flaccus** (65-8 B. C.) presents in many ways a complete contrast to the poet with whom he is so closely associated. . . . He attended Brutus in Asia (43 B. C.), and a year later fought at Philippi. The issue of the battle seemed fatal to his prospects. He returned to Rome (41 B. C.) 'with wings clipped.' His father was dead, his property confiscated. In order to make a living he became a clerk in the Treasury, and at the same time was impelled, he tells us, by 'the courage of poverty' to write verses. The verses in question are represented by the earliest of the *Epodes* and *Satires*. Quick tempered—for these were the days of his hot youth, 'when Plancus was consul' (40 B. C.)—he produced satiric invectives in the manner of Archilochus. At the same time he was attracted by the outspoken and unconventional satire of Lucilius. . . . His earliest productions are characterised by a certain coarseness and personal rancour. The time during which they were produced was not the happiest of Horace's life. . . . Virgil and Varius introduced him (39 B. C.) to Mæcenas, who after a brief interval admitted him to his circle. Thus began a friendship which lasted thirty years. . . . In 35 B. C. he published the first and in 30 B. C. the second book of *Satires*. The *Epodes*, begun, as has been seen, as early as 40 B. C., contain some of his earliest work; but he was long in completing the collection, and it was not published till 30 B. C. This year marks the end of the first period of Horace's literary career. . . . The next eight years (30-23 B. C.) Horace devoted to

LATIN LITERATURE, B. C. 43-A. D. 14

naturalising in lyric metres of Sappho and Alcæus in the Latin tongue. During this period he came to know Augustus, and growing conviction led him to give such support as a poet might to his ideas of national regeneration. With the completion of the first three books of the *Odes* he felt that he had made his bid for fame. . . . At the opening of the first book of the *Epistles,* published in 20 B. C. he announced that he was laying aside 'poetry and other toys,' and was wholly concerned in the study of what was true and becoming. But circumstances required that he should still write lyric poetry. . . The death of Virgil in 19 B. C. left Horace the most prominent Augustan poet. . . . The *Odes* produced in deference to this command were published about 13 B. C., together with others on public affairs and a few more in Horace's lighter vein, as a fourth book of *Odes,* which was dedicated to Augustus. This done, Horace returned to literary criticism in the second book of *Epistles* (12 B. C.) and the *Ars Poetica.* . . . In the *Ars Poetica* he says that, no longer writing himself, he will teach the younger generation how to write. . . . During this final period (20-8 B. C.) Horace stood in closer relation to the Court than before. Indeed, Augustus had expressed a wish that Horace should quit his position as Mæcenas' dependent and become his own private secretary. This offer Horace refused, and his friendship with his patron seems to have remained unimpaired till the death of the latter, followed a few months later by that of Horace himself (B. C. 8). Such is a sketch of Horace's life in relation to his works. In them he appears successively as satirist, lyricist, moralist, and literary critic."—M. S. Dimsdale, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 274-278.

"**Albius Tibullus,** to whom Quintilian adjudges the palm of Latin elegy, was born probably about the same time as Horace (65 B. C.). . . . Tibullus is a melancholy effeminate spirit. Horace exactly hits him when he bids him 'chant no more woeful elegies.' . . . His patron, or rather friend, for he was above needing a patron, was the great Messala, whom the poet loved with a warmth and constancy testified by some beautiful elegies, the finest perhaps being those where the general's victories are celebrated. But the chief theme of his verse is the love, ill-requited it would seem, which he lavished first on Delia and afterwards on Nemesis. Each mistress gives the subject to a book. . . . The rhythm of Tibullus is smooth, easy, and graceful, but tame. . . . In elision he stands midway between Catullus and Ovid, inclining, however, more nearly to the latter. . . . **Sex. Aurelius Propertius,** an Umbrian, from Mevania, Ameria, Assisi, or Hispellum, it is not certain which, was born 58 B. C. or according to others 49 B. C. . . . He unquestionably belonged to Maecenas's following, but was not admitted into the inner circle of his intimates. . . . A careful reader can detect in Propertius a far less well-bred tone than is apparent in Tibullus or Horace. . . . But he is a genuine poet, and a generous, warm-hearted man, and in our opinion by far the greatest master of the pentameter that Rome ever produced. Its rhythm in his hands rises at times almost into grandeur. . . . The elegies that show his characteristics best are the second of the first book. . . . In reading these poets we are greatly struck by the free and easy way in which they borrow thoughts from one another. . . . This custom was not thought to detract from the writer's independence, inasmuch as each had his own domain, and borrowed only where he would be equally ready to give. . . . Of all Latin poets, not excepting even Plautus, **Ovid** possesses in the highest degree the gift of facility. . . . This incorrigibly immoral but inexpressibly graceful poet was born at Sulmo in the Pelignian territory 43 B. C. of wealthy parents. . . . At first he studied for the bar; . . . that he soon abandoned . . . and turned to the study of rhetoric. . . . But in spite of the remonstrances of his friends he finally gave up all active work, and began that series of love-poems which was at once the cause of his popularity and of his fall. . . . His first mistress was a lady whom he calls Corinna. . . . To her are dedicated the great majority of the *Amores,* his earliest extant work. . . . No sooner were they before the public than they became universally popular, combining as they do the personal experiences already made familiar to Roman audiences through Tibullus and Propertius, with a levity, a dash, a gaiety, and a brilliant polish, far surpassing anything that his more serious predecessors had attained. . . . The *Heroides* or love-letters from mythological heroines to their (mostly) faithless spouses, are declared by Ovid to be original importation from Greece. . . . His next venture was of a more compromising character. Intoxicated with popularity, he devoted three long poems to a systematic treatment of the *Art of Love.* . . . The *Art of Love* produced a storm of indignation, and without doubt laid the foundations of that severe displeasure on the part of Augustus, which found vent ten years later in a terrible punishment. . . . Meanwhile Ovid attempted, two years later, a sort of recantation in the *Remedia Amoris,* the frivolity of which, however, renders it as immoral as its predecessor though less gross. . . . During this period (we know not exactly when) was composed the tragedy of *Medea,* which ancient critics seem to have considered his greatest work. . . . While writing the *Fasti* he seems to have worked also at the *Metamorphoses,* a heroic poem in fifteen books, entirely devoted to mythological stories. . . . The *Metamorphoses* were finished before 7 A. D.; the *Fasti* were only advanced to the end of the sixth book, when all further prosecution of them was stopped by the terrible news, which struck the poet like a thunderbolt, that he was ordered to leave Rome forever. . . . This punishment broke Ovid's spirit. . . . Much as we may blame him, the severity of his punishment seems far too great for his offence, since Ovid is but the child of his age. In praising him, society praised itself. . . . What euphuism was to the Elizabethan courtiers, what the *langue galante* was to the court of Louis XIV., the mythological dialect was to the gay circles of aristocratic Rome."—C. T. Cruttwell, *History of Roman literature, pp.* 299-300, 302, 303-310.—"Both Ovid [43 B. C.-17 A. D.] and Livy [59 B. C.-17 A. D.] survived the reign of Augustus. When they died, . . . the great period of Latin literature was at an end. The literary conditions which ensued persisted throughout the Century, and longer. Of these, two or three deserve a passing word. . . . The two prose writers under Tiberius who have not been quite forgotten imply these conditions. Though neither is much read or much worth reading, the names of both have traditionally survived. Velleius Paterculus [c. 19 B. C.-c. 31 A. D.] wrote in two books—that is, on about one seventieth of Livy's scale—a swift, declamatory abridgment of Roman history, which is said to be occasionally brilliant, never solid or trustworthy, and obsequiously favourable to the powers that held sway. Valerius Maximus at about the same time put together an equally obsequious work which has been more nearly popular through the centuries. It is an undigested collection, arranged under numerous headings

LATIN LITERATURE, A. D. 14-117

themselves in no traceable order, of anecdotes and the like suitable for use in rhetorical allusion. . . . The only poet who familiarly survives from the time of Tiberius is more solid. Phædrus, traditionally said to be a freedman of Augustus, put into Latin verse a considerable number of fables, conventionally attributed to the legendary Greek fabulist Æsop. He added others, some perhaps of his own invention. Apart from his compactness, which is generally clear, the most salient feature of his method is that he often begins with the moral of a fable to which he appends the story, much as conventional sermons are tagged on to trite texts. Two circumstances have kept him more or less alive. The first is the accident that fables lend themselves as readily as the anecdotes of Valerius Maximus to the frequent requirements of rhetorical allusion. The second is that by putting into Latin material previously expressed in Greek, he brought the substance of the fable—often a matter of prehistoric origin—into the permanent current of European literature."—B. Wendell, *Traditions of European literature, from Homer to Dante, pp.* 290-293.

A. D. 14-117.—Silver Age.—Comparison with earlier ages of Latin literature.—Seneca, Lucan, Petronius, and Persius, typical of Roman literature under Nero.—Pliny, the elder, Quintilian and Pliny, the younger.—Tacitus and Juvenal.—Statius.—Martial.—"Roman literature had never again such triumphs to show as those won by Cicero in oratory, by Lucretius in didactic, by Virgil in epic, by Catullus and Horace in lyric, by Tibullus, Propertius, and Ovid in elegy, and by Livy in historical prose of the periodic style. . . . Yet there was a large field left open for subsequent writers under the empire. Under verse it is mainly in satire and epigram, under prose it is mainly in rhetoric, history, philosophy, and various special branches of learning, that the Silver Age can claim to produce work comparable to what had preceded. Nothing can eclipse Juvenal for energy or Pliny's letters for social bearing. . . . The prose of Seneca, or the latest prose of Tacitus, original in piquancy as it is with both, must be judged by standards inapplicable to the Ciceronian prose. Like a great proportion of the Silver Latin, it is related to the educational system of the times. The training in rhetoric brought faults in its train; but it had the signal merit of creating such a capacity for the effective use of language in speeches and in writing as probably no official class other than the Roman has ever attained all round."—J. W. Duff, *Literary history of Rome, pp.* 668-669.—"The end of the so-called Golden Age may be conveniently fixed in the year which saw the death of Livy and Ovid; but the smaller literature of the period suffered no violent breach of continuity, and one can hardly name any definite date at which the Silver Age begins. Until the appearance of a new school of writers in the reign of Nero, the history of Roman literature is a continuation of the Augustan tradition. But it is continued by feeble hands, and dwindles away more and more under several unfavourable influences. . . . Among the innumerable rhetoricians of this age one only requires formal notice, **Lucius Annaeus Seneca** of Cordova, the father of the famous philosopher, and the grandfather of the poet Lucan. . . . His ten books of *Controversiae* are only extant in a mutilated form, which comprises thirty-five out of seventy-four themes; to these is prefixed a single book of *Suasoriae,* which is also imperfect. The work is a mine of information for the history of rhetoric under Augustus and Tiberius. . . . But we feel in reading it that we have passed definitely away from the Golden Age. . . . The Latinity of the later Empire is as distinct from that of the Augustan age as this last is from the Latinity of the Republic. Seneca, it is true, was not an Italian by birth; but it is just this influx of the provinces into literature, which went on under the early Empire with continually accelerating force, that determined what type the new Latinity should take. Gaul, Spain, and Africa are henceforth side by side with Italy, and Italy herself sinks towards the level of a province. . . .

The later years of the Julio-Claudian dynasty, while they brought about the complete transformation of the government into an absolute monarchy, also laid the foundations for that reign of the philosophers which had been dreamed of by Plato, and which had never been so nearly realised as it was in Rome during the second century after Christ. . . . The final struggle took place under Domitian, whose edict of the year 94, expelling all philosophers from Rome, was followed two years afterwards by his assassination and the establishment, for upwards of eighty years, of a government deeply imbued with the principles of Stoicism. Of the men who set this revolution in motion by their writings, the earliest and the most distinguished was Lucius Annaeus Seneca, the son of the rhetorician. Though only of the second rank as a classic, he is a figure of very great importance in the history of human thought from the work he did in the exposition of the new creed. As a practical exponent of morals, he stands, with Plutarch, at the head of all Greek and Roman writers."—J. W. Mackail, *Latin literature, pp.* 156, 167, 171-172.—"He wrote on a great variety of subjects, both in prose and in verse, and always with a marked tendency to contemplation and to reflection on nature and the life of man, an inclination to which, in his later years, he yielded entirely. . . . The first place among his prose works is generally assigned to his treatise—*De Ira,* on self-control, in three books. . . . His most important poetical productions are eight tragedies, viz., *Hercules Furens, Thyestes, Phœdra, Œdipus, Troades* (or *Hecuba*), *Medea, Agamemnon, Hercules Œtæus,* and two scenes from a *Thebais.*"—L. Schmitz, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 141, 143.—See also Rome: Empire: 54-64.—"These treat Greek themes entirely; there is absolutely nothing Roman in them. Metrically some change has taken place. The Greek chorus has ceased to have any real part in the play and its place is taken by a number of odes after the manner of Horace, some of them extremely beautiful, but having little connection with the dramatic action. The characters are no longer Greek, to be sure, nor can they be said to be Roman. They are essentially mythical and unnatural. Their speeches are remarkable rhetorical productions, wrought out with extreme care. The horrors are always performed in open view, and the descriptions of incantation, witchcraft, and murder are morbidly terrible. There is great strength in much of Seneca's work, but it is obviously the production of the study, and is intended for recitation, not for the stage. This was inevitable, for under the Empire there was no chance at all for tragedy. Both the habits of the people and the spirit and regulations of the government precluded any freedom of composition. Literature was shackled."—G. Lodge, *Greek influence upon Latin literature, p.* 279.—"We have seen the rhetorician . . . as a moralist in Seneca. It remains to see him as a poet. Son of the youngest of the three sons of Seneca the rhetorician, *Marcus Annœus Lucanus*

LATIN LITERATURE, A. D. 14-117

(A. D. 39-65), was brought from Cordova to Rome (A. D. 40) to receive the best education that the age could offer, and profit by the supervision of his uncle Seneca the philosopher. . . . Rivalling his teachers and surpassing his fellow-pupils he declaimed and wrote, and a considerable list of productions testifies to his youthful fertility. He attracted the attention and was admitted to the circle of Nero. . . . But a quarrel arose between poet and emperor on literary grounds, and the latter revenged himself by forbidding his rival to publish or recite. Lucan went into retirement and occupied himself with the epic of which he had already completed three books. . . . Lucan is better remembered for his characterisations, . . . and for certain memorable lines making particular statements (so that they are not strictly speaking *sententiæ*) in a weighty and pointed form."—M. S. Dimsdale, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 406-407, 417.—"The earliest extant comment on Lucan is thought to have been contemporary. Though he is not named, a lengthy passage in the Satyricon of **Petronius Arbiter** evidently concerns his poem, and by offering a conceivably ironical example of how such a subject ought regularly to be treated —with a flood of allusions, of interposing deities, and the like—undertakes to demonstrate his artistic errors. The work where this passage occurs is different from any on which we have as yet touched. It is a considerable though broken fragment of what must have been a very long and rambling story, such as might now be called a picaresque novel, attributed to the Petronius of whom Tacitus has left us a strong portrait. Its prurient indecencies remain unsurpassed; but so do the facile graces of its excellently pure Latinity, the colloquial freedom of its often literal talk, the poised precision of its incidental criticisms, and the compact realism of its pictures from life. It could have been writen only by a man of exceptional wit, fashion, and culture. Here and there it makes the world of Nero live as vividly as the London of George II lives in the prints of Hogarth. . . . To scholars it must always remain variously and inexhaustibly curious. . . . Whatever its virtues or vices, it seldom touches the springs of human nature. . . . The fourth Latin writer who died under Nero seems, unlike the other three, to have known little of life, of fashion, or of public affairs. Born in comfortable circumstances at Volterra, **Persius** [34-62 A. D.] came to Rome as a boy, studied faithfully, occupied himself with somewhat desultory literary work, and closed his invalid and generally domestic life somewhere about the age of twenty-eight. His six short satires, posthumously published, gave him in literature a reputation never quite lost. . . . They show how a studious, respectable, and never robust young man, whose knowledge came not from experience but from books, was disposed to think when Horatian urbanity was already classical, and the generally Stoic moral commonplaces of Seneca were the fashion. If it had not been for Juvenal, a generation later, Persius might now look larger than he does. Even so he would probably have been held to mark rather a decline of satire from the studied ease of Horace than a step in its progress. The truculent invective of Juvenal has chiefly influenced its later course. Seneca, Lucan, Petronius, and Persius may be taken as typical of Roman literature under Nero. Compared with its condition under Tiberius, they indicate something like revival."—B. Wendell, *Traditions of European literature, from Homer to Dante, pp.* 298-300.

"Disillusioned by the vagaries of the last of the Julian line and sobered by the perils consequent on the discovery that emperors could be made elsewhere than at the capital, the Roman people acquiesced with tempered enthusiasm in the rule of a family of humble origin, whose solid qualities served to offer security for the continuance of settled government. This change of temper is reflected in the contrast which it is not fanciful to discern between the literature of the Neronian and that of the Flavian regime. The former had been brilliant, febrile, aspiring. The latter was painstaking, sober, imitative. The systematisation of literary education and the encouragement of literary effort, implied in the establishment of state-paid teachers of rhetoric by Vespasian, and the institution of public competitions in poetry and eloquence by Domitian, find their counterpart in the attainment of a high degree of technical skill. Yet some reaction against the overstrain of the preceding generation is seen in a diminished rhetorical exuberance, while a temper less sanguine and ambitious is betrayed by a changed attitude towards past literary achievement. Lucan had tried to outdo the *Æneid,* and Seneca had developed a prose style which was the antithesis to that of Cicero. But the Flavian epicists regarded Virgil with the profoundest reverence and paid him the compliment of careful imitation while the most important of Flavian prose writers did his best to inaugurate a revival of the prose style of Cicero. **C. Plinius Secundus** (23-79), commonly known as the elder Pliny to distinguish him from his nephew, earliest of the Flavian writers, was at any rate laborious. . . . His object was the accumulation of facts. He read nothing without making extracts, saying that no book was so bad as not to be useful in parts. As a consequence he left his nephew a hundred and sixty volumes of notes written in a very small hand and on both sides of the paper. The most important results of this industry were a history in twenty books of all the wars of Rome with the Germans, a history of Rome in thirty-one books, which is conjectured to have covered the thirty-one years from the death of Caligula to the joint triumph of Vespasian and Titus (41-71 A. D.), and his only surviving work, a *Natural History* in thirty-seven books. . . . More representative of his time than the isolated collector of facts and fictions was the man who became the official head of the study of eloquence at Rome, a study as highly developed as that of science was inchoate. **Marcus Fabius Quintilianus** was born at Calagurris on the Ebro, probably in 35 A. D. . . . With high ideals of morality and eloquence Quintilian exercised a great influence on the rising generation, some of the most distinguished of which, including the younger Pliny, probably Tacitus and possibly Suetonius, were among his pupils."—M. S. Dimsdale, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 434-436, 439-440.—"His first important treatise, on the decay of oratory, *De Causis Corruptae Eloquentiae,* is not extant. It was followed, a few years later, in or about the year 93, by his great work, the Institutio Oratoria, which sums up the teaching and criticism of his life. The contents of this work, which at once became the final and standard treatise on the theory and practice of Latin oratory, are very elaborate and complete. . . . The body of criticism left by Quintilian in this remarkable chapter is the more valuable because it includes nearly all the great Latin writers."—J. W. Mackail, *Latin literature, pp.* 198, 202.—"**C. Plinius Caecilius Secundus,** the nephew of Pliny the elder, was born at Novocomum 62 A. D. . . . Roman eloquence was now split into two schools or factions, one of which

LATIN WRITERS

LATIN LITERATURE, A. D. 14-117

favoured the ancient style, the other the modern. Pliny was the champion of reaction: Tacitus the chief representative of the modern tendency. . . . One specimen only of his oratorical talent remains, the panegyric addressed to Trajan. This was admitted to be in his happiest vein, and it is replete with point and elegance. . . . It is on his letters that Pliny's fame now rests, and both in tone and style they are a monument that does him honour. They show him to have been a gentleman and a man of feeling as well as a wit and courtier."—C. T. Cruttwell, *History of Roman literature, pp.* 437, 439.—The foremost place among the prose writers of the time of Nerva and Trajan is due to **Cornelius Tacitus.**—See also HISTORY: 17.—"Little or nothing is known about the early life of Tacitus. The year of his birth can only be approximately given as 54 A. D., and the assertion sometimes made that Interamna in Umbria was his birthplace rests on extremely unsubstantial evidence. It is quite possible that he was born at Rome, and we know for certain that he studied rhetoric there. . . . Tacitus' career was at first pursued along political lines. He held some minor office under Vespasian, was quaestor under Titus, and praetor under Domitian. After his praetorship (88 A. D.) he was absent from Rome for some years, possibly serving as propaetor of Belgic Gaul. He returned in 93, the year of Agricola's death, but does not seem to have taken any part in public life during the remainder of Domitian's reign. In 97, under Nerva, he was made consul. A few years later we hear of him as associated with his friend the younger Pliny in the indictment of Marius Priscus for extortion in the province of Africa. After this he retired, and devoted himself exclusively to his literary and historical pursuits. His death probably took place about 116 A. D. His first literary work was the *Dialogus de Oratoribus,* a charming little dialogue on the decline of oratory under the empire. The style, which differs in a striking manner from that of his other works, shows many signs of Ciceronian influence. In the *Agricola* and *Germania,* also of small compass, we see Tacitus tending in the direction of historiography, the field to which he afterwards confined himself. Yet neither of these monographs is, strictly speaking, an historical work. The *Agricola* is an example of encomiastic biography, in which the historical form is adopted only to give the encomiastic element greater effectiveness; while the *Germania,* formally and primarily an ethnographical treatise, seems from its idealization of the simplicity and virtue of the northern people to indicate some desire on the part of the author to reflect upon the deterioration of morals among the Romans. Of much wider scope are the two great historical works, the *Historiae* and the *Annales.* The former, which in all probability originally consisted of fourteen books, was a history of the empire from 69 A. D. to the death of Domitian. Of this only the first four books and a part of the fifth have survived, containing an account of 69 and 70, the crowded years that saw the reigns of Galba, Otho, and Vitellius, and the triumph of the Flavians. The *Annales* (there were sixteen books in all, but the central portion of the work is lost) dealt with the period from the death of Augustus in 14 A. D. to the fall of Nero. It is the author's masterpiece: of prime importance, historically, for its masterly descriptions of political situations, and its subtle analysis of the characters of the great personages of the early empire; of rare stylistic effectiveness from its wonderful compression, the infinite variety shown in the structure of clause and period, and the skillful use of poetic word and phrase."—G. J. Laing, *Masterpieces of Latin literature, pp.* 399-400.—See also ANNALS: Roman; HISTORY: 17.—"With Tacitus, Juvenal (**Decimus Junius Juvenalis**) is associated in more than one respect. Both are masters of satire, though the former is a satiric historian, the latter a writer of satiric poems; both give a sombre picture of the times which they describe, both regret the disappearance of a dignified ideal of Roman manhood. . . . The indications of date in the *Satires* show that they appeared between 100 and 130 A. D. . . . About the *Satires* themselves there is no ambiguity. Juvenal explains in the first why he writes, and why he writes satire. He writes because he is bored by listening to mythological poems, and he writes satire because the age supplies so much material that it is difficult not to write it. Resentment supplies him with inspiration. His subject is the doings of men. If he may not be outspoken about contemporaries, as Lucilius was, he will see at any rate if he will be allowed to satirise the dead."—M. S. Dimsdale, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 496-499.

"Amid the revived politeness of Flavian literature, **Statius** [c. 45-96 A. D.] who appears to have been under Domitian the most fashionable court poet, retold in something like Virgilian manner, the primal story of Thebes on which so much of our extant Greek tragedy is based. . . . And through centuries he had been reverently esteemed for a lofty beauty of sentiment which gave colour to the tradition that he had secretly embraced Christianity. For seven or eight hundred years he was known, as Dante knew him, only by his completed Thebaid, and by the beginning of an epic poem concerning Achilles which he never lived to carry beyond the first lines of the Second Book. Scholars now and then remembered, however, that he had also written occasional poems, much more hastily composed. Early in the Fifteenth century, these were discovered. The Silvæ, as they are called,—the word means *woods* or *thicket,* and implies unpruned luxuriance of growth,—comprise thirty-two poems, mostly in hexameter, but now and then in other metres less firmly mastered. Some of them, notably the first, flatter Domitian monstrously; some describe in detail sumptuously delightful houses, temples, and the like; some are personal—laments for the dead, for example, and an epithalamium; one concerns Lucan, and incidentally refers to the crimes of Nero which even in Domitian's time were conventionally painted very dark in contrast with the bright serenity of benign Flavian sovereignty; and so on. If we lacked other documents on the passing life of Rome under that dynasty, the recesses of the Silvæ might seem less dim. Even as it is, any student of the period must explore them and will not find his pains wasted. But in literature, as well as traditionally, they are incomparably surpassed by the epigrams of his contemporary Martial."—B. Wendell, *Traditions of European literature, from Homer to Dante, pp.* 304-305.—"We do not exactly know the date of **Martial's** birth. It must have been about the year 40 of our era, that is to say while Caligula was ruling the Empire. He was not Roman, nor even Italian by origin, but Spanish, and this merits remark at the outset. . . . At heart he remained a Spaniard; apparently he was also so in appearance and countenance. He tells us that he had a bushy beard, bristling hair, a deep voice, and that he could be recognised at sight as a man born near the Tagus. What astonishes us is that nothing in the characteristics of his talent recalls the coun-

try to which he was so attached. . . . He is one of the simplest and most natural of the writers who survive to us from the whole body of Latin literature. No Spaniard has been less a Spaniard than he in his poems. . . . In 64 Martial, then nearly twenty-four years of age, left his country to go to Rome. It was not a mere journey of curiosity. . . . Martial had the idea of settling there, and, in point of fact, he remained there for four-and-thirty years without returning home. . . . We possess nothing of Martial's save epigrams, and probably he did not write anything else: he seems to have made a specialty of this form of verse. We know that the word *epigram* had among the ancients a much wider significance than it has to-day. It was, properly speaking, a short inscription of a few lines, and it denoted the epitaph on a tomb, or the dedication of an altar, as well as some malicious skit scribbled on a wall. With Martial satire predominates in the epigram. It is scarce more in his case than a few lines of verse, sprightly, vivacious and witty, which humorously tells some anecdote, banters an eccentricity, or cracks a joke. As the interest is mainly in the quip with which it concludes, he prepares his reader for it in advance, and, from the start, all leads up to the final sting. This method of proceeding, which is nearly the same in all, risks making them seem in time monotonous, and when a large number are accumulated, one upon another, the monotony grows still more sensible. Martial, as a man of taste, was aware of it, and so he is careful to apologise for his epigrams. From the outset he frankly confesses that all is not irreproachable in his works: 'There are good things in them, there are middling, there are yet more that are bad.' . . . He is very careful to tell us that he does not address himself to everybody: 'Others write for the multitude; for my part I only aim at pleasing the few'; he wishes to divert men of taste, men of wit accustomed to light conversation, who are not startled at a risky story, who pardon a piece of foolery, if it be but neatly put. . . . It cannot be said that Martial tells us much that is very new about contemporary society; he was not free enough to speak of it as he would have wished; in his position of dependence on the people about him, it was inadvisable to find fault with any one. He is constantly protesting against those who would find malicious allusions in his verses; *ludimus innocue*. So timid a man could not be a very profound observer. For fear of compromising himself he lingers in the commonplaces of everyday ethics; he attacks the misers and the prodigals, those who do nothing and those who do too much; the rich man who permits the belief that he is poor, for fear he may be forced to be generous; the poor man who wants to pass for being rich and at night, to defray the day's expenses, pawns his ring; the insolent upstart, for ever bragging of his fortune; the legacy-hunter; the parasite in quest of a dinner; the poet who assassinates every one in his verses, and so on. These are real and vital figures, but of slight originality and not drawn in strong relief."—G. Boissier, *Tacitus and other Roman studies* (tr. by W. G. Hutchinson), *pp.* 235, 237-238, 248-250.

2nd century.—Marcus Aurelius and Epictetus. See GREEK LITERATURE: Greco-Roman period: Lucian, etc.

2nd-4th centuries.—Historians: Suetonius, Justinus and Florus.—Apuleius.—Miscellaneous writers after death of Marcus Aurelius.—Christian apologists.—"As Pliny supplies a corrective to Juvenal, so **Suetonius** (75-140?) is at once antithetic and complementary to Tacitus. . . . A number of titles of works by him, some of them certainly in Greek, have been preserved by Suidas; though it is likely that several of these titles are those of separate books of his *Miscellanies* (*Prata*), an encyclopædic work dealing with Roman antiquities and scientific subjects. But of all his productions we retain only a part of his *Lives of Eminent Men* (*de viris illustribus*) and the lives of the Cæsars from Julius Cæsar to Domitian (*de vita Cæsarum*). The former work included only men of letters. . . . But it is to the latter work that Suetonius owes his reputation. The lives are far from faultless. They are not like Tacitus' *Agricola* or Plutarch's *Lives*, artistic biographies. On the contrary, they are constructed on a stiff and generally uniform plan. . . . But Suetonius' biographies abound in facts. No work in ancient literature is so closely packed with them. What is more, these facts are carefully verified. As Hadrian's secretary, Suetonius had special facilities for access to documents, and he used them to the full. . . . Moreover his details have their interest and their significance. Sometimes they reveal character not less effectively than analysis. . . . Contemporary with Suetonius, or nearly so, were two historical writers of a very different type. One of these was **Justinus**, . . . [who abridged] the Philippic histories of Pompeius Trogus; . . . the other was Florus **(L. Annius Florus)**, who has left an epitome of Roman history down to Augustus."—M. S. Dimsdale, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 511-514.—"**Apuleius**, one of the most prominent of the African writers who contributed so largely to Latin literature in the second century A. D., was born at Madaura in Numidia about 130. He was educated at Carthage and Athens, and afterwards lived for a few years in Rome. The greater part of his life, however, was spent in Africa, where he lectured on rhetoric and philosophy in many different cities. We gain some knowledge of his private life from the *Apologia*. . . . Of his other works there are extant some philosophical treatises, a collection of excerpts from his lectures, and, most important of all, the *Metamorphoses*, in eleven books. In these he describes the adventures of one Lucius, who, transformed by a magic potion into the semblance of an ass but retaining still such wits as he had originally possessed, met with divers strange experiences. Like the *Satiræ* of Petronius, the work belongs to the novel class, so sparsely represented in Latin Literature, but while Petronius deals with the everyday life of certain sections of Italian society, Apuleius handles mysteries and magic. His style is one of singular opulence of phraseology, interwoven with reminiscences of the poets and showing many highly colored passages in which image follows image with wonderful profusion of detail. It is artificial to be sure, yet, in spite of its manifestly studied elaborateness, has a certain glamour of its own."—G. J. Laing, *Masterpieces of Latin literature, pp.* 472-473.—"For a century after the death of Marcus Aurelius, Pagan Literature at least was practically extinct. Jurists, it is true, there were, Papinian under Septimius Severus, Ulpian under Caracalla. But the statement just made need only be qualified by the mention of Nemesianus who, under the patronage of Numerian (about 280 A. D.) produced a didactic poem in hexameters about hunting (*Cynegetica*), and four pastoral eclogues which owed much to, but certainly did not surpass, those of Calpurnius. . . . The reason for this barrenness is to be found partly in the disorganisation of the Roman Empire. Endan-

LATIN LITERATURE, 4th-5th Centuries

gered by barbarian assaults, it was distracted by internal dissensions. Between Commodus and Diocletian no fewer than twenty-five emperors sat upon the throne. But apart from this, in order that there should be orators and poets, new ideas and new emotions were required, and it was only in Christianity that these were to be found. Towards the end of the second century, men of education, hitherto indifferent to Christianity, began to examine it with more attention, and some of them became its advocates. The third century was the age of the Christian Apologists. They are associated for the most part with Africa. For three of the five, Tertullian (c. 155-222 A. D.), Cyprian (c. 200-258 A. D.), and Arnobius (fl. c. 290 A. D.), Africa was their birthplace and the sphere of their work. Of the other two Minucius Felix (fl. c. 230 A. D.) was a Roman, while Lactantius (c. 260-340 A. D.) was a professor of rhetoric at Nicomedia. These men imported into their writings the vigour of a new faith upon its trial. Yet they remained subject to pre-existing literary influences. Thus the Africans wrote in Latin reminiscent of Apuleius, while the other two followed the Ciceronian tradition revived by Quintilian."—M. S. Dimsdale, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 529-530.

4th-5th centuries.—Characteristics of period.—History and poetry.—Patriotic writers: Saint Ambrose, Saint Jerome, Saint Augustine and Orosius.—Claudian, pagan poet.—Apollinaris Sidonius.—"The character of the fourth century was decided by two circumstances, the official victory of Christianity and the transfer of the Imperial capital to Constantinople. . . . The victory of the Christian religion involved the rupture with the ancient world, but at the same time contributed to save its culture, as the victorious barbarians would have mercilessly destroyed the civilisation of the West, if they had not been restrained by Christianity. . . . Christianity, however, was likewise imperilled by its own victory. Deviations and extremes within its own pale, which had remained unnoticed during the time of common persecution, now became the cause of deep-seated discord and internecine quarrels. A simple confession of faith no longer sufficed: a prescribed dogmatic form of belief was required, and even then faith began to harden into orthodoxy and canonical conformity. The naive and friendly attitude towards the ancient culture, which we find in Minucius Felix and even in Lactantius, give way to conscious estrangement, and a *modus vivendi* was not arrived at until Paganism was completely extirpated. In Latin literature the Christian religion had now reached the epoch of its greatest brilliancy; Ambrosius, Hieronymus [Saint Jerome] and in part also Augustine belong to this century; yet in this department also we find the same intellectual dependence and the same leaning of the Latin on the Greek writers, which had been the weak point in Roman literature from its very commencement. But Paganism also had a Symmachus to set off against those great luminaries. On the whole this period lacked not life, but originality. . . . Historical composition produced only copyists and epitomisers like Aurelius Victor, Eutropius and Festus; a higher flight was attempted only by the worthy Marcellinus. Poetry was treated as an adjunct to prose style and was therefore strongly imbued with a scholastic flavour and indulged in all kinds of artificial inventions, such as centos etc. The numerous Christian poets, the most eminent of whom was Prudentius, failed in the effort to combine the ancient form with the new subjects, especially as the uncertainty of the technical forms was constantly increasing. . . . Polytheism became by degrees practically extinct. Some circles, e. g. at Rome the families of Symmachus and Nicomachus, maintained their interest in the old literature and remained attached to the old faith. But their efforts became more and more isolated and fruitless; Symmachus and Ammianus were the last respectable representatives of the Roman religion in literature. The number and importance of the Christian writers increased in proportion. Above all the figure of Ambrosius stands conspicuous. Hieronymus was indeed unequalled in varied knowledge and literary industry, and the beginning of St. Augustine's literary career belongs likewise to this time. Christianity possessed in Prudentius an enthusiastic and artistic poet, and not long after him Sulpicius Severus and Orosius treated history from the Christian point of view."—W. S. Teuffel, *History of Roman literature, v.* 2, *pp.* 316-318, 378.—"Ambrosius or St. Ambrose, bishop of Milan, flourished from about A. D. 340 to 397. He is the grandest Christian character of the time; he was clever, energetic, and bold, but at the same time unselfish and humane. . . . Among his numerous writings, the most important to us are his epistles and his funeral orations on Valentinian and Theodosius; but he also acquired great reputation by his sacred hymns, in which he adhered more closely to the classical forms than Amasus. . . . His learning, however, was neither very profound nor very extensive, and his greatness lay simply in his personal character. We still possess ninety-one of his epistles, some of which are real treatises, . . . *e. g.*, that against Symmachus' proposal to restore the altar of Victory. His twelve hymns are composed in iambic dimeters, and the lines are often rhyming. These hymns became so popular that afterwards all similar compositions, such as the famous 'Te Deum Laudamus,' were called Ambrosian hymns. His other works are of a strictly theological and polemical character. . . . Hieronymus, commonly called St. Jerome, was a much more learned defender of Christianity, and at the same time a much more acute thinker and dialectician. He was born, A. D. 331, at Stridon, on the frontier of Dalmatia and Pannonia, and received instruction from Marius Victorinus, Donatus, and at Constantinople from Gregorius of Nazianzus. He was equally versed in Greek and Hebrew as in Latin. He is the author of an immense number of works, of which he himself gives us a list, from which it is evident that he must have been a man of most extraordinary mental activity. Most of his works seem to have been written at a monastery near Bethlehem, whither he retired in A. D. 381, and where he died, A. D. 420. Among his works we must here notice:—1. *His Translation of the Old and New Testament,* a real master-work of the kind, which completely eclipsed the earlier translation, and still forms the foundation of the Vulgate. 2. *His Translation of the Chronicle of Eusebius,* with interpolations and a continuation; it is dedicated to Valentius and Gallienus. . . . 3. *De Viris Illustribus,* is a history of all the Christian writers down to his own time, and thus forms a complete history of Christian literature. It was written in A. D. 392. 4. *Epistolæ,* which extend over the long period from A. D. 370 to the end of his life, in 420."—L. Schmitz, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 222-223.—See also History: 18; 19; Bible, English: 7th-8th centuries.

"At the close of the 4th and the beginning of the 5th century we have a few writers, among whom Claudian is the most important Pagan and St. Augustine the most prominent Christian author.

Though belonging by birth to the Grecised East, **Claudius Claudianus** wrote principally in Latin, and had studied the poets of the classical age so profoundly that he handles their diction and metres with perfect mastery. Claudian, whose command of poetic form entitles him to rank in the rear-guard of the best school, reminds us of Statius likewise in his command of phraseology and his flattery of the great, but far surpasses him in depth, in fertility and wealth of imagination and in his varied range of topics. . . . Not merely among the Patristic writers, not only in his own time, is the African **Aurelius Augustinus** (a. 354-430) conspicuous for intellectual power and far-reaching influence. After a stormy youth he was during nine years an adherent of the Manichaean heresy and professor of rhetoric in Africa, at Rome and at Milan; but Ambrosius a. 386 gained him over to a deeper understanding of Christianity, and he subsequently became presbyter in his native place, Hippo, a. 392 and bishop about 395. Augustine's character combined qualities seemingly opposite: an exuberant imagination and penetrating acumen, passionate impulsiveness and affectionate tenderness, largeheartedness and intolerance, a blind belief in authority and originality of thought, zealotry where the unity of the Church was at stake, and deeply personal piety, romanticism and scholasticism, enthusiasm and sophistry, poetical along with philosophical talent, rhetorical pathos along with the grammarian's pedantry. Himself a psychological enigma and drawn into errors by his hot blood, Augustine was absorbed in the mysteries of the soul's life, and he brought back dogmatic Christianity, which the Eastern theologians had buried in sterile quibbles on theological and christological questions, to the study of man, to the observation of his inner being and the means of his redemption and sanctification. Owing to this double aspect of his nature, Augustine's writings now are devoted to introspection or absorbed in deep spiritual contemplation of the Deity, now again they expatiate in the field of doctrine and combat heterodox opinions with inexorable logic, and sometimes also with sophistical subtlety. To the first class belong his Confessions, to the second his letters, sermons, dogmatic and exegetical treatises and his polemical writings. The diction of Augustine is likewise uneven: mostly over-florid and verbose, but not infrequently logical and precise. Among his best compositions we place the 22 books on the kingdom of God (de civitate dei), a work containing a great wealth of materials."—W. S. Teuffel, *History of Roman literature, v. 2, pp.* 419, 423-424.—"The presbyter **Orosius**, born at Taraco, in Spain, likewise belongs to the early part of the fifth century. Disputes among the Christian sects induced him to go to Africa to consult St. Augustin, and he afterwards became one of the most zealous admirers of the great bishop. . . . It seems that on his suggestion Orosius undertook to write a general history from the creation down to A. D. 410, entitled *Historiarum libri VII., Adversus Paganos*. This history is of course only a brief summary, and its object is to refute the assertion of the pagans that the calamities which came upon the empire were the consequences of the neglect of the old religion and of the introduction of Christianity. . . . Sometimes he does little more than transcribe his authorities; but where he himself speaks he is rhetorical, and delivers his opinions with a sort of priestly unction."—L. Schmitz, *History of Latin literature, pp.* 237-238.—"With the fifth century we are in the midst of the migration of tribes. One country of the West after another was seized and swallowed up by this torrent of populations, the ancient culture perishing with it. . . . At first some, whose culture originated in a better time, showed a purer taste in their works, e.g. Rutilus Namatianus, Vincentius of Lerinum, and Leo the Great. But by degrees literary productiveness ceased, and those who still made attempts were either infected by the prevalent barbarism or, like Salvianus and **Apollinaris Sidonius**, proved by their artificial diction that the literature they intended to continue was already dead. Culture and literature gradually passed into the exclusive possession and custody of the clergy. . . . After the German mercenary leader Odoacer, who had in a. 476 overthrown the last Roman Emperor of the West, was himself conquered (a. 493) by Theoderic, the king of the Ostrogoths (a. 454-526), who then made himself king of Italy with the sanction of the Eastern Emperor, that country enjoyed during thirty years the blessings of peace and order. Boethius, Ennodius and partly Cassiodorus, and Priscian (who lived at Constantinople) wrote under Theoderic. Under his weak successors the kingdom again fell to pieces, and the country was exposed to continual devastations, which destroyed the last remnants of intellectual life."—W. S. Teuffel, *History of Roman literature, v. 2, pp.* 450, 509.

6th century. — Boethius. — Cassiodorus and Priscian.—Close of Roman age and beginning of Middle Ages.—Status of literature in Eastern empire. — Publication of Code of Justinian.—Heritage to future ages.—"In the first quarter of the sixth century there is no greater name in Latin literature than that of **Boëthius** (c. 480-524), the head of an ancient Roman house, and the sole consul of 510, who attained the height of his fame twelve years later, when the consulship was held by his two sons, and when their illustrious father pronounced a public panegyric on Theodoric. Not long afterwards he was arrested on the obscure and mysterious charge of designing to liberate Rome from the barbarian yoke, was cast into prison, and put to death in 524. To his own and to later generations in the Latin world he was the interpreter of all the logical treatises of Aristotle, and it was a passage in his second commentary on Porphyry's Introduction to the *Categories* that gave the first signal for the age-long conflict between the Nominalists and the Realists. A wider popularity was attained by the crowning work of his life, the *Philosophiae Consolatio*, which he composed in prison not long before his death. It is the noblest product of the closing age of classical literature. In this memorable work, which is in the form of a prose dialogue, intermingled with 39 brief poems in 13 different metres, the author has raised to a higher dignity a type of literature which had previously been applied to lighter themes alone by Varro, by Seneca and Petronius, and by Martianus Capella. In the phraseology of his poems he mainly imitates the tragedies of Seneca, while he also has some reminiscences of Virgil and Homer, Ovid and Juvenal. He is familiar with the *Timaeus* of Plato, with the *Physics* and *De Cælo* of Aristotle, and with the *De Diuinatione* and the *Somnium Scipionis* of Cicero. Standing on the threshold of the Middle Ages, as 'the last of the Romans whom Cato or Tully would have acknowledged for their countryman,' he left as his legacy to the coming centuries an eclectic manual of moral teaching severed from dogma and endued with all the charm of exquisite verse blended with lucid prose. Of its numerous translations, some are amongst the earliest literary products of the ver-

nacular languages of modern Europe. His distinguished contemporary, **Cassiodorus**, the consul of 514 and the Secretary of Theodoric, lived beyond the age of ninety (c. 480-c. 575). The early part of his *Chronicle*, extending from the Creation to 519 A.D., is mainly an inaccurate copy of Eusebius and Prosper. A higher value attaches to his *History of the Goths* (533), now extant solely in the abridgement of Iordanes (551). In 537 he published, under the title of *Variae*, the vast collection of his official correspondence. Three years later he retired from public life and, on his ancestral estate among the Bruttii, founded the monastery of the *Viuarium*. For the benefit of its inmates, he composed an encyclopaedic work on sacred and secular learning. In the course of that work he urges copyists and revisers of classical texts to study the ancients, and to correct their texts with the aid of experts in secular literature. While St. Jerome, in his cell at Bethlehem, had set the first great example of isolated literary labour, Cassiodorus was apparently the first to make the cultivation of learning part of the systematic organisation of the common life of the convent, and thus to contribute in no small measure to the preservation of the ancient Classics. The last of the grammarians from whom Cassiodorus compiled his treatise on *Orthography* was **Priscian**, a transcript of whose great work on *Grammar* was completed at Constantinople by one of his pupils in 526-7. . . . Of St. Benedict and the Benedictine rule there is no mention in Cassiodorus, but, more than ten years before Cassiodorus founded his monastery on the bay of Squillace, Benedict of Nursia (480-c. 542), who belonged to the same Anician *gens* as Boëthius, had founded the monastery of Monte Cassino and the ruins of an ancient temple of Apollo. The close of the Roman Age of Latin literature is marked by the death of Boëthius (524), while the Middle Ages may be regarded as approximately beginning with the foundation of Monte Cassino (529), the earliest home of an order which afterwards became conspicuous for its services to learning. In the East, the very same year was marked by the closing of the School of Athens, and the publication of the *Code* of Justinian. Between 529, the date of the publication of that *Code*, and 533, the date of the completion of the *Digest* and the *Institutes*, the legal learning of the past was summed up and reduced to a systematic form, while the old Roman Law of the Twelve Tables was finally superseded."—J. E. Sandys, *Companion to Latin studies, pp.* 691-693.—"Latin is now no longer a universal language; and the direct influence of ancient Rome, which once seemed like an immortal energy, is at last, like all energies, becoming slowly absorbed in its own results. Yet the Latin language is still the necessary foundation of one half of human knowledge, and the forms created by Roman genius underlie the whole of our civilisation. So long as mankind look before and after, the name of Rome will be the greatest of those upon which their backward gaze can be turned. In Greece men first learned to be human: under Rome mankind first learned to be civilised. Law, government, citizenship, are all the creations of the Latin race. At a thousand points we still draw directly from the Roman sources. The codes of Latin jurists are the direct source of all systems of modern law. The civic organisation which it was the great work of the earlier Roman Empire to spread throughout the provinces is the basis of our municipal institutions and our corporate social life. The names of our months are those of the Latin year, and the modern calendar is, with one slight alteration, that established by Julius Caesar. The head of the Catholic Church is still called by the name of the president of a Republican college which goes back beyond the beginnings of ascertained Roman history. The architecture which we inherit from the Middle Ages, associated by an accident of history with the name of the Goths, had its origin under the Empire, and may be traced down to modern times, step by step, from the basilica of Trajan and the palace of Diocletian. These are but a few instances of the inheritance we have received from Rome. But behind the ordered structure of her law and government, and the majestic fabric of her civilisation, lay a vital force of even deeper import; the strong grave Roman character, which has permanently heightened the ideal of human life. It is in their literature that the inner spirit of the Latin race found its most complete expression. In the stately structure of that imperial language they embodied those qualities which make the Roman name most abidingly great—honour, temperate wisdom, humanity, courtesy, magnanimity; and the civilised world still returns to that fountainhead, and finds a second mother-tongue in the speech of Cicero and Virgil."—J. W. Mackail, *Latin literature, pp.* 285-286.

Renaissance.—Transition into Italian literature.—Revival of Latin classics.—Their influence. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: Transition from Latin; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Earlier and later Renaissance; CLASSICS.

"LATIN NAME."—"We must . . . explain what was meant in the sixth century of Rome [third century B.C.] by the 'Latin name.' . . . The Latin name was now extended far beyond its old geographical limits, and was represented by a multitude of flourishing cities scattered over the whole of Italy, from the frontier of Cisalpine Gaul to the southern extremity of Apulia. . . . Not that they were Latins in their origin, or connected with the cities of the old Latium: on the contrary they were by extraction Romans; they were colonies founded by the Roman people, and consisting of Roman citizens: but the Roman government had resolved that, in their political relations, they should be considered, not as Romans, but as Latins; and the Roman settlers, in consideration of the advantages which they enjoyed as colonists, were content to descend politically to a lower condition than that which they had received as their birthright. The states of the Latin name, whether cities of old Latium or Roman colonies, all enjoyed their own laws and municipal government, like the other allies. . . . They were also so much regarded as foreigners that they could not buy or inherit land from Roman citizens; nor had they generally the right of intermarriage with Romans. But they had two peculiar privileges: one, that any Latin who left behind him a son in his own city, to perpetuate his family there, might remove to Rome, and acquire the Roman franchise; the other, that every person who had held any magistracy or distinguished office in a Latin state, might become at once a Roman citizen."—T. Arnold, *History of Rome, ch.* 41.

LATIN UNION (1865). See BIMETALISM; MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1822-1919; 1853-1874; 1867-1893.

LATINI, Brunetto (1210-1294), Italian author and translator of classics. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 12th-14th centuries.

LATINS, Subjugation of. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 340-338.

LATITUDINARIANS.—"In the latter half of the seventeenth century there arose in the Church

of England a class of divines who were called by their opponents 'Latitudinarians.' They were generally connected with the University of Cambridge. The appeal which they made to reason in theology laid them open to the imputation of laxness of doctrine. They were genial students of the ancient classical authors. They set a high value upon the teaching of Plato. While attached to Episcopacy, they did not consider that polity among the criteria of a true church. In theology they were in sympathy with the Greek fathers and with the Arminians. They devoted themselves to the attempt to build up a rational system, which might win the adhesion of skeptics and inquirers and promote peace among Christian believers. With Dissenters they cultivated friendly relations, and did their best to soften the asperities engendered in the Puritan controversy and the civil war. As regards the Church of England they manifested the same irenical spirit. They favored a comprehension broad enough to satisfy the scruples of the Puritans, which had so long existed respecting certain points of doctrine and rite. They were stimulated in such endeavors by the mischievous effect of the writings of Hobbes, and the evils threatened by the progress of infidelity. The founder of the school was Dr. Whichcot, whose character is depicted by Burnet in a very attractive light. The most eminent writer of their number was Cudworth, who in his 'Treatise on Immutable Morality,' and in his 'Intellectual System of the Universe,' advocated with profound ability an intuitive theory of morals, presented a noble exposition of the Platonic system, and confuted the different schemes of Pantheism and Atheism. Henry More [1614-1687], the author of the 'Antidote to Atheism,' and other writings, a disciple of Plato; John Norris [1657-1711], who wrote the 'Theory of the Ideal and Intelligible World,' besides numerous other works; Theophilus Gale [1628-1678], author of 'The Court of the Gentiles'; John Smith, whose discourses are 'a delightful mixture of philosophy and poetry,' were connected with this school, in which the philosophical reasoning was often connected with an interesting vein of mysticism. A distinguished preacher and commentator of the same class was Bishop Patrick, whose exposition of the Old Testament is the best-known of his works. The most renowned of the preachers of the Cambridge school was Tillotson, Archbishop of Canterbury. His clearness of intellect, sweetness of temper, and prudence in his high station are warmly commended by all his contemporaries. He was the chief representative of a new style of preaching, in which pedantry and scholasticism of every sort were abjured, and teaching from the pulpit was clothed in plain, correct, and effective English. If the new type of preaching fell below that of the old Puritan divines in the power to rouse the conscience and effect the soul with an awe-inspiring sense of the realities of the supernatural world, it presented the ethical aspects of the gospel in a way to interest the generality of hearers. In London, which had been the stronghold of Puritanism, large accessions were gained by the new preachers to the Established Church."—G. P. Fisher, *History of the Christian church, pp.* 598-599.

LATIUM, OLD LATINS.—"The plain of Latium must have been in primeval times the scene of the grandest conflicts of nature, while the slowly formative agency of water deposited, and the eruptions of mighty volcanoes upheaved, the successive strata of that soil on which was to be decided the question to what people the sovereignty of the world should belong. Latium is bounded on the east by the mountains of the Sabines and Aequi, which form part of the Apennines; and on the south by the Volscian range rising to the height of 4,000 feet, which is separated from the main chain of the Apennines by the ancient territory of the Hernici, the table-land of the Sacco (Trerus, a tributary of the Liris), and stretching in a westerly direction terminates in the promontory of Terracina. On the west its boundary is the sea, which on this part of the coast forms but few and indifferent harbours. On the north it imperceptibly merges into the broad highlands of Etruria. The region thus enclosed forms a magnificent plain traversed by the Tiber, the 'mountain-stream' which issues from the Umbrian, and by the Anio, which rises in the Sabine mountains. Hills here and there emerge, like islands, from the plain; some of them steep limestone cliffs, such as that of Soracte in the north-east, and that of the Circeian promontory on the south-west, as well as the similar though lower height of the Janiculum near Rome; others volcanic elevations, whose extinct craters had become converted into lakes which in some cases still exist; the most important of these is the Alban range, which, free on every side, stands forth from the plain between the Volscian chain and the river Tiber. Here settled the stock which is known to history under the name of the Latins, or, as they were subsequently called by way of distinction from the Latin communities beyond the bounds of Latium, the 'Old Latins' ('prisci Latini'). But the territory occupied by them, the district of Latium, was only a small portion of the central plain of Italy. All the country north of the Tiber was to the Latins a foreign and even hostile domain, with whose inhabitants no lasting alliance, no public peace, was possible, and such armistices as were concluded appear always to have been for a limited period. The Tiber formed the northern boundary from early times. . . . We find, at the time when our history begins, the flat and marshy tracts to the south of the Alban range in the hands of Umbro-Sabellian stocks, the Rutuli and Volsci; Ardea and Velitrae are no longer in the number of originally Latin towns. Only the central portion of that region between the Tiber, the spurs of the Apennines, the Alban Mount, and the sea—a district of about 700 square miles, not much larger than the present canton of Zurich—was Latium proper, the 'plain,' as it appears to the eye of the observer from the heights of Monte Cavo. Though the country is a plain, it is not monotonously flat. With the exception of the sea-beach which is sandy and formed in part by the accumulations of the Tiber, the level is everywhere broken by hills of tufa moderate in height, though often somewhat steep, and by deep fissures of the ground. These alternating elevations and depressions of the surface lead to the formation of lakes in winter; and the exhalations proceeding in the heat of summer from the putrescent organic substances which they contain engender that noxious fever-laden atmosphere, which in ancient times tainted the district as it taints it at the present day."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, bk.* 1, *ch.* 3.—See also ITALY: Ancient; ROME: Map of ancient Italy.

LATORRE, Colonel, president of Uruguay, 1877-1880. See URUGUAY: 1821-1905.

LA TORRE, Carlos de, governor-general of the Philippines, 1869-1871. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1837-1896.

LATOUR, Theodore Baillet, Count de (1780-1848), Austrian general and statesman. Minister of war; murdered by a mob, 1848. See HUNGARY: 1847-1849.

LATRADOS, Spanish men of legal training. See ADELANTADO.

LATROBE, Benjamin Henry (1807-1878), American engineer. Chief engineer of Baltimore and Ohio railroad; showed climbing capabilities of the locomotive. See RAILROADS: 1830-1880.

LATTER-DAY SAINTS. See MORMONISM: 1830-1846.

LATVIA, independent republic proclaimed November 18, 1918. See BALTIC STATES: Latvia.

1918-1922.—Relief work of American Relief Administration.—Jewish relief work. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: American Relief Administration; Jewish relief.

1919.—Answer to proposed peace conference of Allies at Princes' island. See RUSSIA: 1919.

1919.—Expulsion of Bolsheviki. See BALTIC STATES: Esthonia: 1918-1919: Struggle against Germans.

1921.—Admitted to membership in the League of Nations. See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Second meeting of the assembly.

Mythology. See MYTHOLOGY: Slav: Baltic myths.

LAUBEUF, Maxime Alfred (1864-), French inventor. Invented the submersible type of torpedo boat, 1896. See SUBMARINES: 1899.

LAUD, William (1573-1645), archbishop of Canterbury. By order of the House of Commons, conveyed to the Tower, 1641; tried before the House of Lords on a charge of treason, 1643; beheaded, 1645. See ENGLAND: 1629-1640; 1633-1640.

Decree to restrict printing. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1637.

LAUDABILITER, papal bull. See BULLS, PAPAL: 1155.

LAUDER BRIDGE, Scotland, situated in Lauder police burgh of Berwickshire, southeast of Edinburgh.

1482.—Hanging of king's favorites. See SCOTLAND: 1482-1488.

LAUDERDALE, John Maitland, Duke of (1616-1682), Scottish statesman. Commissioner of Solemn League and Covenant, 1643; chief adviser of Charles II. See SCOTLAND: 1669-1679.

LAUDONNIÈRE, René de (died c. 1586), French Huguenot. Sent by Coligny to aid Ribault's colony, 1564; built Fort Carolina in Florida, 1564. See FLORIDA: 1564-1565; 1565.

LAUENBURG, circle in the province of Schleswig-Holstein, Prussia. When conquered by Charles the Great in 804 it was inhabited by Slavic tribes. At first part of the Duchy of Saxony, it became a separate state in 1263. It passed into the possession of the French in 1803; Denmark obtained it in 1815, and the union with Holstein was effected in 1863. It passed to Prussia and Austria after the War of 1864, but Austria gave full control of it to Germany by the Convention of Gastein, 1865. It has been a circle of Schleswig-Holstein since 1876. In 1900, the population numbered 51,833.—See also DENMARK: 1848-1862; GERMANY: 1861-1866.

LAUFFENBURG, Capture of (1637). See GERMANY: 1634-1639.

LAUNAY, Bernard René Jordan de (1740-1789), governor of Paris, forced to surrender the Bastille, 1789; killed by the mob. See FRANCE: 1789 (July): Mob in arms.

LAURAS.—"The institution of Lauras was the connecting link between the hermitage and the monastery, in the later and more ordinary use of that word. . . . A Laura was an aggregation of separate cells, under the not very strongly defined control of a superior, the inmates meeting together only on the first and last days, the old and new Sabbaths, of each week, for their common meal in the refectory and for common worship. . . . The origin of the word 'Laura' is uncertain. . . . Probably it is another form of 'labra,' the popular term in Alexandria for an alley or narrow court."—I. G. Smith, *Christian monasticism, pp.* 38-39.

LAUREATE, English poets.—"From the appointment of Chaucer about five hundred years have elapsed, and during that period a long line of poets have held the title of Laureate. For the first two hundred years they were somewhat irregularly appointed, but from the creation of Richard Edwards in 1561, they come down to the present time without interruption. The selection of the Laureate has not always been a wise one, but the list contains the names of a few of our greatest authors, and the honour was certainly worthily bestowed upon Edmund Spenser, Ben Jonson, John Dryden, Robert Southey, William Wordsworth, and Alfred Tennyson. As the custom of crowning successful poets appears to have been in use since the origin of poetry itself, the office of Poet Laureate can certainly boast of considerable antiquity, and the laurel wreath of the Greeks and Romans was an envied trophy long before our Druidical forefathers held aloft the mistletoe bough in their mystic rites. From what foreign nation we first borrowed the idea of a King of the Poets is doubtful."—W. Hamilton, *Origin of the office of poet laureate* (*Royal Historical Society Transactions, v.* 8).—The following is a list of the Poets Laureate of England, with the dates of their appointment: Geoffrey Chaucer, 1368; Sir John Gower, 1400; Henry Scogan; John Kay; Andrew Bernard, 1486; John Skelton, 1489; Robert Whittington, 1512; Richard Edwards, 1561; Edmund Spenser, 1590; Samuel Daniel, 1598; Ben Jonson, 1616; Sir William Davenant, 1638; John Dryden, 1670; Thomas Shadwell, 1688; Nahum Tate, 1692; Nicholas Rowe, 1715; Rev. Laurence Eusden, 1718; Colley Cibber, 1730; William Whitehead, 1757; Thomas Warton, 1785; Henry James Pye, 1790; Robert Southey, 1813; William Wordsworth, 1843; Alfred Tennyson, 1850; [Alfred Austin, 1896; Robert Bridges, 1913].—W. Hamilton, *Poets laureate of England.*

LAUREL, town of Jones County, Mississippi, northeast of Ellisville. Housing of employees is successfully being done here by Eastman, Gardiner and Company. See HOUSING: United States: Industrial housing.

LAURENS, Henry (1724-1792), American diplomat. Sent as peace commissioner to Paris, 1782. See U. S. A.: 1782 (September).

LAURENTIAN LIBRARY, Florence. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Italy.

LAURIER, Sir Wilfrid (1841-1919), Canadian statesman. Member of Dominion House of Commons, 1874-1878; minister of inland revenue, 1877-1878; premier, 1896-1911. See CANADA: 1890-1896; 1896 (June-July); 1900 (November); 1904; 1917: Coalition government.

At colonial conference in London. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1907.

Speech on Canadian share in British defense system. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909-1910.

ALSO IN: O. D. Skelton, *Life and letters of Sir Wilfrid Laurier.*

LAURIUM, Silver mines of.—These mines, in Attica, were owned and worked at an early time by the Athenian state, and seem to have yielded a large revenue, more or less of which was divided among the citizens. It was by persuading the Athenians to forego that division that Themistocles secured money to build the fleet which made

Athens a great naval power. The mines were situated in the southern part of Attica, in a district of low hills, not far from the promontory of Sunium.—G. Grote, *History of Greece, pt. 2, ch. 39.*

LAUSANNE, capital of the canton of Vaud, Switzerland, near Lake Geneva. See Suffrage, Manhood: Switzerland: 1830-1848.

LAUSANNE, Treaty of (1912). See Italy: 1911-1913; Tripoli: 1911-1913; Turkey: 1911-1912.

LAUSANNE CONFERENCE. See Near East conference, 1922-1923.

LAUSITZ. See Lusatia.

LAUTARO, or Latur (c. 1535-c. 1557), Araucanian Indian leader of Chile. See Chile: 1535-1724.

LAUTREC, Odet de Foix, Vicomte de (1485-1528), marshal of France. Participated in campaigns of Marignano, 1515; governor of Milan, 1516-1522; defeated at battle of Bicocca, 1522; reëstablished French dominion in northern Italy, 1527. See Italy: 1527-1529; (Southern): 1528-1570.

LAUTULÆ, Battle of (315 B.C.). See Rome: Republic: B.C. 343-290.

LA VACQUERIE, town of France, southwest of Cambrai. It was a scene of fighting during the World War. See World War: 1917: II. Western front: g, 3; g, 12; g, 15.

LAVAL UNIVERSITY, French Catholic institution founded in Quebec, 1852.

College library. See Libraries: Modern: Canada.

LAVAL-MONTMORENCY, François Xavier de (1622-1708), French bishop in Canada. See Quebec, Province of: 1672-1689.

Establishment of farm school in Canada. See Education, Agricultural: Canada.

LA VALETTE, Antoine de (c. 1707-1762), French Jesuit missionary in Martinique. See Jesuits: 1761-1769.

LA VALETTE, Jehan Parisot de, grand master of Knights of St. John. See Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem: 1530-1565; Malta, Island of: 1530-1798.

LAVALLE, Juan (1797-1841), Argentine soldier. Fought against the Brazilians in Chile and Peru, 1825-1828; leader of rebellion in Buenos Aires, 1828; opposed to the government of Rosas; head of provincial forces, 1839. See Argentina: 1819-1874.

LAVERAN, Charles Louis Alphonse (1845-1922), French physician. Discovered the malaria parasite. See Medical science: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: Insect transmission of disease; Nobel prizes: Medicine: 1907.

LAVERY, John (1857-), Scottish painter. See Painting: Europe (19th century).

LAVISSE, Ernest (1842-1922), French historian. See History: 32.

LAVOISIER, Antoine Laurent (1743-1794), French chemist, called the "founder of modern chemistry." Appointed associate chemist at the Academy of Sciences, 1768; given a post as farmer-general, 1768; the commission of weights and measures, 1790-1792; had much to do with the introduction of the decimal system; together with twenty-seven other farmers-general he was condemned to death by the revolutionary tribunal and executed, 1794. His works, which have all been published by the French government, include "Sur la combustion en général," "Réflexions sur le phlogistique," "Considerations sur la nature des acides," "Méthode de nomenclature chimique," in collaboration with Morveau, Berthollet, and Fourcroy.—See also Chemistry: General: Modern: Lavoisier's theories.

Also in: T. E. Thorpe, *Essays in modern chemistry.*—C. A. Wurtz, *Dictionnaire de chimie pure et appliqué.*

LAW, Andrew Bonar (1858-1923), British statesman. Entered Parliament as a Unionist, 1900; succeeded Arthur Balfour as leader of the Unionist party, 1911; colonial secretary in the coalition cabinet, 1915; invited by the king to form a new cabinet, 1916, but failed; chancellor of the exchequer in the second coalition cabinet, 1916; appointed lord privy seal, 1919-1921, and was constituted one of the British plenipotentiaries at the peace conference; premier, November, 1922-May, 1923. See England: 1916 (December); 1922 (October-November); Ireland: 1914-1916; Versailles, Treaty of: Conditions of peace.

LAW, John (1671-1729), Scottish economist and financier. Founded La Banque Générale, 1776; acquired control of Louisiana Territory; originator of the Mississippi scheme. See France: 1717-1720; Louisiana: 1717-1718.

LAW.—The following are some of the principal law articles:

Administrative. See Administrative law.
Admiralty. See Admiralty law.
Agrarian. See Agrarian laws.
Assizes. See Assizes.
Bankruptcy and debt. See Bankruptcy; Debt, Laws concerning.
Blasphemy. See Blasphemy laws.
Brehon. See Brehon laws.
Calpurnian. See Calpurnian law.
Canon. See Canon law.
Canuleian. See Rome: Republic: B.C. 445-400.
Civil. See Civil law; Jus gentium; Corpus juris civilis.
Code Napoléon. See France: 1801-1804; 1801-1809.
Code of Hammurabi. See Codes: B.C. 2250.
Code of Justinian. See Corpus juris civilis.
Common. See Common law.
Constitution of the Seventeen articles. See Japan: 550-708.
Constitutional. See Constitutions; Bill of Rights, English; Petition of Right; also after names of countries, e.g. France, Constitution of; U.S.A., Constitution of; etc.
Copyright. See Copyright.
Corpus juris civilis. See Corpus juris civilis.
Criminal. See Criminal law; Public defender.
Dioclesian. See Diocles, Laws of.
Dooms of Ine. See Dooms of Ine.
Draconian. See Athens: B.C. 624-621; Codes; B.C. 7th century.
Ecclesiastical. See Ecclesiastical law.
Equity. See Equity law.
Ex post facto. See Ex post facto law.
Exterritoriality. See Exterritoriality.
Extradition. See Extradition.
Genucian. See Genucian law.
Habeas corpus. See Habeas corpus.
Falkenhayn. See Austria: 1897 (October-December).
Hortensian. See Rome: Republic: B.C. 287.
Icilian. See Rome: Republic: B.C. 456.
Industrial. See Apprentices, Statute of.
International. See International law; International law, Private.

Jewish. See MISCHNA.
Julian. See JULIAN LAWS.
Land. See LAND TITLES.
Licinian. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 376-367.
Lycurgian. See SPARTA: Constitution ascribed to Lycurgus.
Lynch. See LYNCH LAW.
Majestas. See MAJESTAS, LAW OF.
Manu. See MANU, LAWS OF.
Military. See MILITARY LAW.
Mosaic. See CODES: B.C. c. 13th-6th centuries.
Naval. See NAVAL LAW.
Navigation. See NAVIGATION LAWS.
Ogulnian. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 300.
Oleron. See OLERON, LAWS OF.
Plautio-Papirian. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 90-88.
Publilian. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 472-471.
Riparian. See RIPARIAN RIGHTS.
Roman. See CIVIL LAW.
Salic. See SALIC LAW.
Solon. See ATHENS: B.C. 594; CODES: B.C. 7th century.
Terentilian. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 451-449; CODES: B.C. 509.
Twelve Tables. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 451-449; CODES: B.C. 509.
Valerian. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 509.
Valerio-Horatian. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 449.
Wager of law. See WAGER OF LAW.

LAW AND ORDER PARTY, Kansas. See KANSAS: 1854-1855.

LAW COURTS. See COURTS; COURTS, ADMINISTRATIVE; etc.

LAW OF FIVE HUNDRED FLORINS (1816). See NETHERLANDS: 1813-1830.

LAW OF HOLINESS. See HISTORY: 14.

LAW OF NATIONALITIES, Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1868.

LAW OF NATIONS. See INTERNATIONAL LAW; JUS GENTIUM.

LAW OF NATURE (De jure naturae et gentium). See INTERNATIONAL LAW: Grotius and early jurists.

LAW OF PAPAL GUARANTEES. See PAPACY: 1870.

LAW OF THE 22ND PRAIRIAL. See FRANCE: 1794 (June-July): Monstrous law.

LAW OF YEARS (180 B.C.), law attempting to regulate by statute the sequence of official promotion in the Roman Senate. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 133.

LAWES, Henry (1595-1662), English composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1750-1870.

LAWES, Sir John Bennet (1814-1900), English agriculturist. Experimented with fertilizers. See FERTILIZERS: Chemistry applied to soil cultivation.

LAWES, William (1582-1645), English composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1750-1870.

LAWFELD, Battle of (1747). See BELGIUM: 1746-1747.

LAWRENCE, Charles (d. 1760), British soldier. Governor of Nova Scotia, 1755. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1749-1755.

LAWRENCE, James (1781-1813), American naval officer. Served in the war with Tripoli and in the War of 1812. See U.S.A.: 1812-1813: Indifference to the navy.

LAWRENCE, John Laird Mair, 1st Baron (1811-1879), British officer and administrator in India. Chief commissioner of the Punjab, 1853; governor-general of India, 1863-1869. See INDIA: 1864-1893; AFGHANISTAN: 1869-1881.

LAWRENCE, Sir Thomas (1769-1830), English painter.

LAWRENCE, Thomas Edward (1888-), British archæologist and soldier. Served on staffs of General Wingate, 1917, and General Allenby, 1918; adviser on Arab affairs, colonial office, 1921-1922. See ARABIA: 1916 (June); 1919: Results of the treaty.

LAWRENCE, city of Kansas, about forty miles west of Kansas City. It was sacked and burned by Quantrell's guerrillas in 1863. See U.S.A.: 1863 (August: Missouri-Kansas).

LAWRENCE, city of Massachusetts, about twenty-five miles north of Boston, on the Merrimac river. It is the leading cotton and woolen manufacturing center of New England.

1919-1922.—Textile strikes. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1919: Lawrence textile strike; 1922: New England textile strike.

LAWRIE, Charles Edward (1864-), British general. Served in the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 18.

LAWSON AIR-LINER. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1918-1921: Air service after World War.

LAWTON, Henry Ware (1843-1899), American soldier. Served in the Civil War; with the American army that invaded Cuba, 1898; and in the Philippines, 1898-1899. See U.S.A.: 1898 (June-July); PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1899: Armed opposition, etc.

LAYARD, Sir Austen Henry (1817-1894), English archæologist and diplomat. See ASSYRIA: Art and archæological remains.

LAYBACH. See LAIBACH.

LAYSAN ISLAND, northeast of the Hawaiian islands in the north Pacific. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS RESERVATION.

LAZARE, Bernard (1856-1904), French Zionist. See JEWS: Zionism: 20th century.

LAZARISTS.—"The Priests of the Missions, or the Lazarists ['sometimes called the Vincentian Congregation'], . . . have not unfrequently done very essential service to Christianity. [Their Society was founded in 1624 by St. Vincent de Paul], at the so-called Priory of St. Lazarus in Paris, whence the name Lazarists. . . . Besides their mission-labours, they took complete charge, in many instances, of ecclesiastical seminaries, which, in obedience to the instruction of the Council of Trent, had been established in the various dioceses, and even at this day many of these institutions are under their direction. In the year 1642 these devoted priests were to be seen in Italy, and not long after were sent to Algiers, to Tunis, to Madagascar, and to Poland."—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history, v. 3, pp.* 463-465.—The rules, adopted 1655, were framed on the Jesuit model. The congregation, suppressed during the French Revolution, was restored by Napoleon, at the request of the pope, 1804; and abolished by Pius VII, 1809; expelled from Italy, 1871; and Germany, 1873; the total number, 1918, in China, Mexico, Portugal, Spain, Russia and the United States was about 3000.

ALSO IN: H. L. S. Lear, *Priestly life in France, ch.* 5.

LAZARUS, St., Knights of. See ST. LAZARUS, KNIGHTS OF.

LAZICA, LAZIC WAR.—"Lazica, the ancient Colchis and the modern Mingrelia and Imeritia, bordered upon the Black Sea. [From 522 to 541 the little kingdom was a dependency of Rome, its king, having accepted Christianity, acknowledging

himself a vassal of the Roman or Byzantine emperor. But the Romans provoked a revolt by their encroachments.] They seized and fortified a strong post, called Petra, upon the coast, appointed a commandant who claimed an authority as great as that of the Lazic king, and established a commercial monopoly which pressed with great severity upon the poorer classes of the Lazi. [The Persians were accordingly invited in to drive the Romans out, and did so, reducing Lazica, for the time being, to the state of a Persian province. But, in their turn, the Persians became obnoxious, and the Lazi, making their peace with Rome, were taken by the Emperor Justinian under his protection.] The Lazic war, which commenced in consequence of this act of Justinian's, continued almost without intermission for nine years—from 549 to 557. Its details are related at great length by Procopius and Agathias, who view the struggle as one which vitally concerned the interests of their country. According to them, Chosroës [the Persian king] was bent upon holding Lazica in order to construct at the mouth of the Phasis a great naval station and arsenal, from which his fleets might issue to command the commerce or ravage the shores of the Black Sea." The Persians in the end withdrew from Lazica, but the Romans, by treaty, paid them an annual tribute for their possession of the country.—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great monarchy, ch.* 20.—See also Persia: A. D. 226-627.

Also in: J. Bury, *Later Roman empire, v.* 1, *bk.* 4, *ch.* 9.

LAZZI. See Læti.

LEA, Henry Charles (1825-1909), American historian. See History: 33.

LEAGUE AND COVENANT, Solemn. See Solemn League and Covenant.

LEAGUE COURT. See International Justice, Permanent Court of.

LEAGUE FOR NATIONAL UNITY. See National Civic Federation: 1913-1920.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS.—The League of Nations came into existence under the Treaty of Versailles, which went into force, January 10, 1920. The council, the assembly, and the secretariat constitute the League.

Former projects.—"The long path which war has worn through the world's history is strewn with discarded plans for world organization and the preservation of peace. From time to time, either during the conflict or just after its close, men turn their minds to measures of prevention. 'In the contraries of peace,' said William Penn, 'we see the beauties and benefits of it . . . It is a great mark of the corruption of our natures . . . that we cannot . . . know the comfort of peace, but by the smart and penance of the vices of war.' In the past, the desire for some new adjustment of state relations has tended to become quiescent as soon as peace has returned and men are again going about their daily tasks. But many of the proposals for change were committed to printing and were preserved for later study. They form a group of projects and schemes and visions that were never put to the test, and which existed only in the minds of men and in the books written by them. The books which embody these abortive schemes cannot be disregarded, for they trace the development of the idea of peace and of internationalism. When looked at in their proper setting of events, they acquire significant application to present-day problems, and form a background for the League of Nations of to-day. Only a few of the plans can be noted here. They are set forth and commented on at length in Ter Meulen's Gedanke der Internationalen Organisation, published at The Hague, 1917. The first of the schemes of world organization which has been selected for comment is of importance not so much for its own sake as because of the great book which it produced. In 1513 there were not only rumors of war but there was war itself. The English King Henry VIII was at odds with both France and Scotland; France was invading Italy, and just ending a conflict with Spain. In 1514 Wolsey made peace with France, and the Treaty of Bologna (1516) ended the French war with Italy a year after Francis I came to the throne. It was a natural time for propounding a scheme to prevent war, and during these wars one was brought forward by William of Ciervia, and John Sylvagius, Chancellor of Burgundy. We learn about it in a letter written by Erasmus, who says that the plan was to assemble a Congress of Kings at Cambray, to consist of Maximilian the Emperor, Francis the First of France, Henry the Eighth of England, and Charles of the Low Countries. They were to enter into a permanent agreement to maintain the peace of Europe. 'But certain persons,' says Erasmus, 'who get nothing by peace, and a great deal by war, threw obstacles in the way, which prevented this truly kingly purpose from being carried into execution. After this great disappointment, I sat down and wrote, by desire of John Sylvagius, my Querela Pacis, or Complaint of Peace. But, since that period,' he continues, 'things have been growing worse and worse; and I believe I must soon compose the Epitaph, instead of the Complaint of Peace; as she seems to be dead and buried, and not very likely to revive.' . . . Erasmus' Complaint and Wolsey's league seem to have had little effect. When a century had passed, Europe was in the throes of the Thirty Years' War. France had fought her four wars with Austria (1521-1544), and survived her eight successive civil wars (1562-1598); the great Henry of Navarre had come to the throne (1580) and been assassinated by Ravaillac (1610); and Queen Elizabeth had ended her long reign (1603) to be succeeded by James I. Thus was Europe situated when in 1623 a book appeared in Paris which contained the first distinct printed proposal for substituting international arbitration for war. It did not propose disarmament, but provided for a 'Congress of Ambassadors' to act both as an international legislature and a court whose decrees were to be enforced by the national armies. The book is entitled Le Nouveau Cynée, and although both the first and second editions indicate the author's name in abbreviated form, his real name was not known until 1890. Until then bibliographies listed the work under Emery La Croix, a different person from the author, Emeric Crucé, who was a French monk living in Paris, and the author of several other works. . . . Two years after Crucé's 'Cynée' was published, Hugo Grotius, then an exile in France, issued his 'De Jure Belli ac Pacis,' but as this work did not propose any plan of world organization it does not fall within this present study. All unknown to the world there had, however, been formed an ambitious plan conceived some twenty years prior to the publication of Crucé's work. [Whether the "Great Design" was really the inspiration of Henry IV, or the invention of his minister and confidant, the duc de Sully, will never be known; but the fact remains that the memoirs of the latter, published in 1630 and 1662, contain a full discussion.] Throughout the Memoirs, however, are references to the scheme, especially the accounts of conferences

which Sully had with Queen Elizabeth in 1601 and with James I in 1603, for the purpose of enlisting their coöperation in his sovereign's design. According to Sully, or rather, let us say, according to his 'Memoirs' issued by other hands twenty-one years after his death, the design was not only worked out in detail, but about to be put into operation at the time of Henry's death. It was by no means a disinterested scheme, for its principal object was to reduce to impotence the House of Austria. It is, however, conceded to have been the first plan of a comprehensive character for the federation of Europe. After the subjugation of Austria, Europe was to have been divided among fifteen powers, whose commissioners were to legislate as a Great General Council. This council and a system of minor councils were to act as international courts, whose decisions were to be enforced by the national armies acting in concert. Boundary disputes and disputes over the election of monarchs of the Holy Roman Empire were to be settled by arbitration. . . . [Meanwhile England's civil war was fought, followed by the continental wars of Louis XIV. In 1693 Penn published his "Essay toward the present and future peace of Europe."] The merit of Penn's plan lies in the fact that it was disinterested, and not, like Henry's, to be preceded by a political manœuvre. Moreover it was the first to advocate limitation of armament to national needs. He proposed a 'General Dyet, Estates or Parliament' to meet periodically as a legislature and as a court, whose judgments were to be enforced by the combined strength of all the sovereignties. In spite of Penn's logical argument against war and his constructive plan for peace, he was destined to see war continue—in fact to outlive the Spanish Succession War of 1702-1713. He had at least one convert, however, in his friend and co-religionist, John Bellers [who developed further the idea of a confederation of states, and also the idea of an agreement of all religious faiths, a scheme first proposed in the "Great Design"]. Penn had the satisfaction also of knowing that another mind in France had been at work on a similar project. Two years after the appearance of Bellers' pamphlet, in 1712, the Abbé Saint-Pierre issued in Paris his 'projet de traité pour rendre la paix perpetuelle.' . . . The project was an elaboration of the great design of Henry IV, to whom full credit is given by the author. It was, however, so great an advance over its prototype as to merit consideration as an original scheme. It called for a permanent seat of world government, a Congress of Deputies to legislate and act as a court and as a tribunal of arbitration, a generalissimo of all the armies, which, however, were to remain intact, and it now proposed for the first time an international executive, in the form of an Executive Council of five. . . . [The War of the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years' War followed, and in 1772 came the first partition of Poland.] From 1775 to 1783 the American Revolution was fought; and in 1789 the French Revolution broke out. In that year Jeremy Bentham was forty-one years of age, and beginning with the year 1786 he had been writing about international law. His 'Principles of International Law' were, however, never published in his lifetime. Not until Bowring's great edition of 1843 were Bentham's notes edited and printed. On pages 535 to 560 of volume II are four essays on international law 'now first published from the original manuscripts,' which were dated 1786 to 1789. The essays are built up by the editor from notes of Bentham, which consisted of incomplete projected paragraphs, completed paragraphs, and fragments. The fourth essay is entitled 'A plan for an universal and perpetual peace.' To remove the causes of war, Bentham proposed a reduction of armaments and the elimination of the colonial system. For the maintenance of peace he proposed (1) general and perpetual treaties, limiting the size of armies, and (2) 'the establishment of a common court of judicature for the decision of differences between the several nations, although such courts were not to be armed with any coercive powers.' Enforcement of decrees was to be had by public opinion through the press and printed manifestos. As a last resort, a state was to be put 'under the ban of Europe.' . . . In 1795 the Peace of Basel ended for a time the war between Germany and France. It was in this year that Immanuel Kant published in Königsberg his 'Zum ewigen Frieden.' . . . Kant's three constructive principles are (1) that the civil constitution of every state shall be republican, (2) that all international right must be grounded upon a federation of free states, and (3) that right between nations must be limited to the conditions of universal hospitality. He proposed a permanent international congress, representing a federation of states, the abolition of standing armies, and the creation of world citizenship in addition to national citizenship. By 'republican' government, Kant meant constitutional government, with a representative legislative body. The first section of his essay lays down preliminary articles which he thinks are essential as a basis for perpetual peace. Some of them have a familiar sound to-day. They are: 1. No conclusion of peace shall be held to be such, which is made with the secret reservation of the material for a future war. 2. No state having an independent existence, whether it be small or great, may be acquired by another state, through inheritance, exchange, purchase, or gift. 3. Standing armies shall after a time be entirely abolished. 4. No national debts shall be contracted in connection with the foreign affairs of the state. 5. No state shall interfere by force in the constitution and government of another state. 6. No state at war with another shall permit such kinds of hostility as will make mutual confidence impossible in time of future peace; such as the employment of assassins, of poisoners, the violation of capitulation, the instigation of treason, in the state against which it is making war.

"When we enter the nineteenth century, we find no dearth of wars. We find, however, that the desire for world peace has crossed the Atlantic and given itself expression in the formation of the American Peace Society in 1828. This Society was directly responsible for the production of an epoch-making work, which added the element needed to give precedent for nearly every item in the programme of a League of Nations proposed in the year 1919. William Ladd's Essay on a Congress of Nations, printed in Boston in 1840, . . . proposed an international legislative congress, enforcement by good will and public opinion only (armies being used internationally only for police duty); and, as an entirely distinct feature, a Court of Nations, made up of two judges appointed by each state. Henry IV, Crucé, Penn, Saint-Pierre, and Rousseau had given judicial functions to the legislative body, acting as a court. Ladd's plan provided for a separate court. He had been preceded in this conception by Bentham in 1789, but as Bentham's plan was not published until 1843, Ladd could not have been indebted to him for the idea."—F. C. Hicks, *New world order, pp.* 66-74.—See also EUROPE: Modern: League of Nations; NATIONALISM AND INTERNATIONALISM: Development of.

Plans formulated during World War.—In the years 1914-1918 a number of specific plans were worked out, especially after President Wilson's speeches formulating the Fourteen Points. The League to Enforce Peace and the League of Free Nations Association in the United States, the Fabian Society and the League of Nations Union in Great Britain, all advocated similar systems, based on the earlier proposals. General Smuts presented a detailed scheme to the Peace Conference, as did also Senator Léon Bourgeois and Baron Estournelles de Constant on behalf of France; and the German plan, submitted to the provisional government in 1919 by the German Society of International Law, also received some consideration. These plans differed chiefly in the stress laid on equality of economic opportunity, and in the composition of the league organs.

Making of the League at the Paris conference. — Publication of first draft. — Criticisms and amendments.—"One of the first acts of the Conference of Paris was the adoption at its opening session on January 25, 1919, of a resolution declaring that a League of Nations should be treated as an integral part of the treaty of peace, and that a commission of the Conference should work out the details of its constitution and functions. [See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; Course of discussion.] . . . The first important question to be decided by the commission on the League of Nations . . . was: What draft should be adopted as the basis of discussion? . . . President Wilson had prepared at least one draft of a covenant some time before he went to Europe. [See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: 1.] And General Smuts, who was one of the two British members of the League of Nations commission, had prepared, with the collaboration, I believe, of some of the 'Round Table' group, what he called 'a practical suggestion.' By direction of Mr. Lansing, secretary of state, Doctor James Brown Scott, and myself, as legal advisers of the American Commission, had formally submitted a draft early in January, 1919. . . . Doubtless influenced to some extent by the views of General Smuts, President Wilson prepared and had printed at Paris a new draft of his own, which was reprinted a few days later with some changes and additions, and was subsequently made public at the hearings before the Senate committee on foreign relations. Lord Robert Cecil, who was at the head of the League of Nations section of the British delegation, had prepared a draft of his own, and this was the basis of the official British draft. . . . As no other delegation except the British had prepared any detailed draft plan at all, the question which was presented in January, 1919, to Colonel House, who was in charge of the whole matter on behalf of the President, was how to reach an agreement upon a draft between the British and ourselves. With this end in view, Colonel House brought about conferences between Lord Robert Cecil and myself during the latter part of January. . . . The results of those talks were then discussed at a meeting between the British and American members of the League of Nations commission, that is to say, President Wilson, Colonel House, Lord Robert Cecil, and General Smuts, a meeting at which I was present. . . . Several important decisions were taken at that meeting. One of them was that owing to the Italian opposition, it was impossible to attempt to abolish conscription. Another was that the plan should contain a general provision, without specific details, for the creation of a Permanent Court of International Justice. It was also decided that a new draft should be drawn by Mr. Hurst, the legal adviser of the British, and myself, and that any questions upon which Mr. Hurst and I did not agree should be referred for consideration to Colonel House and to Lord Robert Cecil as representing the two governments. As a matter of fact, Mr. Hurst and myself, having before us the results of the previous discussions and drafts, did agree upon a composite draft, which was completed on the day before the League of Nations commission first met. This draft, accepted by President Wilson and submitted by him, became the basis of discussion before the League of Nations commission. Thus it marked the end of the first of the three stages in the history of the Covenant at Paris. The second was completed by the text first reported to the Peace Conference, the one President Wilson brought back to this country in February, and the third by the paper in its present form, the form in which it finally became part of the treaty. This first draft, the Hurst-Miller draft, to give it a name it bore at Paris, was drawn under conditions which made it impossible that it should be wholly satisfactory to anybody. . . . Despite its defects, it was this paper which became the basis of the existing Covenant; which, indeed, with certain notable additions and changes, and after much rewriting and rearrangement, was moulded into the text now contained in the Treaty of Versailles. The second phase of the Covenant comprised its consideration by the League of Nations commission of the Peace Conference, resulting in the report to the Peace Conference of a draft Covenant on February 14, 1919. . . . The final agreement of the commission, its rejection of the proposals which would have sunk the ship and its acceptance of those changes which were necessary to obtain unanimity, were due to the confidence which the representatives of Great Britain, of France, of Japan, and of other less important Powers had in Colonel House, and to the extraordinary influence which he exerted, supported as he was by the authority of the President. . . . The result of the February meetings of the commission was the adoption of a paper having many similarities to the first draft. . . . There was very decided opposition on the part of the majority of the commission to the provisions of the original draft regarding the Council, which made that body little more than a committee of the Great Powers; this opposition carried its point and made the Council what it now is, a body on which four of the smaller Powers are always represented. The French programme for an international military force or staff of some kind met with very little support from other delegations but provoked a great deal of debate. It was as a slight concession to the French proposal that provision was made for an advisory military commission, and that the last sentence of Article 10 as it now reads was added to the text. The guarantees of Article 10 represented the ideas of President Wilson, but he was by no means alone in those ideas. The same principle was expressed in the official British draft; but that draft, as well as the Paris draft of President Wilson, contained clauses looking toward future boundary changes under some form of supervision by the League of Nations. . . . Even when limited to attack by a foreign Power, the territorial guarantees of Article 10, while defensible in principle, went farther than public opinion on this side of the Atlantic [United States] was willing to go. . . . The article about mandates, which is now Article 22, was not written by the League of Nations commission at all, except for its last clauses. It was a resolution which had been adopted by the Council of Ten on January 30. . . . While its idea was bitterly opposed by Mr. Hughes, of Australia, and

although it was not liked by the French, it did not go as far as President Wilson wished; but he accepted it as being a decided improvement over the former colonial system. The ending of this second stage in the history of the Covenant marked the beginning of public discussion. . . . While, of course, the paper was not such as any one delegation, or even any half-dozen delegations, would have written, nobody was seriously disappointed with it except the French, and the reason for their disappointment was that the French attitude, speaking broadly, was different from the attitude of nearly every other country. . . . The French visualized a league of nations as a sort of an extension of the combination of the Allied and Associated Powers by taking in the neutrals. The sole idea to which all French officialdom was devoted, was the idea of safety for France against Germany, and while different views led to great divergence in French thought as to how that safety was to be obtained, . . . there was no serious element of French opinion, except the extreme left, which conceived a league of nations without a background of force. [See also U. S. A.: 1919 (February-March); (March); 1919 (July-September): Discussion, etc.; 1919 (July-September): President Wilson's endeavor, etc.] . . . In the third stage of the building of the structure of the Covenant there was great difficulty in regard to some of the additions and changes that were made; but much greater difficulty in respect of the proposals which were not adopted. . . . The French proposals for some international force, some staff, or at least some international supervision of national forces were pressed to the end. But they were doomed in advance to be rejected. . . . Nor did the Japanese fare better with their amendments for racial equality. [See U. S. A.: 1919-1921.] . . . There was another and less important struggle over the attempt of the Swiss to obtain a special clause recognizing their neutrality. . . . While the Swiss obtained a recognition in the treaty of their special position and while the Council has since passed a resolution to the same effect, the Covenant was not changed to meet the opinion of Switzerland. [See also SWITZERLAND: 1919-1920.] The most vital amendment, from the American standpoint, was doubtless that accepting the Monroe Doctrine. [See also MONROE DOCTRINE: Relation to Covenant of League of Nations.] . . . It was the pressure of American public opinion that compelled the presentation and support of such an amendment by President Wilson. . . . While the British representatives acquiesced, the French delegation opposed the proposal. . . . Another problem which was to be solved was the choice of the four smaller Powers to sit first on the Council. Clearly, one of these should be a Latin-American country, and that meant Brazil; and one should be a neutral, if the League was not to seem merely a successor to the Allied and Associated Powers; of the neutrals, Spain was the largest and the most natural choice. Belgium was certainly entitled to the honor of one of the two other places. For the remaining vacancy, taking into account geographical considerations, there remained in theory nine countries from which to choose, but in reality only six—five in eastern Europe, and China in the Far East. In view of the confidence which Lloyd George and President Wilson had in Venizelos, the five states in eastern Europe meant for this purpose only one, and Greece was selected. . . . The question as to what states should be asked to join the League presented no serious difficulty. Countries with governments not formally recognized by the Powers generally, such as Russia, Mexico [see MEXICO: 1917-1918], and Costa Rica, were omitted. Otherwise, the invitation was quite general. The immediate admission of Germany was favored by America and Great Britain, but French opposition necessitated postponement; provision was made, however, for a possible increase in the Council, so as to permit in the future not only membership in the League, but also representation on the Council of both Germany and Russia. Various changes deemed important by influential opinion in this country were agreed to with comparatively little discussion. Some of them, such as the provision that acceptance of a mandate is not obligatory, the statement that each member of the League has one vote and one vote only, and that unless particularly specified to the contrary all decisions must be unanimous, were merely declaratory. But the withdrawal clause was more important, and its insertion was directly due to the feeling in its favor in the United States Senate. . . . The fear that in the League there might exist some jurisdiction over what have been called domestic questions, though doubtless not justified by the text of the Covenant, was wide-spread in this country. This timidity was not felt by the representatives of the other Powers at Paris. . . .

"Just before President Wilson left the United States for his second visit to Europe, one of his leading supporters in the Senate reported to him that there were six matters as to which sentiment in the Senate favored amendment of the Covenant; and this matter of 'domestic questions' was thought by the senator to be the most important of all. In order to meet this objection, President Wilson proposed a clause drawn by Mr. Taft and cabled by him to President Wilson on March 18. In substantially the language suggested by Mr. Taft, the clause was accepted as an amendment to Article 15. . . . [The question of compulsory arbitration, as it may be generally called, was much mooted at Paris. The neutrals supported compulsory arbitration, and, as in the past, many smaller Powers favored it in principle. But to open up such an issue without at the same time discussing all the difficulties presented by the framing of an International Court of Justice was not possible, and no one in Paris believed that all the Powers would agree to compulsory arbitration in any form. . . . Even after the commission on the League of Nations had ended its labors, the text of the Covenant was not absolutely finished. The British dominions were concerned about their status as members of the League. It seemed to them that the use of the word 'States' in certain places in the text limited their rights, particularly in the matter of eligibility as members of the Council; and this view was correct, for the language had been very carefully chosen in that regard; so the dominions urged that the wording be changed. The question was a difficult one; that the dominions and India should be separately represented in the League had been early conceded; any other decision would have been impossible; and, perhaps now, with a member of his majesty's opposition sitting in the Assembly as a delegate from South Africa, and with Canada openly criticising the wishes of London, no one would deny that it was wise from every point of view; to ignore the importance of Canada as compared with Haiti would be absurd; but while the international status of the British dominions has greatly changed and is still changing, that status could not yet be asserted by any lawyer to be technically that of independent states with a common sovereign. [See also BRITISH EMPIRE: League of Nations.] President Wilson yielded to the wishes of the dominions against the views of

some of his advisers, and whether they were right or wrong, it is certain that Canada, Australia, and the others will never yield that independence of position in the world's affairs which belong to them as a combined result of the war and of the peace. So the Covenant was finished."—D. H. Miller, *Making of the League of Nations* (C. Seymour and E. M. House, ed., *What really happened at Paris, pp.* 398-405, 407, 410-412, 414, 417-418, 422-423).—"In its revised form it was unanimously accepted by the representatives of the Allied and Associated Powers in Plenary Conference at Paris on April 28, 1919. The document that was emerged from these discussions is not the Constitution of a super-State, but, as its title explains, a solemn agreement between sovereign States, which consent to limit their complete freedom of action on certain points for the greater good of themselves and the world at large. Recognising that one generation cannot hope to bind its successors by written words, the commission has worked throughout on the assumption that the League must continue to depend on the free consent, in the last resort, of its component States; this assumption is evident in nearly every Article of the Covenant, of which the ultimate and most effective sanction must be the public opinion of the civilised world. If the nations of the future are in the main selfish, grasping, and warlike, no instrument or machinery will restrain them. It is only possible to establish an organisation which may make peaceful co-operation easy and hence customary, and to trust in the influence of custom to mould opinion. But while acceptance of the political facts of the present has been one of the principles on which the Commission has worked, it has sought to create a framework which should make possible and encourage an indefinite development in accordance with the ideas of the future. If it has been chary of prescribing what the League shall do, it has been no less chary of prescribing what it shall not do. A number of amendments laying down the methods by which the League should work, or the action it should take in certain events, and tending to greater precision generally, have been deliberately rejected, not because the Commission was not in sympathy with the proposals, but because it was thought better to leave the hands of the statesmen of the future as free as possible, and to allow the League, as a living organism, to discover its own best lines of development."—*League of Nations starts* (*British Parliamentary Papers, Miscellaneous, no.* 3, 1919, *pp.* 226-227).—See also PAPACY: 1920: Pope and the League of Nations.

Text of the Covenant.—THE HIGH CONTRACTING PARTIES, in order to promote international co-operation and to achieve international peace and security by the acceptance of obligations not to resort to war, by the prescription of open, just, and honourable relations between nations, by the firm establishment of the understandings of international law as the actual rule of conduct among Governments, and by the maintenance of justice and a scrupulous respect for all treaty obligations in the dealings of organised peoples with one another, agree to this Covenant of the League of Nations.

Article 1. The original Members of the League shall be those of the Signatories which are named in the Annex to this Covenant and also such of those other States named in the Annex as shall accede without reservation to this Covenant. Such accession shall be effected by a Declaration deposited with the Secretariat within two months of the coming into force of the Covenant. Notice thereof shall be sent to all other Members of the League. Any fully self-governing State, Dominion, or Colony not named in the Annex may become a Member of the League if its admission is agreed to by two-thirds of the Assembly, provided that it shall give effective guarantees of its sincere intention to observe its international obligations, and shall accept such regulations as may be prescribed by the League in regard to its military, naval, and air forces and armaments. Any Member of the League may, after two years' notice of its intention so to do, withdraw from the League, provided that all its international obligations and all its obligations under this Covenant shall have been fulfilled at the time of its withdrawal.

Art. 2. The action of the League under this Covenant shall be effected through the instrumentality of an Assembly and of a Council, with a permanent Secretariat.

Art. 3. The Assembly shall consist of Representatives of the Members of the League. The Assembly shall meet at stated intervals and from time to time as occasion may require, at the Seat of the League or at such other place as may be decided upon. The Assembly may deal at its meetings with any matter within the sphere of action of the League or affecting the peace of the world. At meetings of the Assembly each Member of the League shall have one vote, and may have not more than three Representatives.

Art. 4. The Council shall consist of Representatives of the Principal Allied and Associated Powers, together with Representatives of four other Members of the League. These four Members of the League shall be selected by the Assembly from time to time in its discretion. Until the appointment of the Representatives of the four Members of the League first selected by the Assembly, Representatives of Belgium, Brazil, Greece, and Spain shall be members of the Council. With the approval of the majority of the Assembly, the Council may name additional Members of the League whose Representatives shall always be members of the Council; the Council with like approval may increase the number of Members of the League to be selected by the Assembly for representation on the Council. The Council shall meet from time to time as occasion may require, and at least once a year, at the Seat of the League, or at such other place as may be decided upon. The Council may deal at its meetings with any matter within the sphere of action of the League or affecting the peace of the world. Any Member of the League not represented on the Council shall be invited to send a Representative to sit as a member at any meeting of the Council during the consideration of matters specially affecting the interests of that Member of the League. At meetings of the Council each Member of the League represented on the Council shall have one vote, and may have not more than one Representative.

Art. 5. Except where otherwise expressly provided in this Covenant or by the terms of the present Treaty, decisions at any meeting of the Assembly or of the Council shall require the agreement of all the Members of the League represented at the meeting. All matters of procedure at meetings of the Assembly or of the Council, including the appointment of committees to investigate particular matters, shall be regulated by the Assembly or by the Council, and may be decided by a majority of the Members of the League represented at the meeting. The first meeting of the Assembly and the first meeting of the Council shall be summoned by the President of the United States of America.

Art. 6. The permanent Secretariat shall be established at the Seat of the League. The Secretariat

shall comprise a Secretary-General and such secretaries and staff as may be required. The first Secretary-General shall be the person named in the Annex; thereafter the Secretary-General shall be appointed by the Council with the approval of the majority of the Assembly. The secretaries and staff of the Secretariat shall be appointed by the Secretary-General with the approval of the Council. The Secretary-General shall act in that capacity at all meetings of the Assembly and of the Council.. The expenses of the Secretariat shall be borne by the Members of the League in accordance with the apportionment of the expenses of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.

Art. 7. The Seat of the League is established at Geneva. The Council may at any time decide that the Seat of the League shall be established elsewhere. All positions under or in connection with the League, including the Secretariat, shall be open equally to men and women. Representatives of the Members of the League and officials of the League when engaged on the business of the League shall enjoy diplomatic privileges and immunities. The buildings and other property occupied by the League or its officials or by Representatives attending its meetings shall be inviolable.

Art. 8. The Members of the League recognise that the maintenance of peace requires the reduction of national armaments to the lowest point consistent with national safety and the enforcement by common action of international obligations. The Council, taking account of the geographical situation and circumstances of each State, shall formulate plans for such reduction for the consideration and action of the several Governments. Such plans shall be subject to reconsideration and revision at least every ten years. After these plans shall have been adopted by the several Governments, the limits of armaments therein fixed shall not be exceeded without the concurrence of the Council. The Members of the League agree that the manufacture by private enterprise of munitions and implements of war is open to grave objections. The Council shall advise how the evil effects attendant upon such manufacture can be prevented, due regard being had to the necessities of those Members of the League which are not able to manufacture the munitions and implements of war necessary for their safety. The Members of the League undertake to interchange full and frank information as to the scale of their armaments, their military, naval and air programmes and the condition of such of their industries as are adaptable to war-like purposes. [See also PEACE MOVEMENT: Peace: Arbitration and disarmament.]

Art. 9. A permanent Commission shall be constituted to advise the Council on the execution of the provisions of Articles 1 and 8, and on military, naval, and air questions generally.

Art. 10. The Members of the League undertake to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all Members of the League. In case of any such aggression or in case of any threat or danger of such aggression the Council shall advise upon the means by which this obligation shall be fulfilled.

Art. 11. Any war or threat of war, whether immediately affecting any of the Members of the League or not, is hereby declared a matter of concern to the whole League, and the League shall take any action that may be deemed wise and effectual to safeguard the peace of nations. In case any such emergency should arise the Secretary-General shall on the request of any Member of the League forthwith summon a meeting of the Council. It is also declared to be the friendly right of each Member of the League to bring to the attention of the Assembly or of the Council any circumstance whatever affecting international relations which threatens to disturb international peace or the good understanding between nations upon which peace depends.

Art. 12. The Members of the League agree that if there should arise between them any dispute likely to lead to a rupture, they will submit the matter either to arbitration or to inquiry by the Council, and they agree in no case to resort to war until three months after the award by the arbitrators or the report by the Council. In any case under this Article the award of the arbitrators shall be made within a reasonable time, and the report of the Council shall be made within six months after the submission of the dispute.

Art. 13. The Members of the League agree that whenever any dispute shall arise between them which they recognise to be suitable for submission to arbitration and which cannot be satisfactorily settled by diplomacy, they will submit the whole subject-matter to arbitration. Disputes as to the interpretation of a treaty, as to any question of international law, as to the existence of any fact which if established would constitute a breach of any international obligation, or as to the extent and nature of the reparation to be made for any such breach, are declared to be among those which are generally suitable for submission to arbitration. For the consideration of any such dispute the court of arbitration to which the case is referred shall be the court agreed on by the parties to the dispute or stipulated in any convention existing between them. The Members of the League agree that they will carry out in full good faith any award that may be rendered and that they will not resort to war against a Member of the League which complies therewith. In the event of any failure to carry out such an award, the Council shall propose what steps should be taken to give effect thereto.

Art. 14. The Council shall formulate and submit to the Members of the League for adoption plans for the establishment of a Permanent Court of International Justice. The Court shall be competent to hear and determine any dispute of an international character which the parties thereto submit to it. The Court may also give an advisory opinion upon any dispute or question referred to it by the Council or by the Assembly.—See also INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF.

Art. 15. If there should arise between Members of the League any dispute likely to lead to a rupture, which is not submitted to arbitration as above, the Members of the League agree that they will submit the matter to the Council. Any party to the dispute may effect such submission by giving notice of the existence of the dispute to the Secretary-General, who will make all necessary arrangements for a full investigation and consideration thereof. For this purpose the parties to the dispute will communicate to the Secretary-General, as promptly as possible, statements of their case with all the relevant facts and papers, and the Council may forthwith direct the publication thereof. The Council shall endeavour to effect a settlement of the dispute, and if such efforts are successful, a statement shall be made public giving such facts and explanations regarding the dispute and the terms of settlement thereof as the Council may deem appropriate. If the dispute is not thus settled, the Council, either unanimously or by a majority vote, shall make and publish a report con-

taining a statement of the facts of the dispute and the recommendations which are deemed just and proper in regard thereto. Any Member of the League represented on the Council may make public a statement of the facts of the dispute and of its conclusions regarding the same. If a report by the Council is unanimously agreed to by the members thereof other than the Representatives of one or more of the parties to the dispute, the Members of the League agree that they will not go to war with any party to the dispute which complies with the recommendations of the report. If the Council fails to reach a report which is unanimously agreed to by the members thereof, other than the Representatives of one or more of the parties to the dispute, the Members of the League reserve to themselves the right to take such action as they shall consider necessary for the maintenance of right and justice. If the dispute between the parties is claimed by one of them, and is found by the Council to arise out of a matter which by international law is solely within the domestic jurisdiction of that party, the Council shall so report, and shall make no recommendation as to its settlement. The Council may in any case under this Article refer the dispute to the Assembly. The dispute shall be so referred at the request of either party to the dispute, provided that such request be made within fourteen days after the submission of the dispute to the Council. In any case referred to the Assembly, all the provisions of this Article and of Article 12 relating to the action and powers of the Assembly, provided that a report made by the Assembly, if concurred in by the Representatives of those Members of the League represented on the Council and of a majority of the other Members of the League, exclusive in each case of the Representatives of the parties to the dispute, shall have the same force as a report by the Council concurred in by all the members thereof other than the Representatives of one or more of the parties to the dispute.

Art. 16. Should any Member of the League resort to war in disregard of its covenants under Articles 12, 13, or 15, it shall *ipso facto* be deemed to have committed an act of war against all other Members of the League, which hereby undertake immediately to subject it to the severance of all trade or financial relations, the prohibition of all intercourse between their nationals and the nationals of the covenant-breaking State, and the prevention of all financial, commercial, or personal intercourse between the nationals of the covenant-breaking State, and the nationals of any other State, whether a Member of the League or not. It shall be the duty of the Council in such case to recommend to the several Governments concerned what effective military, naval, or air force the Members of the League shall severally contribute to the armed forces to be used to protect the covenants of the League. The Members of the League agree, further, that they will mutually support one another in the financial and economic measures which are taken under this Article, in order to minimise the loss and inconvenience resulting from the above measures, and that they will mutually support one another in resisting any special measures aimed at one of their number by the covenant-breaking State, and that they will take the necessary steps to afford passage through their territory to the forces of any of the Members of the League which are co-operating to protect the covenants of the League. Any Member of the League which has violated any covenant of the League may be declared to be no longer a Member of the League by a vote of the Council concurred in by the Representatives of all the other Members of the League represented thereon.

Art. 17. In the event of a dispute between a Member of the League and a State which is not a Member of the League, or between States not Members of the League, the State or States not Members of the League shall be invited to accept the obligations of membership in the League for the purposes of such dispute, upon such conditions as the Council may deem just. If such invitation is accepted, the provisions of Articles 12 to 16 inclusive shall be applied with such modifications as may be deemed necessary by the Council. Upon such invitation being given the Council shall immediately institute an inquiry into the circumstances of the dispute and recommend such action as may seem best and most effectual in the circumstances. If a State so invited shall refuse to accept the obligations of membership in the League for the purposes of such dispute, and shall resort to war against a Member of the League, the provisions of Article 16 shall be applicable as against the State taking such action. If both parties to the dispute when so invited refuse to accept the obligations of membership in the League for the purposes of such dispute, the Council may take such measures and make such recommendations as will prevent hostilities and will result in the settlement of the dispute.

Art. 18. Every treaty or international engagement entered into hereafter by any Member of the League shall be forthwith registered with the Secretariat and shall as soon as possible be published by it. No such treaty or international engagement shall be binding until so registered.

Art. 19. The Assembly may from time to time advise the reconsideration by Members of the League of treaties which have become inapplicable and the consideration of international conditions whose continuance might endanger the peace of the world.

Art. 20. The Members of the League severally agree that this Covenant is accepted as abrogating all obligations or understandings *inter se* which are inconsistent with the terms thereof, and solemnly undertake that they will not hereafter enter into any engagements inconsistent with the terms thereof. In case any Member of the League shall, before becoming a Member of the League, have undertaken any obligations inconsistent with the terms of this Covenant, it shall be the duty of such Member to take immediate steps to procure its release from such obligations.

Art. 21. Nothing in this Covenant shall be deemed to affect the validity of international engagements such as treaties of arbitration or regional understandings like the Monroe Doctrine for securing the maintenance of peace.

Art. 22. To those colonies and territories which as a consequence of the late war have ceased to be under the sovereignty of the States which formerly governed them and which are inhabited by peoples not yet able to stand by themselves under the strenuous conditions of the modern world, there should be applied the principle that the well-being and development of such peoples form a sacred trust of civilisation and that securities for the performance of this trust should be embodied in this Covenant. The best method of giving practical effect to this principle is that the tutelage of such peoples should be entrusted to advanced nations who by reason of their resources, their experience or their geographical position, can best undertake this responsibility, and who are willing to accept it, and that this tutelage should be exercised by them as Mandatories on behalf of the

League. The character of the mandate must differ according to the stage of the development of the people, the geographical situation of the territory, its economic conditions and other similar circumstances. Certain communities formerly belonging to the Turkish Empire have reached a stage of development where their existence as independent nations can be provisionally recognised subject to the rendering of administrative advice and assistance by a Mandatory until such time as they are able to stand alone. The wishes of these communities must be a principal consideration in the selection of the Mandatory. Other peoples, especially those of Central Africa, are at such a stage that the Mandatory must be responsible for the administration of the territory under conditions which will guarantee freedom of conscience or religion, subject only to the maintenance of public order and morals, the prohibition of abuses such as the slave trade, the arms traffic and the liquor traffic, and the prevention of the establishment of fortifications or military and naval bases and of military training of the natives for other than police purposes and the defence of territory, and will also secure equal opportunities for the trade and commerce of other Members of the League. There are territories, such as South-West Africa and certain of the South Pacific Islands, which, owing to the sparseness of their population, or their small size, or their remoteness from the centres of civilisation, or their geographical contiguity to the territory of the Mandatory, and other circumstances, can be best administered under the laws of the Mandatory as integral portions of its territory, subject to the safeguards above mentioned in the interests of the indigenous population. In every case of mandate the Mandatory shall render to the Council an annual report in reference to the territory committed to its charge. The degree of authority, control, or administration to be exercised by the Mandatory shall, if not previously agreed upon by the Members of the League, be explicitly defined in each case by the Council. A permanent Commission shall be constituted to receive and examine the annual reports of the Mandatories and to advise the Council on all matters relating to the observance of the mandates. [See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1918-1920: Africa, etc.; SOUTHWEST AFRICA: 1919.]

Art. 23. Subject to and in accordance with the provisions of international conventions existing or hereafter to be agreed upon, the Members of the League—(a) will endeavour to secure and maintain fair and humane conditions of labour for men, women, and children, both in their own countries and in all countries to which their commercial and industrial relations extend, and for that purpose will establish and maintain the necessary international organisations; (b) undertake to secure just treatment of the native inhabitants of territories under their control; (c) will entrust the League with the general supervision over the execution of agreements with regard to the traffic in women and children, and the traffic in opium and other dangerous drugs; (d) will entrust the League with the general supervision of the trade in arms and ammunition with the countries in which the control of this traffic is necessary in the common interest; (e) will make provision to secure and maintain freedom of communications and of transit and equitable treatment for the commerce of all Members of the League In this connection the special necessities of the regions devastated during the War of 1914-1918 shall be borne in mind; (f) will endeavour to take steps in matters of international concern for the prevention and control of disease. [See PUBLIC HEALTH: League of Nations.]

Art. 24. There shall be placed under the direction of the League all international bureaux already established by general treaties if the parties to such treaties consent. All such international bureaux and all commissions for the regulation of matters of international interest hereafter constituted shall be placed under the direction of the League. In all matters of international interest which are regulated by general conventions, but which are not placed under the control of international bureaux or commissions, the Secretariat of the League shall, subject to the consent of the Council and if desired by the parties, collect and distribute all relevant information and shall render any other assistance which may be necessary or desirable. The Council may include as part of the expenses of the Secretariat the expenses of any bureau or commission which is placed under the direction of the League.

Art. 25. The Members of the League agree to encourage and promote the establishment and cooperation of duly authorised voluntary national Red Cross organisations having as purposes the improvement of health, the prevention of disease, and the mitigation of suffering throughout the world. [See also PUBLIC HEALTH: League of Nations.]

Art. 26. Amendments to this Covenant will take effect when ratified by the Members of the League whose Representatives compose the Council and by a majority of the Members of the League whose Representatives compose the Assembly. No such amendment shall bind any Member of the League which signifies its dissent therefrom, but in that case it shall cease to be a Member of the League.

Annex to the covenant

I. ORIGINAL MEMBERS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS SIGNATORIES OF THE TREATY OF PEACE

United States of America, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, British Empire, Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, India, China, Cuba, Czecho-Slovakia, Ecuador, France, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Hedjaz, Honduras, Italy, Japan, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Serb-Croat-Slovene State, Siam, Uruguay.

States invited to accede to the covenant

Argentine Republic, Chile, Columbia, Denmark, Netherlands, Norway, Paraguay, Persia, Salvador, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Venezuela.

II. FIRST SECRETARY-GENERAL OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The Hon. Sir James Eric Drummond, K.C. M.G., C.B.

Art. 36. The jurisdiction of the court comprises all cases which the parties refer to it and all matters specially provided for in treaties and conventions in force. The members of the League of Nations and the states mentioned in the annex to the covenant may . . . declare that they recognize as compulsory *ipso facto* and without special agreement, in relation to any other member or state accepting the same obligation, the jurisdiction of the court in all or any of the classes of legal disputes concerning: (a) The interpretation of a treaty. (b) Any ques-

tion of international law. (c) The existence of any fact which, if established, would constitute a breach of an international obligation. (d) The nature or extent of the reparation to be made for the breach of an international obligation. . . . In the event of a dispute as to whether the court has jurisdiction, the matter shall be settled by the decision of the court. . . .

Art. 38. The court shall apply: 1. International conventions, whether general or particular, establishing rules expressly recognized by the contesting states. 2. International custom, as evidence of a general practice accepted as law. 3. The general principles of law recognized by civilized nations. 4. Subject to the provisions of Article 59, judicial decisions and the teachings of the most highly qualified publicists of the various nations, as subsidiary means for the determination of rules of law. This provision shall not prejudice the power of the court to decide a case *ex aequo et bono*, if the parties agree thereto. . . .

Art. 59. The decision of the court has no binding force except between the parties and in respect of that particular case.

Establishment of the Secretariat, International Labor Organization, Council, and Assembly.—Administrative commissions.—"The first thing that the League of Nations did was to create a Secretariat. For this achievement, honor should be given primarily to the Secretary-General, Sir James Eric Drummond [who assumed office Jan. 10, 1920]. He was the responsible creator of this permanent staff, numbering now [1921] about two hundred people, many of them experts drawn from a score of different countries, experts in politics and law, diplomacy, finance, economics, journalism, sanitation and social questions. . . . The Secretariat, gradually growing into a permanent staff, has been organized, within, into a half dozen departments for internal administration and organized for external duties, into ten great sections, covering such fields as are indicated by the following titles: The Political Section, which conducts the correspondence with all Governments. Not only the correspondence of the League of Nations but also the correspondence with Governments for the International Labor Organization. The Economics and Finance Section, which is busy with economic reconstruction. The Administrative Commissions Section, whose work is largely with the great permanent Commissions. The Registry Bureau for Treaties, which has now published about seventy treaties, and there are more to come. The Mandates Section, a link with the Mandatory Commission. The Legal Section, comprising expert authorities on international laws, the legal advisers of the Secretary-General and the Council. The International Health and Social Questions Section, combating disease, famine and vice. . . . Through all this mechanism the Secretariat is constantly at work gathering information about all the interests of the League, digesting it, arranging it for use, making reports, drawing up recommendations and programs for the Council and the Assembly, and keeping in constant touch with the Commissions and Bureaus and the officials of the League everywhere. It is, therefore, a sort of permanent ministry and administrative staff of public welfare. [On October 27, 1920, the headquarters of the Secretariat was transferred to Geneva.] . . . The second accomplishment of the League is the International Labor Organization. . . . The International Labor Organization is not under the Covenant. It is under the Treaty, but it is a part of the League of Nations just as much as the Secretariat, the Council and Assembly are, and it has an organization similar to that of the other division of the League of Nations. Its principal work has consisted in first preparing and then proposing what might be called an international labor code. [See also LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1919: International Labor Organization.] . . . The third achievement of the League of Nations is to be found in the work of the Council. While the Secretariat is the administrative staff, the Council is the executive committee. I might say it is a legislative executive committee of the world. It is always on the job through the Secretariat. [The Council is intrusted with the permanent conduct of affairs when the Assembly is not sitting; by the terms of the Covenant of the League of Nations the Council and the Assembly may deal with any matter within the sphere of action of the League affecting the peace of the world. The Council consisted at the start of the representatives of Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan (permanent members) together with four non-permanent members: Belgium, Brazil, Spain and China. The first meeting of the Council was held at Paris, January 16, 1920.] . . . The fourth great achievement of the League is in the work of the Assembly [which meets once a year, on the first Monday in September]. . . . The Assembly is particularly remarkable as an achievement, in that it is the successor and continuator of the Hague Conferences, but under a somewhat different spirit and I believe under more favorable auspices. . . . The fifth great accomplishment of the League of Nations is the creation of the important administrative Commissions. This is the work of both the Council and the Assembly, or I should say of the Council, the Secretariat and the Assembly. . . . First, there was the Commission of Jurists, which drew up the plan for the Permanent Court of International Justice. [The Permanent Court of International Justice was officially established September 16, 1921.] . . . Second is the Armaments Commission. This began with the Permanent Advisory Commission on Military, Air and Naval Questions, started by the Council last August [1920], but it has been very greatly developed. It is now not only that Commission but it is also a Disarmament Commission. That Permanent Advisory Commission has become the nucleus for a great Disarmament Commission. . . . Third, there is the Economic Blockade Commission, known as the Blockade Commission, whose duty it is to study how the economic weapons of the League ought to be used. . . . Fourth comes the Communications and Transport Commission, its first duty being to see how, if possible, the vexatious restrictions upon the transit of passengers and of goods throughout Europe shall be lessened or removed. . . . Fifth, the Finance and Economics Commission is the principal reconstructive agent of the League of Nations, since the economic reconstruction of Europe is necessarily the first step that must be taken. . . . Perhaps its most significant fruit has been the creation of a sixth Commission called the International Credits Commission, which is to be a mediating agent between creditor nations and debtor nations. . . . Seventh is the International Health Organization [formally established September 23, 1921], one of the first to get started, since the need was so great in the spring of 1920, especially in Poland and Austria. That Commission during its year or more of activity has drawn into its circle many of the health organizations of the world, including the Red Cross. The Red Cross has formed, within the League, an International League of Red Cross Societies. The Health Bureau promises to become the great sanitary agent of the League of Nations. Eighth, is

the Mandatory Commission, whose duty it is to receive the annual reports from the various mandated areas, submitted by the governments that have charge of these mandates. . . . Ninth, is the Commission for Regulating the Opium and Drug Traffic. . . . Tenth, is the Revision Committee, whose duty it is to consider amendments to the Covenant, and there are many amendments already under consideration. . . . Eleventh, is the Statistical Commission, which is a clearing house for many societies of statistical research and information. Twelfth, and lastly, there is the Commission on the Deportation of Women and Children in Asia Minor."—C. H. Levermore, *Achievements of the League of Nations in its first year* (*Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, July,* 1921).

First meeting of the Assembly.—The first meeting of the Assembly was held November-December, 1920, with all forty-one nations in attendance except Honduras. Albania, Austria, Azerbaijan and Bulgaria applied for membership. Admission of Austria was favorably considered, December 15. Bulgaria was admitted to the League at the session of December 9 (see BULGARIA: 1920-1921; NEUILLY, TREATY OF), Albania, Finland, Luxemburg, and Costa Rica were admitted December 16. The application of Azerbaijan, Georgia, the Ukraine, Esthonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Montenegro, Armenia (see ARMENIA: 1920: Turk and Bolshevist attacks), and Lichtenstein were rejected on the ground that former Russian territory should not be disposed of until a responsible government had given its consent. "The official language to be used was a problem that had to be solved. . . . French and English developed almost equal claims to predominance, and it was finally decided that both languages should be used, all speeches and documents being translated from one into the other. On Nov. 20, however, various Spanish-speaking nations presented a motion that their language also be given an official status. Eighteen nations, including Belgium and Great Britain, supported this request, on the ground that Spanish countries represented at least 40 per cent. of the League's membership. But, because even two languages were found to make the proceedings slow and cumbersome, the motion was rejected. . . . One of the first problems that arose in the main body of the Assembly was that of amendments to the League covenant. The Scandinavian countries had presented amendments tending to lessen the hold of the large powers. These amendments sought to establish (1) the right of small countries adjacent to nations which began hostilities in defiance of the League to maintain trade and other relations if this were considered necessary in order to avoid a clash; (2) compulsory arbitration by the World Court created at The Hague; (3) regular meetings of the League; (4) the appointment of four non-permanent members of the League Council, to be elected each year for four years. The ensuing debate soon revealed the general belief that non-participation by any member nation would make the whole blockade, as a weapon to prevent war, ineffective. Despite the feeling, it was decided, on Dec. 10, to leave with the League members themselves the right of decision."—*League assembly: What it accomplished* (*New York Times Current History, Jan.,* 1921).—"The Covenant gives the Assembly the right to appoint the four non-permanent members of the Council, but does not specify how this is to be done. The matter was discussed from two main viewpoints. One group held that no assembly could bind its successors. The other maintained that the spirit of the Covenant implied a fair division of political power and a definite rotation of office. After considerable deliberation it was decided to leave the question for a future meeting and Spain, Brazil, Belgium and China were elected for one year only. The first three non-permanent members were already on the Council. But China's substitution for Greece was a great diplomatic triumph for that brilliant young Chinese delegate, Dr. Koo, who now has obtained for his country a position in the League where, through the unanimity principle prevailing on the Council, it can block any action proposed, especially in the interests of Japan. . . . Amendments, as a whole, including attempts to obtain the elimination of Article X., were finally set aside, and a standing committee was appointed to report on all such proposals at the second meeting of the Assembly, to be held in 1921. It was definitely announced that the League would undertake to make no changes until it heard proposals from the next administration of the United States Government. . . . The decision to waive the whole question of amendments had the result of precipitating a dispute which at one moment threatened to disrupt the Assembly. Most prominent of all those to move for amendments had been the Argentinians, headed by Señor Puyerredon. [See ARGENTINA: 1920-1921,] . . . The Assembly referred several . . . questions to the Council on which it wished further light or thought the Council had prior or more appropriate jurisdiction. It requested the Council to appoint committees (a) to study and report on the sixty-nine treaties that had already been registered with the secretariat with a view to settling some legal questions that had arisen; (b) to determine the moment when the economic blockade should come into operation, and especially the exact method of its application in particular cases, notably when a state not a member of the League is to be proceeded against; (c) to consider means for securing throughout the world greater publicity of the meetings of the Assembly and the Council, and in general the work of the League; (d) to investigate the work, efficiency, number, salaries and allowances of the secretariat; (e) to arrive at a more equitable system of allocating the expenses of the League among its members than the apportionment of the Universal Postal Union affords; and (f) to inquire into the deplorable deportation of women and children in Armenia, Asia Minor, and neighboring countries with a view to stopping that hideous practice."—H. Holt, *League of Nations effective* (*Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, July,* 1921).—"M. Lafontaine of Belgium, seconded by M. Tittoni of Italy, earnestly advocated the pooling of all the raw materials of the world for the benefit of all the nations. This attempt drew from N. W. Rowell of Canada a reply which contained a sensational attack upon all the methods of European diplomacy and upon the procedure of the Assembly itself. . . . The Assembly, however, was placed in a difficult position because of the persistent refusal of Great Britain and France to divulge their plans in mandated territories. In a vigorous report made public on Dec. 16 the Committee for Mandates admitted that it could not move an inch and could not secure any discussion of the subject because of the Supreme Council's opposition. Drafts of the mandates had been asked for in vain. After three weeks' insistence the Council admitted that it had received the draft for Class A mandates—those in Turkey. Five days' efforts resulted in securing a private reading of this draft form. The Council refused the committee's request for permission to publish the terms of these

mandates. The other mandates were not shown. No information was divulged regarding the mandates for the former German colonies. The report of the committee showed clearly that a state of friction had developed, and that the great powers, on the alleged ground that it was inexpedient to discuss the mandates until the Turkish Treaty was put in operation, were tightening their grip on the territories assigned them. In words of uncompromising frankness the committee condemned the tendency toward 'militarism' in the mandated areas. . . . The net result of the whole dispute was a victory for the council and a failure of the Assembly to gain any vital amount of control over mandated territory. . . . One positive action taken by the Assembly, considered to be of the greatest importance in its bearing on future international disputes, was the adoption of the project of an International Tribunal, drawn up at The Hague not long ago by eminent jurists, led by Elihu Root. [See INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF.] After an all-day debate, on Dec. 13 [1920], the plan was adopted. [See also ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: 1919-1920.] . . . The Assembly held its final session on Dec. 18, when it adjourned until the first Monday in September, 1921. Eloquent speeches marked the last meeting. President Hymans reviewed the positive achievement of the five weeks' session. The League, he declared, was now a living organism."—*League assembly: What it accomplished* (*New York Times Current History, Jan.*, 1921).

Achievements of the Council and Secretariat in the first year.—"The Council has so far held twelve separate sessions [up to June, 1921. The thirteenth session met June 17]. . . . An eminent commission of juris-consults was appointed by the Council to work out the constitution of the Permanent Court of International Justice. . . . The court has been accepted by the Council and ratified by the Assembly. . . . The Council has appointed a Provisional Committee on Communications and Transit. This Commission will take up all problems connected with international ports, waterways and railways, and it has been especially charged with making an early report on the abominations that exist through the world and especially in Europe since the war began in connection with through tickets, customs and passports. The Conference on International Health was called by the Council and was held in London last April [1921] and chiefly concerned itself with the measures to be taken against the spread of typhus in Poland. This conference proposed that a permanent health commission should be added to the commissions of the League, and as a means of abolishing typhus in Poland it took measures to establish a chain of seventy-two quarantine stations and two hundred hospitals. The Council commissioned the great Norwegian statesman and explorer, Dr. Nansen, to supervise the repatriation of the half-million prisoners in Russia, ill-fed, almost unclothed, ravaged by disease and driven like slaves. Dr. Nansen reported to the Council that despite almost insuperable obstacles which were being encountered in finding shipping and raising funds and in carrying out many-sided negotiations between allies, former neutrals and Soviet authorities, there was a fair chance of saving most of the half-million soldiers before they starved to death last winter. [Up to November, 1921, 400,000 war prisoners had been repatriated.] The Council called an International Financial Congress which completed its labors last summer in Brussels. It urged disarmament as a means to business rehabilitation and made important constructive suggestions in regard to international trade, finance, currency and exchange. The Council has already taken cognizance of three international disputes, all of which might otherwise have led to war—those between Sweden and Finland [over the Aland islands question (see ALAND ISLANDS: 1920: Problem submitted, etc.; 1921)], Poland and Lithuania [over Vilna and the frontier (see POLAND: 1920: Zelgouski takes Vilna)], and Persia and Soviet Russia. . . . The case of Armenia was taken up by the Council. As the League has no army or navy or treasury of its own it could not take the mandate for that tragic country. But it is devising a plan by which some single nation may be authorized to assume the mandate under the collective guarantee of the League. The Council in addition to the above selected the commissions who will administer the Saar Valley [until 1935, when a plebiscite will be taken (see VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part III: Section IV: Chapter II)] and Danzig; it ordered the Secretariat to ask England and Japan to modify their treaty of offense and defense in the Far East so as to make it consistent with the Covenant; it called an International Conference of Seamen at Genoa; it heard India's claim to be included in the governing body of the International Labor Office; it took under consideration France's proposal to establish an International University at Brussels; it admitted Switzerland to membership in the League with such reservations as are required by the Swiss constitution [see SWITZERLAND: 1920]; and it approved plans for sending a commission of labor leaders and employers into Soviet Russia to survey social and economic conditions there. The Secretariat has been equally active. . . . Suffice it to say that the League appropriated 6,000,000 Swiss francs to purchase the National Hotel and neighboring property at Geneva for the seat of the League, and there the Secretariat is now [1921] ensconced. . . . The International Labor Office, which was organized before the Council and Secretariat got in running order, is the farthest advanced of any of the Permanent Commissions of the League and is now functioning at Geneva under Albert Thomas of France, the director-general, and a governing body of twenty-four representatives of labor and capital from the most important industrial nations. [See also LABOR LEGISLATION: 1919-1922.] It has held . . . [three] important meetings already, one in Washington and the other in Paris. The third . . . in Geneva, where agricultural questions . . . predominate on the program. At the first conference six draft conventions were approved. They included provisions for the eight-hour day, protection of women and children in industry and the establishment of unemployment offices and insurance. These labor conventions are the Magna Charta of labor throughout the world."—H. Holt, *League of Nations effective* (*Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, July*, 1921).

Second meeting of the Assembly.—Fourteenth to eighteenth sessions of the League Council.—"The Second Plenary Conference of the League of Nations was held in Geneva from September 5 to October 5 [1921]; delegates from 42 out of the 48 member states were present. [See also GENEVA: 1921.] During the session Esthonia, Latvia and Lithuania were admitted to membership [Sept. 22, 1921]. The agenda of the Assembly, presided over by Foreign Minister van Karnebeek of Holland, contained twenty-eight items, including presentation by the Council of reports from committees constituted in accordance with the recommendations of the First Assembly. . . . In the course of the thirty-three plenary meetings which

were held, the Assembly approved the organization and work of the technical organizations on communications and transit, finance and economics, and health. It also approved . . . the Budget for 1922, and a detailed report from the Advisory Committee on Traffic in Opium, favoring more effective regulation of contraband trade and extension of an invitation to all states to sign or ratify the Opium Convention of 1912 as soon as possible. . . . Four important suggestions for amending the Covenant were submitted: (1) Article 26 to specify a three-fourths majority of the Assembly, including all Council members, as necessary for the approval of any amendment; (2) a series of amendments to Article 16 describing methods of procedure for an economic blockade; pending ratification, the council and member states were advised to accept the proposed amendments as rules of guidance; (3) revision of Article 6 allocating expenses among members of the League; and (4) amendment of Article 4 so as to empower the Assembly to fix by a two-thirds majority rules governing elections of non-permanent members of the Council. The Canadian proposal that Article 10 be eliminated was postponed to the next session of the Assembly. . . . After discussing the question of the deportation of women and children in Turkey and Asia Minor, the Assembly reached the decision that the League should name and maintain a commissioner at Constantinople who, with the aid of a mixed tribunal, should have charge of the reclamation of women and children detained in Mohammedan households. It also recommended that the Council appoint a committee of three to visit Albania and report on the execution of the decision of the Allied powers respecting that territory. . . . Resolutions were adopted respecting several other items including mandates, the Bolivian-Chilean dispute, . . . the appeal of Austria regarding Article 267 of the Treaty of St. Germain, Armenia, Eastern Rumania, and the Russian famine. . . . The Assembly finally decided to request the governments for the second time that they agree not to exceed for two years their present military and naval budgets. It also authorized a statistical investigation of armaments in 1913 and 1921, accepted a proposal for an international conference on the evil consequences of the private manufacture of arms; decided to call upon all states to ratify the Arms Traffic Convention, and to ask the Temporary Mixed Commission on Armaments to consider whether or not an appeal should be addressed to all scientific men to publish their discoveries in the hope that by thus making them public property their use for purposes of war would be lessened. The Mixed Commission was further charged with the duty of preparing a policy for armament limitation. Perhaps most important of all was the election by the Assembly of eleven judges for the Permanent Court of International Justice. . . . [A number of important meetings of the League Council were held during the summer and fall of 1921.] The Fourteenth Regular Session convened August 30, and considered confirmation of the 'A' type mandate in Asia Minor and the 'B' type in Central Africa. At this session, too, the Albanian question was referred to the Assembly, and the Polish-Lithuanian dispute further considered, as well as the neutralization of the Aland Islands and protection of minorities in Finland. [See also ALAND ISLANDS: 1921.] The Fifteenth Session, held in Paris November 15 to 19, was devoted almost entirely to the problem of Albanian frontiers. At the Sixteenth Session, which opened at Geneva on January 10 [1922], the Council denied the appeal of a Saar Valley Delegation to overrule the Governing Commission in its decision that any person residing in the Valley for one year becomes an inhabitant thereof, and that any person born in the Saar Valley but absent for one year permanently loses his citizenship. It also accepted responsibility for guaranteeing the neutrality of the Aland Islands, but expressed its inability to settle the Polish-Lithuanian dispute over Vilna. Before adjourning, an advisory commission to deal with the problem of white slave traffic was named. Relief of Russian refugees, reduction of armaments, the Saar Basin and the Saar Basin plebiscite, and the forthcoming Genoa Conference, were the principal topics discussed at the Seventeenth Session of the Council held in Paris from March 24 to 28, [1922]. The last meeting of the year under review convened at Geneva during the middle of May. [At this session which met May 11, decisions were reached to establish a South American bureau at Geneva, and to throw open the Permanent Court of International Justice to Russia, Germany, Turkey, Hungary, and Mexico.] At the Third Session of the International Labor Conference, which took place October 25 to November 19, seven international conventions and eight recommendations were adopted. The conventions provide for (1) a weekly rest day in industry; (2) the prohibition of the use of white lead in interior painting and regulation of its use in exterior painting; (3) the right of agricultural workers to combine; (4) non-employment of children under fourteen during compulsory school hours; (5) the extension of compensation laws to agricultural workers; (6) restriction of juvenile employment at sea; (7) institution of compulsory medical examination of persons under eighteen years of age employed on ships. The recommendations, dealing mostly with agricultural workers, include (1) nine hours rest per day for women employed in agriculture; (2) children under fourteen to have ten hours consecutive rest, and persons between fourteen and eighteen, nine hours; (3) maternity protection for women agricultural workers; (4) improvement of living conditions among agricultural workers; (5) a series of measures for dealing with agricultural non-employment; (6) extension of social insurance schemes to agricultural workers; and (7) the further development of technical education for persons employed in agriculture."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, *Supplement*, *pp.* 19-22.

Third Assembly of the League of Nations.—The Third Assembly of the League was held September 4 to September 30, 1922, with Austin Edwards, Chile, as president. The most notable achievement of convention was its plan for the rehabilitation of Austria. The essential features of the economic plan as worked out by Chancellor Mgr. Ignatz Seipel of Austria and the Economic and Financial Committee of the League, are as follows: administrative expenses to be reduced to one-third through the discontinuance of unessential functions; administrative procedure simplified; government personnel reduced; federal departments reduced to eight; federal advances to provinces and municipalities reduced and within three years discontinued; war plants and possibly mines to be dispersed; number of courts reduced and legal procedure simplified; adjustment of important duties; important foodstuffs and raw materials for the present to remain on the free list; financial operations of the new plans to be centralized in the bank of issue; and railways, telegraph, telephone, and other government enterprises to be made independent and the organization conducted along

business principles in so far as consistent with public interest. The independence and political integrity of Austria was guaranteed by a five power treaty. The Assembly adopted the principle of a reduction of armaments, based upon a treaty of mutual guaranty against attack, and worked for a solution for the opium traffic, white slavery and the protection of minorities in which international complications arise. The membership of the council was changed so that the proportion now (1923) stands four great powers and six lesser powers. These six non-permanent members are: Brazil, Spain, Uruguay, Belgium, Sweden, and China in order of the number of votes.—See also LATIN AMERICA: 1919-1922.

ALSO IN: W. Astor, *Coöperative basis for League of Nations.*—E. Barker, *Confederation of the nations.*—J. S. Bassett, *Lost fruits of Waterloo.*—H. N. Brailsford, *Covenant of peace.*—J. Bryce, *Proposals for the prevention of future wars.*—G. Ferrero, *Problems of peace.*—J. L. Garvin, *Economic foundations of peace.*—Grotius Society, *Transactions,* 1919, *v.* 5.—A. Henderson, *League of Nations and labor.*—D. J. Hill, *American world policies.*—F. N. Keen, *Hammering out the details.*—Mrs. C. A. Kluyver, *Documents on the League of Nations.*—T. J. Lawrence, *Lectures on the League of Nations.*—C. H. Levermore, *Synopsis of plans for international organization.*—H. C. Lodge, *Lodge vs. Lowell debate.*—T. Marburg, *League of Nations: A chapter in the history of the movement.*—D. W. Morrow, *Society of Free States.*—*Nations and the league* (by ten representative writers).—S. Olivier, *League assembly* (*Contemporary Review, Jan.,* 1921).—E. M. Phelps, *Selected articles on the League of Nations.*—W. A. Phillips, *Confederation of Europe.*—A. F. Pollard, *League of Nations.*—C. Sarolea, *Europe and the League of Nations.*—F. B. Sayre, *Experiments in international administration.*—J. C. Smuts, *League of Nations.*—A. Sweetzer, *League of Nations.*—H. G. Wells and others, *Idea of a League of Nations.*—G. G. Wilson, *First Year of the League of Nations.*—W. Wilson, *International ideals.*—L. S. Woolf, *International government.*—E. York, *League of Nations, ancient, mediæval, and modern.*—O. Brett, ed., *First assembly.*—C. H. Levermore, *Second Year Book of the League of Nations.*—*League of Nations Journal.*—*World Court.*

LEAGUE OF NATIONS LIBRARY. See LIBRARIES: Modern: International libraries.

LEAGUES: Definition. See TREATIES, MAKING AND TERMINATION OF.

The following is a list of the principal leagues and alliances:

Acarnanian. See ACARNANIAN LEAGUE.
Achæan. See ACHÆAN LEAGUE; GREECE: B. C. 280-146.
Achæan cities. See ACHÆAN CITIES, LEAGUE OF.
Ætolian. ÆTOLIA.
Agrarian (1893). See GERMANY: 1890-1894; 1895-1898.
Amphictyonic. See AMPHICTYONIC COUNCIL; GREECE: B. C. 8th and 6th centuries: Economic conditions.
Anti-Corn law. See TARIFF: 1836-1841; 1845-1846.
Arcadian union. See GREECE: B. C. 371; 371-362.
Augsburg. See GERMANY: 1686.
Borromean, or Golden (1586). See SWITZERLAND: 1579-1630.
Cambrai (1508). See VENICE: 1508-1509; ITALY: 1510-1513.
Catholic (1530). See PAPACY: 1530-1531.
Catholic (1609). See GERMANY: 1608-1618.
Coalitions against Napoleon. See COALITION.
Cobblers' league, or Bundschuh. See GERMANY: 1492-1514; 1524-1525.
Confederate States of America. See U. S. A.: 1861 (February): Adoption of the constitution.
Delian (477 B. C.). See GREECE: B. C. 478-477.
Dreikaiserbund (1872). See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: c.
Epirot. See EPIROT LEAGUE.
Entente Cordiale (1904). See ENTENTE CORDIALE.
Evangelical union (1608). See GERMANY: 1608-1618; 1621-1623.
Farmers' (1892). See GERMANY: 1890-1894.
Gaelic (1893). See IRELAND: 1893-1905.
German confederation (1814). See GERMANY: 1814-1820.
Grey leagues. See SWITZERLAND: 1396-1499.
Gueux (1566). See NETHERLANDS: 1562-1566.
Hanseatic. See HANSA TOWNS.
Holy (1511). See ITALY: 1510-1513.
Holy (at Cognac) (1526). See ITALY: 1523-1527.
Holy (1538). See GERMANY: 1533-1546.
Holy (1571). See TURKEY: 1566-1571.
Holy (1576). See FRANCE: 1576-1585, to 1593-1598.
Holy (1684). See TURKEY: 1684-1696.
Holy Alliance (1815). See HOLY ALLIANCE.
Irish land. See IRELAND: 1880.
Iroquois. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY.
Just, League of (1836). See INTERNATIONAL: Its forerunners; COMMUNIST MANIFESTO.
League to Enforce Peace. See U. S. A.: 1915 (June): League to Enforce Peace; 1916 (May); 1919 (March).
Lombardy, League of (1167). See ITALY: 1166-1167; 1174-1183.
Lycian. See LYCIAN LEAGUE.
Military. See GREECE: 1909.
Nations, League of. See LEAGUE OF NATIONS.
North, League of the. See ULSTER: 1585-1608.
North German confederation. See GERMANY: 1866.
Olynthian confederacy. See GREECE: B. C. 383-379.
Pan-German. See PAN-GERMANISM: Doctrine defined.
Poor Conrad, League of (1514). See GERMANY: 1492-1514; 1524-1525.
Princes, League of. See FRANCE: 1485-1487.
Princes, League of. See GERMANY: 1785.
Protestant league or union. See GERMANY: 1608-1618.
Public weal, League of (1465) See FRANCE: 1461-1468.
Quadruple alliance (1718). See FRANCE: 1717-1719; ITALY: 1715-1735; SPAIN: 1713-1725.
Quadruple alliance (1815). See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 3; FRANCE: 1815 (July-November).
Quadruple alliance (1834). See SPAIN: 1833-1846.
Ratisbon, League of (1524). See PAPACY: 1522-1525.
Red Cross Societies, League of (1919). See RED CROSS: 1919-1920: International activities.

Rhine, Confederation of (1806). See GERMANY: 1805-1806.
Rhine, League of the. See RHINE LEAGUE.
Smalkaldic (1530). See GERMANY: 1530-1532; PAPACY: 1530-1531.
Solemn League and Covenant (1643). See SOLEMN LEAGUE AND COVENANT.
Sonderbund (1847). See SWITZERLAND: 1803-1848.
Swabian or Hansa. See LANDFRIEDE; AUSTRIA: 1477-1495; FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval leagues in Germany.
Targowitz, Confederation of. See POLAND: 1791-1792.
Three emperors, League of the (1872). See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: c.
Torgau (1525). See PAPACY: 1525-1529.
Triple Alliance (1882). See TRIPLE ALLIANCE.
Triple Entente (1907). See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: c.
United Households, League of. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY.

See also FEDERAL GOVERNMENT; COUNCILS OF THE CHURCH; CONGRESSES AND CONFERENCES; TREATIES.

LEAH TRIBES. See JEWS: Formation of Hebrew nation.

LEAKE, Edward Whaley Billyard (1895-), British naval officer. Active in the attack on Zeebrugge. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: a, 1.

LEBANON, western mountain range of central Syria. It was famous in earlier history for its great cedars; but these have now nearly all disappeared. It is inhabited by a mixed and inharmonious group of races, among whom the Druses and the Maronites are conspicuous. In 1922 the population was estimated at about 200,000.

1915.—**Occupied by Turkish troops.** See SYRIA: 1908-1921.

1922 (May).—**Represented at Genoa Congress of Oriental Peoples.** See GENOA CONGRESS OF ORIENTAL PEOPLES.

LE BEL, Joseph Achille, French chemist. Experimented in physical chemistry with carbon compounds. See CHEMISTRY: General: Modern: Lavoisier's theories.

LE BOEUF, Capture of. See CANADA: 1759 (July-August).

LEBRUN, Charles (1619-1690), French painter. See PAINTING: French.

LEBRUN, Pierre Henri Tondu (1763-1793), French journalist. Elected to the department of foreign affairs, 1792; executed, 1793. See FRANCE: 1792 (August).

LEBUCQUIÈRE, town in France, northeast of Bapaume. It was attacked and taken by the Germans in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 12.

LE CATEAU, town in northeast France, about fifteen miles southeast of Cambrai. It was a scene of conflict during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: n; 1918: II. Western front: m; r.

LE CATELET, village in northeastern France, about twelve miles south of Cambrai. It was in the region of fighting in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: o, 3.

LECH, Battle of (1632). See GERMANY: 1631-1632.

LÈCHELLE, town in France, southeast of Bapaume. It was a scene of fighting in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 11.

LECHER, Otto, Moravian representative in Austrian diet, 1897. See AUSTRIA: 1897 (October-December).

LECHITSKY, Russian commander of an army-group under Brussilov in the World War. Met with considerable success in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 6; 1916: III. Eastern front: a, to a, 3.

LECKY, William Edward Hartpole (1838-1903), Irish historian and publicist. See HISTORY: 7.

LECLERC, Charles Victor Emmanuel (1772-1802), French general. Leader of a large expedition against the negro insurrection in Santo Domingo, 1801. See HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1632-1803.

LECOMPTON CONSTITUTION, Kansas proslavery constitution framed, 1857. See KANSAS: 1854-1859.

LECONTE DE LISLE, Charles Marie René (1818-1894), French poet. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1885.

LE CREUSOT, city in east-central France, fifty-five miles southwest of Dijon. It has the greatest iron works in the republic and has been famous since the Crimean War for the manufacture of guns, armor-plate, and locomotives.

LEDEBOUR, George (1850-), German journalist and Socialist leader. Editor of the *Vorwärts* and other Socialist newspapers; member of Reichstag, 1900-1918; strongly opposed the World War from its beginning and advocated a Socialist revolution to abolish the monarchy long before that institution fell. See SOCIALISM: 1912-1918.

LEDLIE, James Hewett (1832-1882), American brigadier-general. Served at the siege of Petersburg, 1864. See U.S.A.: 1864 (July: Virginia).

LEDRU-ROLLIN, Alexandre Auguste (1807-1874), French labor and political leader. Became leader of the extreme left in the chamber of deputies, 1841; minister of the interior in the provisional government, 1848; accused of plotting against the life of Napoleon III, 1857. See FRANCE: 1842-1848.

LEE, Ann (1736-1784), English founder of the American Society of Shakers. See SHAKERS.

LEE, Arthur (1740-1792), American diplomat and statesman. Commissioner to France, 1776; delegate to Continental Congress, 1782-1785. See U.S.A.: 1776-1778; GERMANY: 1761-1779.

LEE, Charles (1731-1782), British-American soldier. Served in the American Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1775 (May-August); 1776 (June): British repulsed at Charleston; 1776 (July); (August); 1776-1777: Washington's retreat; 1778 (June).

LEE, Fitzhugh (1835-1905), American general. Served in the Confederate army during the Civil War; governor of Virginia, 1886-1889; consul-general in Havana, Cuba, 1896-1898; major-general of volunteers, 1898, in Spanish American War. See CUBA: 1898-1899 (December-October).

LEE, Francis Lightfoot (1734-1797), American patriot. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

LEE, Henry (Light-horse Harry) (1756-1818), American general. Served in the American Revolution; governor of Virginia, 1792-1795; member of congress, 1799-1801; appointed major-general, 1812. See U.S.A.: 1780-1781; 1812 (June-October).

LEE, Joseph (1862-), American social worker. Promoter of the playground movement. See RECREATION: 1906-1914.

LEE, Richard Henry (1732-1794), American statesman. Delegate to first continental congress,

1774; member of Congress, 1775; introduced resolutions for independence, June, 1776; United States senator from Virginia, 1789-1792. See U.S.A.: 1774 (September); 1776 (January-June): King George's war measures; 1776 (June): Resolutions for independence; 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence; 1776 (July): Authorship; 1787-1789.

LEE, Robert Edward (1807-1870), American general. Commander-in-chief of the armies of the Confederate states during the Civil War; president of Washington College, 1865-1870.

Campaign in West Virginia. See U.S.A.: 1861 (August-December: West Virginia).

Peninsular campaign. See U.S.A.: 1862 (June: Virginia); 1862 (July-August: Virginia): End of Peninsular campaign.

Campaign against Pope. See U.S.A.: 1862 (July-August: Virginia): Beginning of Pope's campaign; 1862 (August: Virginia); 1862 (August-September: Virginia).

First invasion of Maryland. See U.S.A.: 1862 (September: Maryland); MARYLAND: 1862.

Campaign against Burnside. See U.S.A.: 1862 (October-December: Virginia).

Campaign against Hooker. See U.S.A.: 1863 (April-May: Virginia).

Second movement of invasion.—Gettysburg and after. See U.S.A.: 1863 (June: Virginia); 1863 (June-July: Pennsylvania); 1863 (July-November: Virginia).

Last campaigns. See U.S.A.: 1864 (May: Virginia), to 1865 (April: Virginia): Abandonment of Richmond.

LEE, William (1737-1795), American diplomat. Commissioner to Vienna and Berlin, 1778. See U.S.A.: 1776-1778.

LEE, Fort: Capture of. See U.S.A.: 1776 (September-November).

LEE OF FAREHAM, Arthur Hamilton, 1st Baron (1868-), appointed director-general of food production committee, 1916. See FOOD REGULATION: 1914-1918: Legislative enactments in Great Britain.

LEECH RESERVATION, Indian reservation on Leech lake, Minnesota. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1898.

LEEDS, Thomas Osborne, 1st Duke of (Earl of Danby) (1631-1712), English statesman. Entered Parliament, 1665; Lord High Treasurer, 1673; 1st earl of Danby, 1674; was impeached in 1678 on the charge of carrying on treasonable negotiations with Louis XIV of France (see ENGLAND: 1678-1679); forced to resign the treasurership, and was imprisoned in the Tower; became president of the council, 1689; again impeached for bribery, 1695, but the charges were not sustained; retired from office, 1699.

LEEDS, city in England, twenty-two miles southwest of York. It has long been an important center of British woolen manufactures.

1643.—Battle at.—Leeds, occupied by the Royalists, under Sir William Savile, was taken by Sir Thomas Fairfax, after hard fighting, on the 23d of January, 1643.—C. R. Markham, *Life of the great Lord Fairfax, ch.* 9.

1913-1914.—Municipal strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1913-1914.

LEEDS AND LIVERPOOL CANAL. See CANALS: Principal European canals: British Isles.

LEESBURG, or Ball's Bluff, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1861 (October: Virginia): Affair at Ball's Bluff.

LEEUWENHOEK, Anthony Van (1632-1723), Dutch microscopist. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th-18th centuries: Introduction of the microscope in medicine.

LEEWARD ISLANDS, group of islands in the West Indies. See WEST INDIES: Location; MONTSERRAT; BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent; also NEVIS.

LEFÈBVRE, Pierre François Joseph, Duke of Danzig (1755-1820), marshal of France. Took part in the revolutionary wars from Fleurus to Stokach; assisted Napoleon during the coup d'état of 18 Brumaire, 1799; conducted the siege of Danzig, 1806-1807 (see GERMANY: 1807 [February-June]); commanded a corps in Spain, 1808-1809; commanded the Imperial Guard in Russia, 1812; made a peer of France by Louis XVIII, but joined Napoleon during the Hundred Days.

LE FÈRE, Battle of. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: p, 5.

LEFÈVRE, or Faber, Jacques (surnamed **Stapulensis**) (c. 1450-1537), French scholar and reformer. See PAPACY: 1521-1535.

LEFT PARTY. See RIGHT, LEFT AND CENTER.

LEGAL AID: Origin of legal aid work.—Formation of the National Alliance.—Extent of work in United States.—"Organized legal aid work began its history in the city of New York in the year 1876. For nearly a century there had been in that city an association called the German Society, which had an especial interest in German immigrants. Following the Civil War there was a great German emigration; and to meet the legal questions which were constantly arising, particularly with reference to the protection of newly arrived immigrants, the German Society appointed a special legal committee. By 1875 the burden of legal work had become so great that it was suggested by Sigismund Kaufmann and Charles Hauselt that a separate society be formed. Accordingly, early in the year 1876 a group of American citizens of German birth and members of The German Society in New York met at the law office of Edward Salomon, an ex-governor of Wisconsin, for the purpose of forming an association, and on March 8, 1876, their organization was incorporated under the name of 'Der Deutsche Rechtsschütz Verein.' Their purpose, as the original constitution stated, was 'to render legal aid and assistance, gratuitously, to those of German birth, who may appear worthy thereof, but who from poverty are unable to procure it.' Ex-Governor Salomon was elected president, offices were opened at 39 Nassau Street, and an attorney, who had his own law practice, was paid a salary to take charge of the cases of the new organization. The organization was made efficient and business-like. Careful records of the cases and of sums collected for clients were made, and excellent reports, written in German, were published each year. In 1879 the directors voted that on all collections of over twenty dollars the Society should charge a commission of ten per cent, and in 1881 the charge was extended to all collections above ten dollars."—R. H. Smith, *Justice and the poor* (*Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin no.* 13).

United States: Legal aid societies in New York state.—The Legal Aid Society of New York was organized in 1876 for the purpose of rendering "legal aid gratuitously if necessary to all who may appear worthy thereof and who are unable to procure assistance elsewhere, and to promote measures for their protection."—*Constitution of the Legal Aid Society.*—The New York Legal Aid Society has a main office; a Brooklyn branch, a Harlem branch; a West Side branch; and a Seamen's branch. The officers are Egerton L. Winthrop,

president; Carl L. Schurz, vice-president; Allen Wardwell, treasurer; Cornelius P. Kitchel, secretary; and Leonard McGee, attorney-in-chief. "The criminal branch was started on May 11th, 1910, in which all worthy cases of a criminal nature were considered. Edwin T. Gibson, an able attorney, handled these cases. Up to the end of December of the same year, this Branch had entertained two hundred and five complaints, covering almost every phase of the criminal law. The effects of this feature of the activity of The Legal Aid Society began to be felt by those who heretofore had made it a practice of squeezing a poor prisoner, and then neglecting his interests at the trial. It was originally the idea to assign the attorney-in-charge of the criminal work to the Essex Market Police Court, where he would hold himself ready and willing to assist those in need of legal services who were too poor to engage private counsel. The Essex Market Court was selected because of the extreme poverty which exists on the lower East Side, where assistance such as the Society was willing to give gratuitously was most needed. After this action by The Legal Aid Society, the District Attorney assigned a deputy to each of the Police Courts, and when it was learned that the work accomplished by these assistants was practically the same as the Society's representative had been doing, the procedure was changed, and the criminal work transferred to the Main Office at No. 239 Broadway, where it continues to render effective service."—J. P. Schmitt, *History of the Legal Aid Society of New York (pamphlet), pp.* 40-41.—"Outside of New York City . . . there is organized legal aid work in Rochester and Buffalo which receives some support from the bar associations of those cities. The Charitable Organization Society of Yonkers has established a Legal Aid Committee in that city and there is a legal aid society located in New Rochelle which serves Westchester County. . . . A legal aid bureau is also attached to the Commissioner of Charities of the City and County of Albany. In New York City we find the Legal Aid Society of New York, the Legal Aid Bureau of the Educational Alliance, the Voluntary Defenders' Society, and the National Desertion Bureau. . . . The Legal Aid Society . . . has been successfully carrying on a very active work but is handicapped for lack of funds. Not long ago it was obliged to close one of its six offices on this account, but besides its main office at 239 Broadway it still maintains offices for seamen, on the West side, in Harlem, and in Brooklyn. . . . During the last year [1919] 34,355 persons applied to it for legal aid relief, while the expenses of the Society were approximately $47,000. . . . Its revenue in 1919 consisted of less than $13,000 in members' dues and $26,000 in donations. To maintain the work it was necessary to borrow $2,500 in 1918 and $1,000 in 1919. During the . . . [World War] practically every legal aid society opened its doors to service men."—*Report of the Committee on Legal Aid Societies to the New York State Bar Association (Legal Aid Review, Apr.,* 1920, *pp.* 2-3).—"In the year 1919 there were about 34,000 cases [before the New York Society], of which 14,000 did not involve money. Of the latter about 3,600 related to domestic difficulties. Of the 20,000 cases involving money, one-half were wage claims, the rest covering a wide range."—C. E. Hughes, *Justice and the poor (Legal Aid Review, Oct.,* 1920).

United States: Historical retrospect.—Societies in Chicago, Boston, Newark, Los Angeles, Duluth and other cities.—"The patient work performed faithfully, year after year, by The Legal Aid Society of . . . [New York] City, and the noble example set of relieving the distress of poor but worthy litigants, had made themselves felt in other places and stimulated an increasing interest in legal aid work throughout the entire country. Legal Aid Societies on the model of the New York Society, which is the oldest Society of its kind in this or any other country, were started in Newark, N. J.; Boston, Mass.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Chicago, Ill.; Cleveland, O.; Pittsburgh, Pa.; Rochester, N. Y.; Westchester County, N. Y.; Los Angeles, Cal.; Kansas City, Mo.; Baltimore, Md.; Cincinnati, O.; St. Louis, Mo.; Buffalo, N. Y., and other cities."—J. P. Schmitt, *History of Legal Aid Society of New York (pamphlet), p.* 45.—"As in New York, the frauds perpetrated on immigrants called attention to their legally defenceless condition and led to the formation of a society to help them, so in Chicago the great number of seductions and debaucheries of young girls under the guise of proffered employment aroused the women of the city and led, through the instrumentality of the Chicago Woman's Club, to the formation in 1886 of an organization which was the next year incorporated under the title of The Protective Agency for Women and Children. Like the New York society, there was no vision of a general rendering of legal assistance to poor persons. By force of circumstances, however, the work did outgrow its original limits, and although still confined to assistance for women and children, was extended to include all legal difficulties presented by such persons. From an extremely small beginning of about six cases a month, the work rapidly grew to formidable proportions. In 1888, on the initiation of the Ethical Culture Society of Chicago, there was established in that city a second organization, which was named the Bureau of Justice. This was, in fact, the first true legal aid organization. It undertook to supply legal services in all cases to all persons, regardless of nationality, race, or sex. . . . In 1900 a group of attorneys in Boston, all closely identified with the Bar Association, felt a clear demand by the poor of the city for the assistance of counsel, and decided to form an organization like that in New York. In April a charter of incorporation was granted, which stated the title to be 'The Boston Legal Aid Society.' Up to this time there was no standard nomenclature; there was one Legal Aid Society, one Protective Agency, one Bureau of Justice, and one Poor Man's Lawyer. With its adoption in Boston, and later elsewhere, the term 'legal aid' grew into the standard and uniform name for this sort of organization. It has become something akin to a trademark. The new society in Boston took over what appeared to be the New York policy and decided to reject criminal cases. . . . The New Jersey Legal Aid Association came into existence in 1901. The facts about this organization are not entirely clear. Plans were begun in 1897 to bring about a state, instead of a city, organization, and this was carried through in name, but the object was not realized. The Association became, in fact, the legal aid society for Newark, and although, when the society was incorporated in 1907, the state name of 'The New Jersey Legal Aid Society' was retained, the organization was, and is, a local organization doing its work in Newark. . . . In 1914 the Los Angeles Public Defender's office, charged also with the responsibility of civil work, was opened, and the work in Duluth was taken over by the city. In 1915 the municipalities took over the work in St. Louis and Dayton, and in Dallas the Board of Public Welfare created a Free

Legal Aid Bureau. . . . In 1916 the city of Omaha established a public society; the people of Hartford voted on referendum to have a municipal legal aid bureau; and in Columbus a public defender was provided. In Washington and New Haven the Harvard plan of a law school legal aid society was put into effect by students in the George Washington and Yale Law Schools. Strong organizations came into being in San Francisco and Milwaukee, and lesser, but still important, societies were started in Columbus, Nashville, Plainfield, Richmond, and San Diego."—R. H. Smith, *Justice and the poor* (*Carnegie Foundation for Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin no.* 13).

United States: Conferences and Conventions.—"For the purpose of bringing the various Legal Aid Societies in close touch with one another, and discussing the legal aid work as now conducted, a conference of The Legal Aid Societies of the country was called by the Pittsburgh Legal Aid Society. This conference, which was, in fact, the First National Convention of Legal Aid Societies of America, was held on November 10, 1911, in the Chamber of Commerce at Pittsburgh, Pa. The outcome of this first annual conference which was attended by representatives from fourteen legal aid societies was the appointment of a Committee to draft a plan for the establishment of a national organization in the nature of a Legal Aid Clearing House."—J. P. Schmitt, *History of Legal Aid Society of New York* (*pamphlet*), *p.* 45.—"A conference was held in New York in 1912, at which time the National Alliance of Legal Aid Societies was formed, and a constitution and by-laws were adopted. As has generally been the case in the history of American institutions, this initial attempt at federation resulted in producing a very weak central body, lacking both the funds and the power to provide any real leadership. Legal aid work having developed entirely as a local growth, it was inevitable that local feeling should run high in the sense that each organization was afraid to surrender any authority to a central governing body. The Alliance has called two conventions, one at Chicago in 1914 and one in Cincinnati in 1916, and its president has done some work in foreign cases, but beyond that it has amounted to nothing. The fourth period, consisting of the last four years up to 1918, constitutes the most remarkable chapter in the entire history. The idea spread very rapidly, reaching out to the Pacific Coast and into the Southwest, until nearly all of the larger cities in the United States had established legal aid organizations. Whereas in 1914 there were twenty-eight societies, in 1917 there were forty-one societies, among which number are included two public defender organizations doing civil as well as criminal work."—R. H. Smith, *Justice and the poor* (*Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin no.* 13).

United States: Important factors in administration of legal aid.—Ford Legal Aid bureau.—"In March, 1901, the New York Labor Secretariat, a specialized form of legal aid work which has failed to make headway in this country, was formed. Germany had learned of organized legal aid work from New York, and the idea had promptly been put into general effect, with the modification that the agencies which established legal aid bureaus were religious groups, political parties, and labor unions. From Germany the conception of a labor union legal aid society came back to New York and the Labor Secretariat was created. Its work is in every respect like that of a legal aid society, but its membership is restricted to persons in unions which have joined the plan. It is a coöperative idea closely resembling the similar arrangement more generally in vogue for providing physician's services. The Secretariat plan was never formally extended beyond New York, and it is perhaps fortunate, for if legal aid work had developed along class or group lines, its real position in the administration of justice, the essentially public nature of its service, would have been obscured. Philadelphia was next in line, following closely the New York pattern, and getting under way in September, 1902."—R. H. Smith, *Justice and the poor* (*Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin no.* 13).—"Through the co-operation with the North American Civic League for Immigrants who had in 1911 retained and paid special counsel of The Legal Aid Society, Edwin T. Gibson, Esq., to conduct its cases for the poor, a new branch office of The Legal Aid Society was opened in March, 1912, at No. 127 Madison Avenue, called the 'Immigration Branch.' It is actively engaged in the handling of cases referred to it by the New York State Bureau of Industry & Immigration, and the North American Civic League for Immigrants, which require legal advice and prosecution in the civil courts."—J. P. Schmitt, *History of Legal Aid Society of New York* (*pamphlet*), *p.* 41.—"As a sort of complement to the Labor Secretariat, which typifies legal aid by employees, there is in Detroit the Ford Legal Aid Bureau, which represents legal aid by employers. This Bureau was started in March, 1914, as a part of the general welfare work which is carried on in the Ford Factories. The Bureau is a division of the company's legal department. It has its office in the main factory building, and has a staff of four attorneys. The Bureau is chiefly interested in searching titles for men buying their homes under the profit-sharing plan, in protecting them from fraudulent insurance agents and others, in taking care of garnishment suits, and in facilitating naturalization proceedings. The Bureau gives general advice, but does not usually undertake litigation. . . . [Besides the organizations, already described, by which the poor are aided to obtain justice, special courts have been created in some states.] The Kansas small claims courts, which are to be found in Topeka, Leavenworth, and Kansas City under the name of 'Small Debtors' Courts,' were made possible by a 1913 act of the legislature. The law was drawn by the attorney-general, who, so the story goes, had the inadequacy of our regular courts brought vividly to his attention by the fact that a washerwoman, in whom he was interested, was owed three dollars by a well-to-do man, who refused to pay her and whom she was unable to sue because she could not pay the necessary counsel fees and costs. Having in mind the informality of some of the Canadian courts in hearing small matters, he wrote a bill, which was passed and became law on March 15, 1913."—R. H. Smith, *Justice and the poor* (*Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin no.* 13).

Conciliation in Europe.—"In Norway and Denmark courts of conciliation have existed since 1795. The court has jurisdiction of every civil proceeding, and before any lawsuit can be instituted the dispute must be submitted to the local conciliation commission which consists of two members. . . . The costs are seventy-five cents, the hearings are in secret in order that no disclosures may prejudice subsequent litigation, and lawyers are rigidly excluded. Proceedings are most informal, the disputants tell their own stories, and the conciliation commissioners endeavor to

guide them to a fair adjustment. As conciliation has no validity except what it obtains from the voluntary consent of the litigants themselves, it would be wholly worthless unless it worked. But it appears that in Norway 75 per cent and in Denmark 90 per cent of all litigation is peaceably adjusted through judicial conciliation. Precise figures for the Norwegian courts in 1888 are known. The total number of civil cases brought was 103,969, of which 2300 were dismissed by the Conciliation Commissioners. Of the remaining 101,669 conciliation produced adjustments agreeable to the litigants in 81,015 cases, and in addition 7886 were submitted to the Conciliation Court by the parties for decision. Thus only 12,768 cases went to the regular courts for formal litigation, this informal preliminary tribunal of conciliation having disposed of 87 per cent of all matters to the satisfaction of both parties. That the method of conciliation works no injustice is well attested by the fact that throughout a period of over a century during which constitutions have been liberalized and systems of law recast, the courts of conciliation have not only been left intact, but have steadily been strengthened and perfected. In the industrial courts of France, Switzerland, and Germany which have jurisdiction over disputes between employers and employees, conciliation plays a leading part. These courts, whose history began in France in 1806, had no counterpart in American judicial institutions, with the exception of an isolated attempt made in Pennsylvania in 1883, which immediately failed, until the creation of the small claims courts. The essential features of the system are the same as those already described. These courts accomplish their great volume of work by conciliation and not by trial and judgment. Conciliation is frankly their primary object. The statistics again show that conciliation fits in with human nature and that, when rightly conducted, it is very successful."—R. H. Smith, *Justice and the poor (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin no.* 13).

Great Britain: Report of the Committee to enquire into the poor persons rules.—Recommendation.—In the report of the committee submitted to the lord chancellor in 1919 the following recommendation was found: "As to establishing an official to conduct poor persons cases: It has been impossible to make the present investigation without having had our attention prominently called to the question of establishing a Government official to deal with Poor Persons cases. After giving this matter our careful consideration, we have come to the conclusion that it would be most undesirable that Poor Persons cases should be undertaken by such an official. As regards all cases except Matrimonial cases, an official is certainly not required. As regards Matrimonial cases, the official would in most cases have to undertake the impossible task of acting on both sides. Two officials would have to be constituted, one for Petitioners and the other for Respondents. Except as a last resort, it would, in our opinion, be highly objectionable to create an official to conduct private litigation, and much more two officials, who would be constantly litigating against one another. If an official or officials were established, there would be no efficient check on the question of means and the result might be that many small cases would be conducted at the expense of the country where the litigants were able to pay the ordinary costs. Moreover, if a Government Department for this purpose were once established, it would be an easy matter for the Government of the day to increase the limit as to means and thus to undertake cases which solicitors and barristers would ordinarily undertake at a reasonable profit. In our opinion it would be far better [so long at all events as there is no public fund out of which to defray the costs of Poor Persons litigation] to allow the work to be done by private practitioners, who would have the greatest interest in seeing that the privileges granted to Poor Persons were not abused."—*Committee to enquire into the poor persons rules, Cmd.* 430, *Order* 16, *RR.* 22-31, *Report, Presented to Parliament by command of His Majesty, p.* 9.

ALSO IN: *Legal Aid Review*, 1903 to date.—A. V. Briesen, *Legal Aid Society.—First Conference of the Legal Aid Societies to the United States held under the auspices of the Legal Aid Society of Pittsburgh* (1911).

LEGAL COSTUME. See COSTUME: Survivals.

LEGAL MEMORY. See COMMON LAW: 1189.

LEGAL TENDER, currency which the law recognizes and requires a creditor to receive in payment of debt. It differs in different countries according to the law.—See also BIMETALISM.

LEGAL TENDER CASES, series of cases decided by the United States Supreme Court in the period, 1869 to 1884. During the Civil War, Congress thought it necessary to issue paper money which should be legal tender.

"When the regular session of Congress, the first of Mr. Lincoln's administration, met in December, 1861, Mr. Chase had had several months of rather dire experience as a war financier. It is not too much to say that he had exhausted the ordinary resources of his office. The credit of the government on the face of things was sensibly higher at the end of 1861 than it had been in the first months of the year. Bonds and Treasury notes bearing 7 and 7 3-10 per cent. interest were now sold in limited amounts at par while earlier in the year they could have been disposed of only at a discount. Nevertheless, it was certain that little more was to be expected from the banks and while Jay Cooke's marked success in selling the seven-thirty notes to the people for specie, or its equivalent, was encouraging, and, by more generous support on Mr. Chase's part, might have been continued to the great advantage of the government, the question is very problematical. In any case the country was on the verge of a suspension of specie payments. . . . With the great financial influences of Europe openly hostile, loans could have been sought in vain except at very large discounts on bonds taken by usurers and speculators. The London *Economist* said about this time: 'It is utterly out of the question in our judgment that the Americans can obtain either at home or in Europe anything like the extravagant sums they are asking—for Europe will not lend them; America cannot.' The London *Times* remarked to the same text: 'No pressure that ever threatened is equal to that which now hangs over the United States; and it may safely be said that, if in future generations they faithfully meet their liabilities, they will fairly earn a fame which will shine throughout the world.' This was the actual financial situation when Congress met in December and Mr. Chase knew very definitely and practically, what Lincoln, Seward and the other government leaders realized only somewhat less clearly, that if the nation were to survive in such a war as this one had become, new and much greater sources of income must be sought and found at once. Secretary Chase in his report to Congress at its meeting in December recommended two

radical new measures, the issue of a considerable amount of interest-bearing paper currency and notes to be emitted through banking associations, the germ of the idea which later bore fruit in the national banking law. Mr. Chase at this time openly deprecated the issue of legal tenders saying that the possible disasters so far outweigh the probable benefits of the plan that he feels himself constrained to forbear recommending its adoption. It is true that in casting about for useful expedients after the battle of Bull Run, $50,000,000 of so-called 'demand notes,' authorized by the loan bill of July 17, 1861, had been issued by the Treasury Department. They were non-interest bearing and at first it was with the greatest difficulty that any one could be found to receive them. They could be given out in payment of government debts only after Secretary Chase, his assistant, George Harrington, and other officers in the Treasury Department had signed a paper, pledging themselves to receive the new notes on their salary accounts. Shopkeepers, hotel proprietors, railway station agents and banks hesitated, or openly refused to take them against Mr. Chase's vigorous protests. By the supplementary act of August 5, 1861, they were made a legal currency for the payment of import duties, a very valuable advantage. Moreover, the issue was so limited that no danger to credit or values could be anticipated and their superior points later became quite clear, since they soon commanded a handsome premium over other sorts of government paper money. This measure as we have noted had Secretary Chase's cordial approval and it was only when the proposal was made to increase the emission of this kind of money and force the loan upon the country by a legal tender provision it being assumed that no more notes of this character would be received by the people with their consent, that he expressed his misgivings. There were then in Congress, as there have been in all Congresses both before and since, many members with none of the Secretary's conscientious qualms on the currency question. At the head of the group of men who were ready to cast to the winds the teachings of experience was Thaddeus Stevens, the powerful leader from Pennsylvania, then Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means. It was his delight to pour the vials of his vehement ridicule upon the natural safeguards of wise governments and honest nations on the subject of money. He was supported by such members as Elbridge G. Spaulding of New York, who has rather proudly taken to himself the credit for the policy which was soon to be inaugurated and the course of military events was such that the country was swept quickly, perhaps imperatively into the legal tender issues. The greenback was then, and for years afterward, one of the most hotly and ill-natured debated subjects in the financial policy of the United States, and it will always remain a nice problem to argue whether by pursuing any other course the Northern leaders could have prosecuted the war. . . . Convincing himself that his national banking law could not soon be passed Mr. Chase was rapidly converted to the views of the legal tender men. Nothing more could be done under the law of July 17, or by any similar measure, in the existing state of affairs, and the new proposal took the form of a bill authorizing an emission of $50,000,000 (raised to $150,000,000) of greenbacks made a legal tender by government fiat for all purposes except the payment of import duties and interest on the debt, with an issue of six per cent bonds redeemable in not less than five nor more than twenty years, the currency being convertible at the will of the holder into the interest bearing securities. There was a prejudice both North and South against legal tender paper and a deep-seated doubt as to the constitutionality of legislation authorizing it. The plea was the necessity of the hour; it was defended even by those who seem to have known the least of the evils of debased standards, such as Stevens and Spaulding, as a war measure. Mr. Spaulding wrote on January 8, 1862, that it was 'a measure of necessity and not one of choice. We will be out of means to pay the daily expenses in about thirty days and the committee do not see any other way to get along till we can get the tax bills ready.' Mr. Chase still regretted the proposed step but on January 22, 1862, promised his co-operation. A week later (January 29) he wrote that 'the condition of the Treasury certainly needs immediate action'; it was 'impossible,' said he, 'in consequence of the large expenditures entailed by the war and the suspension of the banks to procure sufficient coin for disbursements.' It had become, he continued, 'indispensably necessary that we should resort to the issue of United States notes.' On February 3d the Secretary wrote to Mr. Spaulding and concluded his letter with these earnest words: 'Immediate action is of great importance. The Treasury is nearly empty. I have been obliged to draw for the last installment of the November loan, so soon as it is paid. I fear the banks generally will refuse to receive the United States notes. You will see the necessity of urging the bill through without more delay.' . . . Thus the first legal tender bill passed the House of Representatives on February 6, 1862, to meet in the Senate the same antagonism from sober heads, finally overcoming all its enemies, through the arguments which prevailed in the other branch of Congress, although the senators insisted upon a clause requiring the interest on the bonds to be paid in gold, and provided means for the accomplishment of this necessary object which in conference took the form of a stipulation that only gold (and the demand notes of July 17, 1861) should be receivable at the custom houses. The imports it was thought would always be large enough to insure a sufficient gold income, if it were set aside and applied to this use as the law required it to be, to pay the interest on the national debt. On February 25, 1862, the legal tender act became a law."—E. P. Oberholtzer, *Jay Cooke, financier of the civil war, v. 1, pp.* 168-174. —After the war, the constitutionality of the act was questioned. In November, 1869, in the case of Hepburn vs. Griswold, the Supreme Court, by vote of 5 to 3, decided that the act was unconstitutional. Immediately thereafter, an act increasing the number of associate justices from seven to eight, went into effect. In 1870 one of the old associate justices resigned, and two new ones were appointed to make the required number. It was then decided to reargue the above case, which was done, and the former decision was reversed, thus making the Legal Tender Act constitutional. In 1878 an act of Congress decided that the legal tender notes should be re-issued and kept in circulation. This aroused considerable controversy, as the Legal Tender Act was thought by some to have been a war measure. In the case of Juilliard vs. Greenman, decided in 1884, the Supreme Court held that the power of Congress to make United States notes legal tender in payment of private debts was constitutional in time of peace as well as in time of war. That closed the question.—See also MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1861-1864; 1874-1890; SUPREME COURT: 1867-1884.

ALSO IN: D. R. Dewey, *Financial history of the*

United States.—A. B. Hart, *Biography of Salmon P. Chase.*—S. T. Spear, *Legal Tender Acts considered in their relation to their constitutionality and their political economy.*—S. P. Breckenridge, *Legal Tender.*—A. B. Hepburn, *History of coin and currency in the United States.*

LE GALLIENNE, Richard (1866-), English poet and journalist. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1880-1920.

LEGANEZ, Diego Guzman, Marques of, Spanish general. Appointed governor of Milan, 1636; leader of the Spanish armies in Italy against the French and Italians. See ITALY: 1635-1659.

LEGASPI, Miguel Lopez de (d. 1572), Spanish navigator. Conqueror of the Philippines. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1564-1572.

LEGATE, the associate, second in authority, to a Roman commander or provincial governor. (See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 10.) The title is now generally confined to the highest class of diplomatic representatives of the pope. Occasionally it is used in its original Latin sense ("to send as deputy") for any diplomatic agent. The history of the office of papal legate is closely involved with the history of the papacy. Augustine of Canterbury is sometimes spoken of as legate. The policy of Gregory VII led to a great development of the legatine as distinguished from the ordinary emissary. From the creation of the medieval papal monarchy until the end of the Middle Ages, the papal legate played a very important part in the making of history as well as in church matters. After the sixteenth century the legate became of less importance than the nuncio. See also NUNCIO.

ALSO IN: E. L. Taunton, *Law of the church.*

LEGEN. See BAUERNLEGEN.

LEGES BARBARORUM. See CIVIL LAW: B.C. 100-A.D. 550.

LEGES JULIÆ, LEGES SEMPRONIÆ, etc. See JULIAN LAWS; SEMPRONIAN LAWS, etc.

LEGHORN, city in Tuscany, Italy, chief town of the province of Livorno. It is the next important commercial city in Italy after Genoa. In 1915 it had a population of 108,585. Leghorn belonged to Pisa in the 11th century; then to the Visconti of Milan; and from 1404 to 1405 to the French, who sold it to Genoa. In 1421 the Florentines purchased it and with the rise of the Medici came a rapid increase of prosperity. Leghorn was declared free and neutral in 1691 and permanently invested with these qualities by the Quadruple Alliance in 1718. In 1796 Napoleon seized all the hostile vessels in the port. Under the law of 1867 Leghorn ceased to be a free city.—See also LIVORNINA, DECREE OF.

LEGIO. See LEON.

LEGION, American. See AMERICAN LEGION.

LEGION, Roman.—"The original order of a Roman army was, as it seems, similar to the phalanx; but the long unbroken line had been divided into smaller detachments since, and perhaps by Camillus. The long wars in the Samnite mountains naturally caused the Romans to retain and to perfect this organisation, which made their army more movable and pliable, without preventing the separate bodies quickly combining and forming in one line. The legion now [at the time of the war with Pyrrhus, 280 B.C.] consisted of thirty companies [called 'manipuli'] of the average strength of a hundred men, which were arranged in three lines of ten manipuli each, like the black squares on a chessboard. The manipuli of the first line consisted of the youngest troops, called 'hastati'; those of the second line, called 'principes,' were men in the full vigour of life; those of the third, the 'triarii,' formed a reserve of older soldiers, and were numerically only half as strong as the other two lines. The tactic order of the manipuli enabled the general to move the 'principes' forward into the intervals of the 'hastati,' or to withdraw the 'hastati' back into the intervals of the 'principes,' the 'triarii' being kept as a reserve. . . . The light troops were armed with javelins, and retired behind the solid mass of the manipuli as soon as they had discharged their weapons in front of the line, at the beginning of the combat."—W. Ihne, *History of Rome, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 16.*—"The legions, as they are described by Polybius, in the time of the Punic wars, differed very materially from those which achieved the victories of Cæsar, or defended the monarchy of Hadrian and the Antonines. The constitution of the Imperial legion may be described in a few words. The heavy-armed infantry, which composed its principal strength, was divided into ten cohorts, and fifty-five companies, under the orders of a corresponding number of tribunes and centurions. The first cohort, which always claimed the post of honour and the custody of the eagle, was formed of 1,105 soldiers, the most approved for valour and fidelity. The remaining nine cohorts consisted each of 555; and the whole body of legionary infantry amounted to 6,100 men. . . . The legion was usually drawn up eight deep, and the regular distance of three feet was left between the files as well as ranks. . . . The cavalry, without which the force of the legion would have remained imperfect, was divided into ten troops or squadrons; the first, as the companion of the first cohort, consisted of 132 men; whilst each of the other nine amounted only to 66."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. 1.*

ALSO IN: W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman Antiquities, ch. 12.*

Under Marius. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 8.

Under Cæsar. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 9; 10.

Under Augustus. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 11.

LEGION OF HONOR, French order of distinction for civil and military service, instituted by Napoleon, 1802. See FRANCE: 1801-1809; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VIII. War medals: a.

LEGISLATURE: Division into two chambers. See BICAMERAL SYSTEM.

LEGISLATURES, State. See STATE GOVERNMENT.

LEGITIMISTS, name given to the supporters of the elder branch of the Bourbons. The revolution of 1830 that overthrew Charles X placed on the throne Louis Philippe, a descendant of the younger brother of Louis XIV, as "the Regent" during the minority of Louis XV. In the two parties formed, both supporting Bourbons, the followers of the younger line were called Orléanists. Although the word *légitimiste* became well-known in 1830, it was not admitted by the Académie Française into the dictionary until 1878. On the fall of Napoleon III, the hopes of the Legitimists were centered in the Comte de Chambord; but this grandson of Charles X did not possess the gifts of a leader. After his death, the Legitimists supported the Comte de Paris, grandson of Louis Philippe, who represented both lines. Legitimists in Spanish history denote followers of Don Carlos de Bourbon (1788-1885), second son of Charles IV of Spain and his descendants, pretenders to the throne of Spain. Legitimists is also used for those who support the claims of hereditary monarchy as opposed to parliamentary selection.—See also FRANCE: 1830-1840.

LEGNANO, Battle of (1176). See ITALY: 1174-1183; GERMANY: 1138-1197.

LEGUIA Y SALCEDO, Augusto (1863-), Peruvian statesman. Minister of finance, 1903-1908; president of the republic, 1908-1912; expelled from the country by political enemies, 1914; elected president for a second term, 1919.—See also PERU: 1884-1908; 1908-1914; 1914-1916; 1919-1920.

LE HAVRE. See HAVRE.

LEIBL, Wilhelm (1844-1900), German painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

LEIBNITZ (Leibniz), Gottfried Wilhelm von (1646-1716), German philosopher and mathematician. Engaged in the reform of the legal procedure of the Electorate of Mayence, 1668-1669; sent on diplomatic mission to Paris, 1672-1676; court councillor and librarian in Hanover from 1676 until his death. "Leibniz became acquainted with the scholastic metaphysics at the university and subscribed to the traditional world-view of the Protestant schoolmen in his youth. But the study of modern philosophy and science and, especially, his discovery of the infinitesimal calculus, caused a significant advance in his thought, and suggested the necessity of a theory that would do justice to the achievements of modern science and philosophy as well as to the valuable elements in Christian-scholastic speculation,—a system, in short, that would reconcile mechanism and teleology, natural science and theology, modern and ancient philosophy. And the mathematician Weigel of Jena, his teacher, had convinced him of the truth of a conception that remained the basis and guiding principle of all his later efforts to construct a world-view: the Pythagorean-Platonic notion of the harmony of the universe. He never abandoned the idea that the universe is a harmonious whole, governed by the mathematical and logical principles, that mathematics and metaphysics are, therefore, the fundamental sciences and the demonstrative method the true method of philosophy."—F. Thilly, *History of philosophy, pp.* 365-366.—At the age of nineteen Leibnitz published his remarkable thesis, "Disputatio Metaphysica de Principio Individui." His other works include: "Specimen Difficultatis in Jure," 1664, "Nouveau système de la nature," 1695, "Essais de théodicée," 1710, "Principes de la nature et de la grâce," 1714, "Nouveaux essais sur l'entendement humain," posthumous, 1765.—See also EVOLUTION: Historical development of the idea; GERMAN LITERATURE: 1600-1750; HISTORY: 25; INTERNATIONAL LAW: Grotius and the early jurists.

ALSO IN: J. T. Merz, *Leibnitz.*—J. Dewey, *Leibnitz's new essays concerning human understanding.*

LEICESTER, Robert Dudley, Earl of (c. 1531-1588), English courtier and general. Fifth son of John Dudley, earl of Northumberland; helped to place his sister-in-law, Lady Jane Grey, on the throne, 1553; committed to the Tower of London and sentenced to death; pardoned, 1554; fought in the battle of St. Quentin, 1557; became the favorite of Queen Elizabeth; made earl of Leicester, 1564; appointed commander-in-chief of the army to the Low Countries, in aid of the States-General against Spain, 1585; recalled by the queen, 1588, and appointed lieutenant-general of the army to resist the Spanish invasion of England. See NETHERLANDS: 1585-1586; 1587-1588.

LEIF ERICSSON (fl. 999-1000), Scandinavian explorer, son of Eric the Red. First known European discoverer of North America. See AMERICA: 10th-11th centuries; GREENLAND: Early history; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: 7th-11th centuries.

LEINSTER, province in southeastern Ireland, extending westward to the Shannon river. See IRELAND: Historical map.

9th century.—Strife for control by kings of Cashel and Nialls. See IRELAND: 5th-9th centuries.

10th century.—Strife with Munster. See IRELAND: 9th-10th centuries.

11th-12th centuries.—Under Dermot MacMurrough.—Claims of Richard Strongbow. See IRELAND: 1014-1169; 1169-1200.

1367.—Irish county under Irish control. See IRELAND: 1327-1367.

LEINSTER, Book of, Irish manuscript of the 12th century, containing historical matter pertaining to the province of Leinster, and a large number of romances. The manuscript is now in Trinity College, Dublin.—See also MYTHOLOGY: Celtic: Christian era.

LEIPZIG, largest city in Saxony and third largest in Germany, located six miles from the Prussian frontier. (See GERMANY: Map.) Population (1919), 604,397. First a Slav settlement, it became German during the 10th century. It traded in salt produced at Halle and became a center for Nuremberg merchants trading with Poland in the 14th century. In the following century it was granted privileges by the emperors. It was besieged and captured during the Thirty Years' War, and was occupied by the Prussians in 1866.

1631.—First battle of Leipzig or Breitenfeld. See GERMANY: 1631.

1642.—Second battle of Leipzig or Breitenfeld.—Surrender to Swedes. See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

1645.—Ceded to Sweden by Peace of Brömsebro. See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

1813.—Occupied by the Prussians and Russians.—Regained by the French.—Great "Battle of the Nations." See GERMANY: 1812-1813; 1813 (April-May); (August-October); (October).

ALSO IN: C. Mullins, *Leipzig trials.*—R. H. Schauffler, *Home of Faust* (*Century Magazine, Mar.,* 1909).—A. von Ende, *Literary Leipzig* (*Bookman, June,* 1914).

LEIPZIG, German cruiser. It took part in the battle of Coronel, 1914, in which the British fleet was defeated, and was sunk a month later by the British in the battle of the Falkland islands.

LEIPZIG, University of. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 11th-12th centuries.

LEIPZIG INTERIM (1548). See GERMANY: 1546-1552.

LEISLER, Jacob (c. 1635-1691), American patriot and political agitator, of German birth. Captain of a military force in New York; headed the democratic movement which deposed the Jacobite lieutenant-governor, Francis Nicholson, and recognized the accession of William and Mary, 1689; assumed the powers of royal governor, 1689; executed for treason. See NEW YORK: 1689-1691.

LEISURE CLASS.—"The institution of a leisure class is found in its best development at the higher stages of the barbarian culture; as, for instance, in feudal Europe or feudal Japan. In such communities the distinction between classes is very rigorously observed and the feature of most striking economic significance in these class differences is the distinction maintained between the employments proper to the several classes."—T. B. Veblen, *Theory of the leisure class, p.* 1.—See also BRAHMANISM; CASTE SYSTEM; EUROPE: Middle Ages: Influence of feudalism; FEUDALISM.

LEITH, Concordat of. See SCOTLAND: 1572.

LEJEUNE, John Archer (1867-), American general. Commanded marine brigade and the

2nd division during part of the 1918 campaigns of the World War; took part in the battles of St. Mihiel, Blanc Mont Ridge, Meuse-Argonne, and the occupation of Coblenz, 1918-1919.

LEKHS. See Lygians.

LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY. See Universities and colleges: 1885.

LELANTIAN FIELDS, LELANTIAN FEUD. See Chalcis and Eretria; Eubœa.

LELEGES.—"The Greeks beyond the sea [Ionian Greeks of Asia Minor] were however not merely designated in groups, according to the countries out of which they came, but certain collective names existed for them—such as that of Javan in the East. . . . Among all these names the most widely spread was that of the Leleges, which the ancients themselves designated as that of a mixed people. In Lycia, in Miletus, and in the Troad these Leleges had their home; in other words, on the whole extent of coast in which we have recognized the primitive seats of the people of Ionic Greeks."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece, bk. 1, ch. 2.*—See also Dorians; Ionians.

Also in: K. M. Deimling, *Die Leleger.*

LELIAERDS.—In the mediæval annals of the Flemish people, the partisans of the French are called "Leliaerds," from "lelie," the Flemish for lily.—Based on J. Hutton, *James and Philip van Arteveld, p. 32, foot-note.*

LE LOUTRE, Louis Joseph (c. 1690-c. 1770), French missionary and vicar-general of Acadia. See Nova Scotia: 1755.

LE MAIRE, Jacob (1565-1616), Dutch navigator. See Pacific ocean: 1513-1764.

LEMAÎTRE, François Élie Jules (1853-1915), French dramatist and critic. See French literature: 1800-1921: Romantic and idealistic novel, etc.

LEMAN, Gérard Joseph Mathieu Georges (1851-1920), Belgian general. Commander of Fort Loncin at Liége during the attack by the German army, 1914; on his refusal to surrender, the fortress was besieged and finally destroyed. General Leman was captured and imprisoned in Germany until after the armistice, 1918.—See also World War: 1914: I. Western front: b.

LE MANS, Battle of (1871). See France: 1870-1871.

LEMBERG, or Lvov, capital of Galicia, Poland, on the Peltew river, east of Cracow. It is the seat of three archbishoprics: Roman Catholic, Greek Catholic, and Armenian, and of a famous university, founded in 1784, and now (1923) numbering about 5,000 students. In 1911 the population was 206,113.

1914-1915.—Occupied by Russians.—Captured by Austrians. See World War: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 1; d, 5; 1915: III. Eastern front: f, 6; f, 7; g, 2.

1918.—Massacre of the Jews. See Jews: Poland: 1914-1920.

1918-1919.—Scene of fighting between the Ukrainians and the Poles. See Ukraine: 1914-1921.

LE MESNIL, town in France, about ten miles north of Peronne. It was in the region of fighting during the World War. See World War: 1915: II. Western front: i, 8; i, 8, iv.

LEMNOS, northernmost island of the Greek archipelago in the Ægean sea. The island, which is also known as Stalimene, the Italian form of the name, comprises about 160 square miles. The chief town, Limno, or Kastro, is fortified. During the World War Lemnos was occupied by the British, who used it as a naval base in the Dardanelles campaign.

1204.—Included in the empire of Baldwin, count of Flanders. See Byzantine empire: 1204-1205.

1920.—Ceded to Greece by the Treaty of Sèvres. See Sèvres, Treaty of: 1920: Contents of treaty: Part III: Political clauses: Greece.

LE MORT HOMME. See Dead Man's Hill.

LE MOUSTIER, cave in France on the right bank of the Vézère, above Les Eyzies. Important paleolithic remains have been found here. See Europe: Prehistoric: Earliest remains of man: Neanderthal skeleton, man in the Mousterian stage.

LEMOVICES.—The Lemovices were a tribe of Gauls who occupied, in Cæsar's time, the territory afterwards known as the Limousin—department of Upper Vienne and parts adjoining.—Napoleon III, *History of Cæsar, bk. 3, ch. 2, foot-note.*—The city of Limoges derived its existence and its name from the Lemovices.

LEMOVII.—A tribe in ancient Germany whose territory, on the Baltic coast, probably in the neighborhood of Danzig, bordered on that of the Gothones.—Church and Brodribb, *Geographical notes to the Germany of Tacitus.*

LE MOYNE, Pierre. See Iberville.

LENAPE, tribe of North American Indians. See Indians, American: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern woodlands area; Algonquin family; Alleghans; Delawares; Shawnees.

LENARD, Philipp (1862-), Hungarian physicist. See Nobel prizes: Physics: 1905.

LENBACH, Franz von (1836-1904), German portrait painter. See Painting: Europe (19th century).

L'ENFANT, Pierre Charles (1755-1825), French-American engineer. Served in the American Revolution; planned the city of Washington under the direction of George Washington, and was active in city planning in connection with other cities in the East. See Washington, D. C.: 1791-1800.

LENIN, Nikolai (Vladimir Ilych Ulianov) (1870-1924), Russian president of the Council of People's Commissars. Member of the Duma following the 1905 revolution but soon exiled; appeared in Petrograd, April, 1917, after an internment in Cracow, Austrian Poland, and subsequent residence in Switzerland; one of the leaders in the revolution of the fall of 1917 which led to Bolshevist control.

1917.—Power in Russia.—Peace negotiations with Germany. See Russia: 1917 (July); (October-November); World War: 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: n; p; q.

1918-1919.—Attempted assassination.—Relations with Bela Kun. See Russia: 1918 (August-September); Hungary: 1919 (March).

1920-1921.—Assertion of Soviet power.—At congress of Third International.—Speech on re-establishment of capitalism.—On trade unions. See Russia: 1920-1921: Capitulation to the methods of the bourgeoisie; International: 1920; 1921; Capitalism: 20th century: Reëstablishing capitalism in Russia; Labor organization: 1917-1921.

LENNON, John Brown (1849-), American labor leader. General secretary of the Journeyman Tailors' Union of America, and editor of *The Tailor,* 1886-1910; became treasurer of the American Federation of Labor, 1889; member of the Commission on Industrial Relations under Presidents Taft and Wilson.—See also Industrial Relations Commission.

LENOIR GAS ENGINE. See Steam and gas engines: Hot air and gas engines.

LENOX, James (1800-1880), American phil-

anthropist. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: New York Public Library.

LENOX FOUNDATION, New York Public Library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: New York Public Library.

LENS, town in northern France, thirteen miles northeast of Arras.

1648. — Battle of. See BELGIUM: 1647-1648; NETHERLANDS: 1648: Battle of Lens.

1914-1918.—Scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: **u, 5;** 1915: II. Western front: **a, 5;** 1917: II. Western front: **d, 12;** and 1918: II. Western front: **i; m; q, 1.**

LENTIENSES, early Germanic tribe. See ALEMANNI: 213.

LEO I, the Great, pope, 440-461. Saved Rome from the Huns, 452. See PAPACY: 42-461; HUNS: 452.

Leo II, pope, 682-683.

Leo III (d. 816), pope, 795-816. Crowned Charlemagne Roman emperor, 800. See ITALY: 568-800; FRANKS: 768-814; GERMANY: 687-800; 800.

Leo IV (d. 855), pope, 847-855.

Leo V (d. 903), pope, October-December, 903.

Leo VI (d. 929), pope, 928-929.

Leo VII (d. 939), pope, 936-939.

Leo VIII (d. 965), pope, 963-965.

Leo IX (Bruno of Toul) (1002-1054), pope, 1049-1054. Became bishop, 1026; as pope he led an expedition against the Normans with an army of Italians and Germans, but was defeated and captured at Astagnum, near Civitella, June 18, 1053; held in honorable captivity at Benevento; returned to Rome, 1054, where he died, April 19.—See also PAPACY: 1056-1122.

Leo X (Giovanni de'Medici) (1475-1521), pope, 1513-1521. Second son of Lorenzo de'Medici; expelled petty tyrants from States of the Church, and restored Parma and Piacenza to the Holy See. The Reformation began during his pontificate and he excommunicated Martin Luther, 1521.—See also PAPACY: 1516-1517; 1517-1521; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Catholic reformation; FRANCE: 1515-1518; FLORENCE: 1502-1569.

Leo XI (Alessandro d'Medici) (1535-1605), pope, April 2-27, 1605.

Leo XII (Annibale della Genza) (1760-1829), pope, 1823-1829.

Leo XIII (Gioacchino Pecci) (1810-1903), pope, 1878-1903. Became archbishop of Perugia, 1846; cardinal, 1853; was a liberal patron of science and literature.—See also PAPACY: 1896 (September); 1899 (January); 1900-1901; 1901; 1903 (July-August); HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN: 1879; ROME: Modern city: 1871-1907; CANADA: 1898 (January).

Leo I, the Thracian (c. 400-474), Roman emperor (Eastern), 457-474. See ROME: Empire: 400-518.

Leo II, the Young (c. 470-474), Roman emperor (Eastern), 474.

Leo III, the Isaurian (c. 680-740), Roman emperor (Eastern), 717-740. Successfully defended Constantinople against the Arabs, 717-720; defeated a Mohammedan army at the battle of Acroinon, 739; noted for his efforts to abolish the worship of images in the churches which caused a rupture between him and the pope. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 717; ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY; ITALY: 568-800; ROME: Medieval city: 717-800; PAPACY: 728-774.

Leo IV (750-780), Roman emperor (Eastern), 775-780. See ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY.

Leo V, the Armenian (d. 820), Roman emperor (Eastern), 813-820.

Leo VI, the Philosopher (866-911), Roman emperor (Eastern), 886-911.

LEO, Leonardo (1694-1744), Italian composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1675-1764.

LEOBEN, Provisional Treaty of (1797). See FRANCE: 1796-1797 (October-April).

LEODIS. See WERGILD; GRAF.

LEON, Juan Ponce de (c. 1460-1521), Spanish soldier and explorer. Went to America with Columbus, 1493; conquered Porto Rico, 1510; in search of the Fountain of Youth, discovered the mainland of Florida, 1513. See AMERICA: Map showing voyages of discovery; 1512.

LEON, Luis Ponce de (1529-1591), Spanish scholar and poet. See SPANISH LITERATURE: 1500-1600.

LEON, name of a modern province and also of an ancient kingdom of northwestern Spain. The modern province was founded in 1833. Although mountainous, it is agricultural. The chief towns are Leon and Astorga.

Origin of the name.—"This name Legio or Leon, so long borne by a province and by its chief city in Spain, is derived from the old Roman 'Regnum Legionis' (Kingdom of the Legion)."—H. Coppée, *Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors, v. 1, bk. 5, ch. 1.*

Origin of kingdom. See SPAIN: 713-950.

Establishment of the Cortes (1020). See CORTES: Early Spanish.

Union with kingdom of Castile. See SPAIN: 1026-1230; 1212-1238.

LEONARDO DA VINCI. See VINCI, LEONARDO DA.

LEONCAVALLO, Ruggiero (1858-1919), Italian composer. His fame rests on the opera, "I Pagliacci," produced at Milan in 1892. See MUSIC: Modern: 1842-1921: Modern Italian school.

LEONIDAS (d. 480 B.C.) king of Sparta, c. 488-480 B.C. Led the Greek forces against the Persians at the battle of Thermopylae where he was killed. See GREECE: B.C. 480: Persian wars: Thermopylae.

LEONINE CITY, section of the city of Rome which lies north of the Trastevere and west of the Tiber. It contains the Vatican and the Castle of Saint Angelo. It is enclosed in walls and was originally fortified by Pope Leo IV, hence the name.—See also VATICAN: Ancient Leonine city.

LEONTINE WAR, Sicily. See SYRACUSE: B.C. 415-413.

LEONTIUS I, Roman emperor (Eastern), 488.

Leontius II, Roman emperor (Eastern), 695-698.

LEOPARD, British man-of-war. See U.S.A.: 1804-1809.

LEOPARDI, Giacomo, Count (1798-1837), Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1750-1873.

LEOPOLD I (1640-1705), Holy Roman emperor, 1658-1705; king of Hungary, 1655-1705; king of Bohemia, 1656-1705. Defeated the Turks and concluded a twenty years' truce with the sultan, 1664; pursued an intolerant policy in Hungary and put down a revolt with the aid of the king of Poland, 1678-1686; joined the League of Augsburg against France, 1686, and the Grand Alliance, 1689; expelled the Turks from Transylvania, 1690-1699; was involved in the War of the Spanish Succession, which was in progress at his death.—See also GERMANY: 1648-1705; HUNGARY: 1660-1664; 1668-1683; 1699-1718.

Leopold II (1747-1792), Holy Roman emperor, and king of Hungary and Bohemia, 1790-1792;

grand duke of Tuscany, 1765-1792. Issued the Declaration of Padua and entered into an agreement with the king of Prussia at Pillnitz to re-establish order in France, 1791; formed an alliance with Prussia against revolutionary France, 1792, but died before war was declared.—See also Austria: 1790-1797; Bohemia: 1780-1848; Hungary: 1699-1718; Padua, Declaration of; Pillnitz, Declaration of.

Leopold I (1790-1865), king of the Belgians, 1831-1865. Fourth son of Francis, duke of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld; served in the Russian army under Alexander I, at the battles of Lützen, Bautzen and Leipzig, and during the invasion of France, 1814; refused crown of Greece, 1830; elected king of the Belgians, 1831.—See also Belgium: 1830-1832; 1830-1884; Greece: 1830-1862.

Leopold II (1835-1909), king of the Belgians, 1865-1909. Organized African International Association, 1876; financed expedition of Stanley to the Congo; received sovereignty of Congo Free State at the Berlin conference, 1885; subjected to criticism of the powers in connection with misgovernment of Congo Free State, 1905-1906, which was annexed to Belgium, 1908.—See also Belgian Congo: 1876-1890; 1885-1902; 1899; 1900-1901; 1903-1905; 1909; Berlin Act; Military organization: 24; Belgium: 1909 (December).

Leopold (1676-1747), prince of Anhalt-Dessau, Prussian field marshal. Distinguished himself at Höchstädt, 1703, and Blenheim, 1704; won the victories of Neustadt, Jägerndorf and Kesselsdorf, 1745.

Leopold (1835-), prince of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. Refused to be a candidate for the crown of Spain, 1870. See Spain: 1868-1873; France: 1870 (June-July).

Leopold II (1797-1870), grand duke of Tuscany, 1824-1870.

Leopold I (1157-1194), duke of Austria. Made Richard I of England a prisoner during the third Crusade. See Austria: 805-1246.

Leopold II (1292-1326), duke of Austria.

Leopold III (c. 1350-1386), duke of Austria.

Leopold V, the Virtuous, duke of Austria. See Leopold I, Duke of Austria.

LEOSTHENES (d. 323 B.C.), Athenian general. Commanded the allied Greek armies in the Lamian War, 323 B.C. See Greece: B.C. 323-322.

LEOTYCHIDES (died c. 469 B.C.), king of Sparta. Victorious at Mycale against the Persians, 479 B.C. See Greece: B.C. 479: Persian wars: Mycale.

LEPANTO, ancient Naupactus, town in Greece, on the Gulf of Lepanto.

1499.—Captured by the Turks. See Turkey: 1498-1502.

1571.—Battle of. See Turkey: 1566-1571.

LEPIDUS, Marcus Æmilius (d. 77 B.C.), Roman consul and orator. Defeated by Pompey and Catulus at Rome, 77 B.C. See Rome: Republic: B.C. 78-68.

LEPIDUS, Marcus Æmilius (d. 13 B.C.), Roman triumvir. Held several high offices during the dictatorship of Julius Caesar; member of the triumvirate with Octavius and Antony, 43 B.C.; governor of Africa, 40-36 B.C.; revolted against the power of Octavius on the renewal of the triumvirate, 37 B.C.; defeated and deprived of office, 36 B.C.—See also Rome: Republic: B.C. 44-42.

LEPROSY. See Medical science: Ancient: Jewish.

Persecution during the Middle Ages. See Jews: 1321.

In Hawaiian islands. See Hawaiian islands: 1910: Law on leprosy.

LEPTA, ancient Athenian coin. See Talent.

LEPTIS MAGNA.—"The city of Leptis Magna, originally a Phœnician colony, was the capital of this part of the province [the tract of north-African coast between the Lesser and the Greater Syrtes] and held much the same prominent position as that of Tripoli at the present day. The only other towns in the region of the Syrtes, as it was sometimes called, were Œa, on the site of the modern Tripoli, and Sabrata, the ruins of which are still visible at a place called Tripoli Vecchio. The three together gave the name of the Tripolis of Africa to this region, as distinguished from the Pentapolis of Cyrenaïca. Hence the modern appellation."—E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography, v. 2, ch. 20, sect. 1, foot-note.*—See also Carthage, Dominion of.

LE QUESNOY, town in France, about 20 miles northeast of Cambrai. It was taken by the British during the World War. See World War: 1918: II. Western front: w, 1.

LERDO DE TEJADA, Sebastian (1825-1889), president of Mexico, 1872-1877. See Mexico: 1867-1892.

LERIDA, ancient Ilerda, town in Spain, on the Segre, about eighty miles northwest of Barcelona.—See also Ilerda.

Sieges of. See Spain: 1644-1646.

Stormed and sacked by the French and Spaniards. See Spain: 1707.

LERMONTOV, Mikhail Yurevich (1814-1841), Russian poet and novelist. See Russian literature: 1814-1841.

LERROUX, Señor, Socialist-Republican leader in Spain. See Spain: 1909.

LE SAGE, Alain René (1668-1747), French novelist and dramatist. See French literature: 1700-1814; Drama: 1700-1799.

LE SARS, town in France, about twelve miles northwest of Peronne. It was captured by the Allies during the World War. See World War: 1916: II. Western front: c, 3; d, 16.

LESBOS (Mytilene).—The largest of the islands of the Ægean, lying south of the Troad (see Greece: Map of ancient Greece), a great part of which it once controlled, was particularly distinguished in the early literary history of ancient Greece, having produced what is called "the Æolian school" of lyric poetry. Alcæus, Sappho, Terpander and Arion were poets who sprang from Lesbos. The island was one of the important colonies of what was known as the Æolic migration, but became subject to Athens after the Persian War. In the fourth year of the Peloponnesian War its chief city, Mytilene (which afterwards gave its name to the entire island), seized the opportunity to revolt. The siege and reduction of Mytilene by the Athenians was one of the exciting incidents of that struggle.—Thucydides, *History, bk. 3.*—See also Asia Minor: B.C. 1100; Athens: B.C. 428-427; Greece: B.C. 429-427: Peloponnesian War: Phormio's sea-fights; B.C. 413-412.—In 1091 Lesbos fell into the hands of the Seljuk Turks. In the eleventh century the Venetians owned it, and in 1224 the Byzantine emperor took it and gave it to a Genoese family, the Gattilusio. (See Byzantine empire: 1204-1205.) In 1462 it passed under Turkish rule; yielded to the Turks by Venice in 1479 (see Greece: 1454-1479). By the Treaty of Sèvres, 1920, Lesbos was placed under the sovereignty of Greece. See Sèvres, Treaty of: 1920: Part III: Greece.

Also in: G. Grote, *History of Greece, pt. 2, ch. 14, 50.*

LESCHE.—The clubs of Sparta and Athens formed an important feature of the life of Greece.

In every Grecian community there was a place of resort called the Lesche. In Sparta it was peculiarly the resort of old men, who assembled round a blazing fire in winter, and were listened to with profound respect by their juniors. These retreats were numerous in Athens.—C. O. Müller, *History and antiquities of the Doric race, v. 2, p. 396.*—"The proper home of the Spartan art of speech, the original source of so many Spartan jokes current over all Greece, was the Lesche, the place of meeting for men at leisure, near the public drilling grounds, where they met in small bands, and exchanged merry talk."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece, v. 1, p. 220.*

LESCOT, Pierre (1510-1578), French architect. Founder of the classic school of French architecture; canon of Notre Dame, Paris; designer of the southwest corner of the Louvre, his masterpiece, and the famous rood-screen in St. Germain l'Auxerrois, Paris, 1541-1544.

Also in: A. Tilley, *Dawn of the French renaissance.*

LESE-MAJESTY.—A term in English law signifying treason, borrowed from the Romans. The contriving, or counselling or consenting to the king's death, or sedition against the king, are included in the crime of "lese-majesty."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England, ch. 21, sect. 786.*—Later came to mean any offense against the sovereign.—See also Germany: 1900 (Oct. 9); World War: Causes: Indirect: j, 2.

LES ÉPARGES, town in France, north of St. Mihiel. It was occupied and burned by the Germans in 1915. See World War: 1915: II. Western front: f, 2; f, 2, i.

LESINA, island in the Adriatic sea, off the coast of Jugo-Slavia. Formerly a part of Dalmatia, Austria, the island was promised to Italy by the Treaty of London, 1915, but was ceded to Jugo-Slavia by the Treaty of St. Germain, 1919.—See also London, Treaty or Pact of.

LESLIE, David. See Newark, Lord.

LESSEPS, Ferdinand de (1805-1894), French engineer and diplomat. Ambassador to Spain, 1848-1849; invited to Egypt by the viceroy, Said Pasha, to develop the Suez canal, 1854, directed the building of the canal, 1859-1869; began work on the Panama canal, 1887; charged with fraud, 1892.—See also Canals: Asiatic canals: Suez canal; Panama canal: 1869-1894.

Also in: G. B. Smith, *Life and enterprises of Ferdinand de Lesseps.*

LESSER ANTILLES, name applied to a group of the smaller islands of the West Indies. See West Indies: Location; Martinique.

LESSING, Gotthold Ephraim (1729-1781), German dramatist and critic. See Drama: 1700-1800; German literature: 1700-1832; History: 25.

Also in: J. Sime, *Lessing.*

L'ESTRANGE, Sir Roger (1616-1704), English newspaper man. See Printing and the press: 1654-1694.

LE SUEUR, Eustache (1617-1655), French painter. See Painting: French.

LE SUEUR, Pierre Charles, Canadian explorer. See Minnesota: 1652-1847.

LESZCZYNSKI, Stanislaus. See Stanislaus Leszczynski.

LETCHER, John (1813-1884), governor of Virginia, 1860-1864. See U. S. A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call to arms.

LETCHWORTH, William Pryor (1823-1910), American philanthropist. Commissioner of New York State Board of Charities, 1893-1906; president of State Charities Association, 1874-1888; presented his estate to New York as a public park, 1907. See New York: 1907.

LETCHWORTH, town in Hertfordshire, England, one of the "garden cities." See City planning: Great Britain.

LETCHWORTH VILLAGE, institution designed for the care of feeble-minded and epileptic patients in New York state. It was named in honor of William Pryor Letchworth.

LE TELLIER, Michel (1643-1719), Jesuit confessor to Louis XIV. Noted for his attacks on the Jansenists. See Port Royal and the Jansenists: 1702-1715.

LETTER OF MAJESTY, document of rights granted to the Protestants of Bohemia by King Rodolph II in 1609. See Bohemia: 1611-1618; Germany: 1608-1618.

LETTERS OF JUNIUS. See Junius Letters.

LETTERS OF MARQUE. See Privateers: Letters of Marque; Buccaneers: Privateering caused by rigid restrictions; U. S. A.: 1861 (April-May).

LETTOW-VORBECK, Paul von (1870-), German general. Took part in the China expedition, 1900; commander of German colonial troops in the Cameroons, 1911-1913; in German East Africa, 1913-1919; surrendered to the British, November 14, 1918; leader of a corps in the German republican army, 1919-1920. See World War: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 9; a, 22; 1917: VII. East African campaign: a; 1918: VII. East African theater: a.

LETTRE DE CACHET.—"In French history, a letter or order under seal; a private letter of state: a name given especially to a written order proceeding from and signed by the king, and countersigned by a secretary of state, and used at first as an occasional means of delaying the course of justice, but later, in the 17th and 18th centuries, as a warrant for the imprisonment without trial of a person obnoxious for any reason to the government, often for life or for a long period, and on frivolous pretexts. Letters de cachet were abolished at the Revolution."—*Century Dictionary.*—"The minister used to give generously blank lettres-de-cachet to the intendants, the bishops, and people in the administration. Saint-Florentin, alone, gave away as many as 50,000. Never had man's dearest treasure, liberty, been more lavishly squandered. These letters were the object of a profitable traffic; they were sold to fathers who wanted to get rid of their sons, and given to pretty women who were inconvenienced by their husbands. This last cause of imprisonment was one of the most prominent. And all through good-nature. The king [Louis XV] was too good to refuse a lettre-de-cachet to a great lord. The intendant was too good-natured not to grant one at a lady's request. The government clerks, the mistresses of the clerks, and the friends of these mistresses, through good-nature, civility, or mere politeness, obtained, gave, or lent, those terrible orders by which a man was buried alive. Buried;—for such was the carelessness and levity of those amiable clerks,—almost all nobles, fashionable men, all occupied with their pleasures,—that they never had the time, when once the poor fellow was shut up, to think of his position."—J. Michelet, *Historical view of the French Revolution, introduction, pt. 2, sect. 9.*

LETTS, branch of the Lithuanian division of the Aryan family, inhabiting, for the most part, the provinces on the Baltic sea. See Baltic provinces: Original and existing races; 1905-1906; Baltic states: Latvia; Lithuania: Territory.

Language. See Philology: 21.

LEUCADIA, or Leucas.—Originally a peninsula of Acarnania, on the western coast of Greece, but converted into an island by the Corinthians, who cut a canal across its narrow neck. Its chief town, of the same name, was at one time the meeting place of the Acarnanian League. The high promontory at the southwestern extremity of the island was celebrated for the temple of Apollo which crowned it. At the festival of Apollo a criminal was always thrown from Leucadia Rock into the sea, who, if not drowned, was set free. Sappho leaped from this rock when she found her love for Shaon unrequited.

LEUCÆ, Battle of.—The kingdom of Pergamum having been bequeathed to the Romans by its last king, Attalus, a certain Aristonicus attempted to resist their possession of it, and Crassus, one of the consuls of B. C. 131 was sent against him. But Crassus had no success and was finally defeated and slain, near Leucæ. Aristonicus surrendered soon afterwards to M. Perperna and the war in Pergamum was ended.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic, v.* 1, *ch.* 14.

LEUCAS. See LEUCADIA.

LEUCATE, Siege and Battle of (1637). See SPAIN: 1637-1640.

LEUCI, tribe in Belgic Gaul which occupied the southern part of the modern department of the Meuse, the greater part of the Meurthe, and the department of the Vosges.—Napoleon III, *History of Cæsar, v.* 2, *bk.* 3, *ch.* 2, *foot-note.*

LEUCTRA, Battle of (371 B. C.). See GREECE: 379-371 B. C.

LEUD, or Lidus. See SERFDOM: 14th-19th centuries.

LEUDES.—"The Frankish warriors, but particularly the leaders, were called 'leudes,' from the Teutonic word 'leude,' 'liude,' 'leute,' people, as some think [Thierry, Lettres sur l'Hist. de Franc, p. 130]. In the Scandinavian dialects, 'lide' means a warrior; . . . and in the Kymric also 'lwydd' means an army or war-band. . . . It was not a title of dignity, as every free fighter among the Franks was a leud, but in process of time the term seems to have been restricted to the most prominent and powerful warriors alone."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul, bk.* 3, *ch.* 12, *foot-note.*—See also MAYOR OF THE PALACE.

LEUGA.—From the reign of Severus, the roads in the Gallic and German provinces of Rome were measured and marked by a mile correlated no doubt to the Roman, but yet different and with a Gallic name, the "leuga" (2,222 kilomètres), equal to one and a half Roman miles.—T. Mommsen, *History of the Romans, bk.* 8, *ch.* 3.

LEUKAS. See CORCYRA.

LEUKOPETRA, Battle of (146 B. C.). See GREECE: B. C. 280-146.

L'EURE, Jacques Charles Dupont de (1767-1855), French stateman. Member of Chamber of Deputies, 1817-1848; minister of justice under Louis Philippe, 1830; president of the provisional government, 1848.—See also FRANCE: 1830-1840; 1842-1848.

LEUTHEN, Battle of. See GERMANY: 1757 (July-December).

LEUZE WOOD, about six miles northwest of Peronne, France. It was captured by the Allies in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: d, 10; d, 11; d:12.

LEVANT, name given by Italians to the coastlands of the Mediterranean, from Greece to Egypt. It is now used more particularly to designate the coastlands and islands of Asia Minor and Syria. (See ASIA MINOR: Name.) The inhabitants are called Levantines. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries "High Levant" denoted the Far East.—See also COMMERCE: Medieval: 12th-16th centuries; CRUSADES: Military aspect of the Crusades.

Company of the. See FRANCE: 1661-1683.

LEVASSOR (1843-1897), French engineer, noted for his experiments in automobile building. See AUTOMOBILES: 1894-1896.

LEVELLERS, important political party in England during the Civil War and Commonwealth. The name first appears in a letter dated November 1, 1647. Levellers, probably inspired by the Agitators of an earlier period, who possessed strong republican views, became conspicuous in 1647, during the long negotiations between King Charles and Parliament. They were mainly found among the soldiers; were opposed to kingship; and thought Cromwell too complaisant in his treatment of the king. Through John Lilburne, their leader, they presented a manifesto, "The Case of the army truly stated," to Lord Fairfax, commander-in-chief in 1647. Their second document, "An Agreement of the people," was argued by Cromwell, Ireton and other officers. The Levellers were represented by John Wildman, Thomas Rainsborough and Edward Sexby.

1647.—Constitutional scheme.—"On the 29th, when the prayer-meeting had come to an end, it was resolved after a long discussion to lay aside the consideration of the engagements by a committee, and to examine the *Agreement of the People.* The constitutional scheme of the Levellers was probably the shortest ever committed to paper, as it consisted of four articles only. The first required that the constituencies should be 'more indifferently proportioned according to the number of the inhabitants; by the second, the existing Parliament was to be dissolved on September 30, 1648; by the third, future Parliaments were to be biennial, sitting every other year from the first Thursday in April to the last day of September, and no longer.' Thus far the *Agreement of the People* was drawn on the same lines as *The Heads of the Proposals,* except so far as the demand made in the first article of the *Agreement* that representatives might be elected in proportion to the population, differed from the demand made in *The Heads of the Proposals* that they should be elected in proportion to the rates. The fourth article, widely departing from that model, was an expansion of the doctrine of a 'paramount law' set forth in *The Case of the Army.* For most purposes the biennial Parliament —consisting by implication of a single elected House—was to be supreme. It might make, amend, and repeal laws; erect and abolish offices and courts; call officials to account; conduct negotiations with foreign Powers; make peace and declare war, or do anything else which was not 'expressly or implyedly reserved by the represented to themselves.' These reservations were five in number. It was not to interfere with the most absolute religious liberty; it was not to call any man in question for the part taken by him in the late struggle, except in carrying out sentences pronounced by the existing Parliament; it must not exempt anyone 'from the ordinary course of legal proceedings'; and finally, 'as the laws ought to be equal, so they must be good, and not evidently destructive to the safety and well-being of the people.' The *Agreement of the People* was the first example of that system which now universally prevails in the State Governments of the American Republic. In both countries the idea of restraining the authority of the legislative body by reserving certain matters to be dealt with by the people themselves,

arose from the same cause—jealousy of the representative body. Yet the difference between the *Agreement of the People* and an American State constitution is enormous. In America, at the present day, the intervention of the people is an active, living force. The people make and unmake constitutions with decisive rapidity. The *Agreement of the People* was but the dream of a few visionaries. Its authors prescribed no way in which the people should be asked to adopt it, though they probably intended to circulate it for public subscription; and they breathed no word of the possibility that the people, even if they once adopted it, might be inclined to change it. Their omission was by no means accidental. It arose from the stern fact, to which they wilfully closed their eyes, that the English people were irreconcilably hostile to them and to their teaching. It was the unreality of the popular support appealed to in the *Agreement of the People* which gave strength to Cromwell and Ireton in their contention with the Levellers. As is often the case, when men are divided on questions of principle, it was on a side issue that the conflict began. When the first article of the Agreement had been read, Ireton asked whether the declaration that the constituencies were to be 'proportioned according to the number of the inhabitants' implied that there was to be manhood suffrage, or that the old suffrage instituted 'by that constitution which was before the Conquest, that hath been beyond memory,' was still to be retained. Rainsborough at once declared in favour of manhood suffrage. 'I think,' he said, 'that the poorest He that is in England hath a life to live as well as the greatest He; and, therefore, truly, sir, I think it clear that every man that is to live under a government ought, first, by his own consent, to put himself under that government.' Ireton retorted that this argument relied on 'an absolute natural right,' and denied 'all civil right.' No one, he contended, in words which came to have a familiar sound in the early part of the 19th century, ought to have a vote who had 'not a permanent fixed interest in the kingdom.' Those whose duty it was to choose the legislature were 'the persons, who, taken together, do comprehend the local interest of this kingdom, that is, the persons in whom all land lies, and those in corporations in whom all trading lies. If this fundamental rule were set aside, property would be set aside as well. In reply, Rainsborough drew attention to the evil results of the existing system. 'A gentleman,' he urged, 'lives in a country, and hath three or four lordships as some men have—God knows how they got them—and when a Parliament is called, he must be a Parliament man; and it may be sees some poor men—they live near this man—he can crush them.' The debate grew hot, and at last Rich came to Ireton's help. Five men out of six, he said, had no permanent interest in the kingdom. If votes were given to the five, they would only sell them, as had been done at Rome, 'and thence it came that he that was the richest man, and of some considerable power among the soldiers, made himself a perpetual dictator; and if we strain too far to avoid monarchy in kings, [let us take heed] that we do not call for emperors to deliver us from more than one tyrant.' Arguments of this kind were bandied to and fro, till agreement seemed well nigh hopeless. After a while Sexby struck in, carrying the debate outside the region of argument. There were, he said, thousands of soldiers as poor as himself, who had ventured their lives for their 'birthright and privileges as Englishmen.' Why were they to be told that unless they had a fixed estate they had no birthright. He, for one, would surrender his birthright to no man. 'Rather,' replied Ireton, 'than make a disturbance to a good constitution of a kingdom wherein I may live in godliness, and honesty, and peace, I will part with a great deal of my birthright.' "—S. R. Gardiner, *History of the Great Civil War, 1642-1649, v. 3, pp. 223-227.*—See also ENGLAND: 1647.

1647-1660.—Suppression.—Some of the Levellers clamored for the king's death, and in November, 1647, after his flight from Hampton Court Palace to Carisbrooke, instigated a mutiny in two regiments, promptly suppressed by Cromwell. After the death of Charles I (1649), the Levellers became more insurgent. Fairfax quelled the turbulence and gradually the Levellers faded from view. The distinguishing badge of the Levellers was a sea-green ribbon. On the return of the exiled Charles II, 1660, the Levellers attempted a rising. It was suppressed. Wildman was arrested and Sexby fled from England.—See also ENGLAND: 1647 (August-September); 1649.

LEVER ACT, United States (1917). See FOOD REGULATION: 1917-1918: Food control in the United States; also 1918.

LEVERHULME, William Hesketh Lever, 1st Baron (1851-), English manufacturer and philanthropist. Built the model industrial village at Port Sunlight. See CITY PLANNING: Great Britain; LABOR LEGISLATION: 1901-1918.

LEVERING, Joshua (1845-), American merchant. Prohibition candidate for president, 1896. See U.S.A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: Prohibition.

LEVIATHAN, former German ocean liner, seized by the United States during the World War and used for transporting American troops across the Atlantic. It was reconditioned for use as a passenger liner by the United States Shipping Board, 1923.

LEVIS, François Gaston, Duke of (1720-1787), French marshal. Served in the War of the Austrian Succession; second in command to Montcalm in Canada, 1756-1759; repulsed Wolfe at Montmorency, 1759; took command on the death of Montcalm, 1759-1761; became marshal, 1783.—See also CANADA: 1759: Passing of New France.

LEVITES, in Jewish history, the descendants of Levi, one of the sons of Jacob. See PRIESTHOOD: Hebrew priesthood from 3000 B.C.

LEWELLING, Lorenzo (1846-1900), governor of Kansas, 1893-1895. See KANSAS: 1892-1908.

LEWES, Battle of (1264). See ENGLAND: 1216-1272.

LEWIS. See LOUIS.

LEWIS, Edward Mann (1863-), American army officer. Commanded United States troops in Paris, 1917-1918; officer in the field, 1918-1919. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: 0, 2.

LEWIS, Francis (1713-1803), American patriot. Member of the Continental Congress from New York, 1774-1779; one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of the Declaration of Independence.

LEWIS, John Llewellyn (1880-), American labor leader. Appointed member of the Coal Production Committee of the National Council of Defence, 1917; acting president of the United Mine Workers of America, 1919; elected president, 1920.—See also U.S.A.: 1918-1920.

LEWIS, Meriwether (1774-1809), American explorer. Joint leader with Clark of an expedition through northwestern United States to the Pacific, 1804-1806; governor of Louisiana Territory, 1807-1809. See U.S.A.: 1804-1805: Expedition of Lewis and Clark; MONTANA: 1804-1806.

LEWIS AND CLARK CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION. See PORTLAND, OREGON: 1905.

LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION. See U.S.A.: 1804-1805: Expedition of Lewis and Clark; MONTANA: 1804-1806.

LEWIS GUN. See ORDNANCE: 20th century.

LEWISOHN, Adolph (1849-), American capitalist and philanthropist. Member of the Commission on Industrial Relations, 1912; donor of a large number of gifts to educational and charitable institutions. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

LEWISTON, town in Idaho at the junction of the Snake and Clearwater rivers, 147 miles southwest of Spokane, Washington. It was the first capital of Idaho. See IDAHO: 1863-1864.

LEX FALKENHAYN. See AUSTRIA: 1897 (October-December).

LEX GABINA. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: B.C. 3rd century.

LEX HEINZE. See GERMANY: 1900 (May).

LEX REGIA. See CONSTITUTIONS: Origin of the idea.

LEXINGTON, Massachusetts, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1775 (April).

LEXINGTON, Missouri, Siege of. See U.S.A.: 1861 (July-September: Missouri).

Battle at. See U.S.A.: 1864 (March-October: Arkansas-Missouri).

LEXOVII.—The Lexovii were one of the tribes of northwestern Gaul, in the time of Cæsar. Their position is indicated and their name, in a modified form, preserved by the town of Lisieux between Caen and Evreux.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic, v. 4, ch. 6.*

LEXOW INVESTIGATION OF TAMMANY HALL. See NEW YORK CITY: 1894-1895.

LEYDEN, city in the province of South Holland, Netherlands, six miles inland on the Old Rhine, and twenty-two miles southwest of Amsterdam.

1574.—Siege and relief of. See NETHERLANDS: 1573-1574.

1583-1680.—Elzevirs. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1583-1680.

1609-1620.—Sojourn of the Pilgrims. See INDEPENDENTS OR SEPARATISTS: 1604-1617; 1617-1620.

1813.—Revolt against the French. See NETHERLANDS: 1813.

LEYDEN JAR. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1745-1747.

LEYDEN UNIVERSITY. See NETHERLANDS: 1573-1574; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1575.

LEYGUES, Georges Jean Claude (1858-), French statesman. Prime minister, forced to resign, January, 1921. See FRANCE: 1921 (January).

LEYTE, island of the Philippines, southeast of Luzon. It has an area of about 2,799 square miles and a population (1914) of 357,641. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Map; Geographical features and natural resources.

LHASA, or Lhassa, capital of Tibet, about 280 miles northeast of Darjeeling, India. It is the home of the Dalai Lama and the center of trade for Central Asia and Mongolia. Known as the "Forbidden City" to Europeans until 1904, when Colonel Younghusband entered it with British troops and forced a treaty.—See also TIBET.

LI HUNG CHANG (1823-1901), Chinese statesman. Made governor of the Kiang provinces, 1864; associated with Charles George Gordon in the suppression of the Taiping rebellion; appointed viceroy of Chi-li, 1872; prime minister of China, 1895-1898.—See also CHINA: 1896; 1898 (April-July); 1899 (December); FORMOSA: 1874-1910; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 25.

In the Taiping rebellion. See CHINA: 1850-1864.

Negotiates peace with Japan. See CHINA: 1894-1895.

In the Boxer uprising. See BOXER RISING AND THE "OPEN DOOR"; CHINA: 1900.

ALSO IN: J. O. P. Bland, *Li Hung Chang (Makers of the nineteenth century).*—R. K. Douglas, *Li Hung Chang.*—W. F. Mannix, *Memoirs of Li Hung Chang.*—R. E. Lewis, *Machiavelli of Chinese diplomacy (Forum, Mar., 1901).*

LI WANG, Prince, emperor of Korea. See KOREA: 1910.

LI YUAN-HUNG, Chinese general. Elected vice-president of China, 1912, and president, 1916; forced to resign by militarists, 1917; again candidate for president, 1922. See CHINA: 1912; 1916-1917; 1922 (June).

LIA-FAIL, "Stone of Destiny," on which the ancient Irish kings sat at their coronation; removed from Tara by Fergus, the first Scottish king, to Dunstaffnage in 513; thence to Scone by Kenneth II in 840; and, finally, by Edward I of England, to London in 1296. It is now under the seat of the Coronation Chair in Westminster Abbey.—"The Tuatha-de-Danaan [the people who preceded the Milesians in colonizing Ireland, according to the fabulous Irish histories] brought with them from Scandinavia, among other extraordinary things, three marvellous treasures, the Lia-Fail, or Stone of Destiny, the Sorcerer's Spear, and the Magic Caldron, all celebrated in the old Irish romances. The Lia-Fail possessed the remarkable property of making a strange noise and becoming wonderfully disturbed, whenever a monarch of Ireland of pure blood was crowned, and a prophecy was attached to it, that whatever country possessed it should be ruled over by a king of Irish descent, and enjoy uninterrupted success and prosperity. It was preserved at Cashel, where the kings of Munster were crowned upon it. . . . It seems to be the opinion of some modern antiquarians that a pillar stone still remaining at the Hill of Tara is the true Lia-Fail, which in that case was not carried to Scotland."—T. Wright, *History of Ireland, bk. 1, ch. 2, and foot-note.*—See also SCOTLAND: 8th-9th centuries.

LIANG SHI-YI, Chinese statesman. Appointed prime minister, but was forced to resign shortly after his appointment, 1921. See CHINA: 1921-1922; 1922 (April-May).

LIAO-TUNG, properly the name of the southern part of Manchuria, east of the river Liao, but usually applied to the peninsula which lies between the Liao-tung gulf and Korea bay. The peninsula was ceded to Japan at the close of the Chinese-Japanese War, 1895, but was returned to China on the protest of the Powers. It was then leased to Russia, 1898, and transferred to Japan after the Russo-Japanese War, 1905. In 1915, the lease to Japan was extended for 99 years.—See also PORT ARTHUR; CHINA: 1894-1895; 1898 (March-July); JAPAN: 1902-1905; 1905; PORTSMOUTH, TREATY OF.

LIAO-YANG, Battle and Siege of (1904). See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

LIAU DYNASTY. See MANCHURIA: Early history.

LIBAU, seaport of the republic of Latvia, 145 miles southwest of Riga, on a narrow peninsula separating Lake Libau from the Baltic. (See RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the new border states.) It was part of the Russian government of Courland, from 1795 until 1915, when it was captured by the Germans during the World War. It was incorporated in the Latvian republic in 1918.—See also BALTIC PROVINCES: Resources; 1867-1918;

WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 1; i, 2; IX. Naval operations: c, 1.

LIBBY PRISON, Richmond, Virginia. See PRISONS AND PRISON-PENS, CONFEDERATE.

LIBEL. See CRIMINAL LAW: 1770; 1843.

LIBER PONTIFICALIS.—"*Liber Pontificalis* is a collection of the lives of Popes. . . . The first edition of this anonymous book dates from about 530 after the pontificate of Felix IV."—A. Lagarde, *Latin church in the Middle Ages, p.* 552.—The first series ended with Nicholas I, 867, but later additions carried the book down to the fifteenth century.—See also ANNALS: Medieval.

LIBER SEXTUS DECRETALIUM, work compiled under the direction of Boniface VIII, containing the decretals issued between the years 1234-1298. See ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: Definition.

LIBERAL PARTY.—The Liberal Party in Great Britain succeeded the old Whig party, and is opposed to the Conservatives who succeeded the Tories. The name seems to have been an outcome of the French Revolution. In 1816 Southey wrote of the "British Liberals," but the name did not become popular until Gladstone's rule. The Liberal Party claims to be the originator of political reform and political legislation.

Rise.—"Modern English politics may be fairly said to begin about the accession of George III. The conflict of Liberalism and Toryism can no doubt be traced farther back. But though the same principles may have been at stake during the Civil War, or even in the time of the Lollards, the general movement was slow, and the connection with modern politics less definite. About the middle of the eighteenth century society began to group itself more permanently, and a train of events was started which can be traced continuously to our own time. Movement also became more rapid, and the appearance of the social fabric has been more changed in the last hundred and fifty years than it was in the preceding fifteen hundred. It is possible, therefore, to get a substantially accurate explanation of modern politics by a survey of the recent period alone. So many causes have been crowded into those few years that the weight of the others is almost negligible. The history of Liberalism is, for practical purposes, the history of Liberalism since 1760. . . . The political structure changed little between 1760 and 1820. At the end of that period, as at its beginning, power was in the hands of a class which monopolized every privilege of race, sex, creed and rank, and disposed, at its discretion, of the fortunes of all inferior persons. Ireland and the Colonies were subordinated to Great Britain, women to men, Catholics and Dissenters to Churchmen, manufacturers, traders and workmen to landowners. The classification of humanity, for political purposes, was complete. The machinery of the State was controlled by a governing class, bound to listen to the complaints of its subjects, but not submitted to their authority. The temper of this class as a whole, though it was nominally divided into Tories and Whigs, was essentially Tory. The two sections disputed between themselves, and some of the Whigs expressed Liberal opinions on particular subjects. But the general mental habit of both parties was that of Toryism. It was not until after the Reform Act of 1832 that even the germ of a Liberal party made its appearance in English politics, and it was not until after the Reform Act of 1867 that such a party held office. The history of Liberalism in the early period of its growth is the history of its slow and painful progress through people who did not consciously accept it. . . . The root-principle of government was that it should be controlled by the wealthy owners of land. There was some free voting in towns. But most borough seats could be bought, and many were in the absolute disposition of the nearest landowner. The owners of freeholds worth forty shillings a year voted in county elections, and were comparatively independent. But no voter, however sturdy and self-reliant, had a real voice in politics. The landed gentry took politics for their business, and if the voter could draw attention to what he conceived to be a grievance, the landowner decided whether any remedy should be applied. . . . In every way land was invested with peculiar rights. There were in fact only three ways in which a man might rise to political importance without being a landowner. A few naval officers of high rank had risen from mean beginnings. Servants of the East India Company sometimes acquired vast fortunes in India, and forced their way into domestic politics by sheer weight of wealth. A lawyer of the humblest birth might fight his way up to the Woolsack, and become a peer of the realm. But, as a rule, the ordinary avenues were open only to the landowning class. . . . George III. deliberately set himself to break down divisions of opinion by bribery and intimidation, and to consolidate a majority of the Commons in a union which had nothing in common but its subserviency to the Crown. The labels of Whig and Tory could not then be applied so surely as those of Liberal and Conservative to-day. Liberal opinions are, therefore, to be found only in a state of partial distribution. The Rockingham Whigs were Liberal in maintaining the supremacy of Parliament over the Crown, in claiming the rights of free election and free discussion for the electors, in advocating the abolition of religious disabilities, and especially in defending the American colonists against arbitrary government from England. But even they had no belief in a wide franchise, and some of them, who lived into the French Revolution, even became violently reactionary. Liberalism was thus a matter of patchwork at the best, and it would be difficult to find any considerable party of men who were united in a substantially Liberal political creed until 1868, when Gladstone's first Government came into power. The general tone of government up to the outbreak of the Revolution was Tory, tempered in some quarters by Liberal views of special subjects. After the Revolution, though the general aspect was more definitely Tory, a real Liberal appearance was assumed by a small section of the Whig party, and the growth of modern Liberalism actually began."—W. L. Blease, *Short history of English liberalism, pp.* 42-46, 67-68.

1832.—Reform Act.—"The Liberal tide was now very high above the point at which it had been left by the French War. But events were moving more rapidly outside Parliament than within it. The large provincial towns were still growing larger and their demand for representation louder. A financial crisis in 1825 had injured industry. Bad harvests in 1829 and 1830 combined with the import duties on corn to increase the sufferings of the artisans and laborers. The latter were already much demoralized by the administration of the Poor Law, and the riots and disturbances in agricultural districts and factory towns alike were more serious than they had ever been. The demand for Reform was renewed with great vigor, and this time with success. . . . Several circumstances combined with the economic condition of the people to make agitation effective. Continental Liberalism won two great victories in 1830. Belgium threw off the yoke of Holland, and Charles X. of France, expelled by a new revolution, took refuge in England. Both these events gave encouragement to

English reformers. At the same time the Parliamentary Whigs, who had never before recovered the cohesion which they lost in 1793, were united under the leadership of Lord Althorp in the Commons and Lord Grey in the Lords. The Tories, on the other hand, were broken up by the surrender to the Dissenters and the Catholics. The Whigs, with a few exceptions, like Lord Durham and Lord John Russell, had no liking for drastic changes. But the pressure in the country was too strong. A motion on some trivial matter connected with the Civil List overthrew the Ministry. The Whigs came in under Lord Grey, and introduced a Reform Bill which made a clean sweep of the rotten boroughs, gave seats to all the large provincial towns, and enfranchised every townsman who occupied a house worth £10 a year. A defeat in Committee produced a dissolution and a great Whig victory at the polls. The Lords, indifferent alike to the trend of history and to the state of contemporary opinion, threw out a second Bill. A great clamor broke out all over the country, and at Bristol, Nottingham, and other places, the scum of the populace destroyed an enormous amount of public and private property in riots. A third Bill was introduced in 1832, Wellington again led his forces in retreat, and the Bill received Royal Assent on the 7th June, 1832. The people were at last the masters in their own house."—W. L. Blease, *Short history of English liberalism, pp.* 166-167.—See also ENGLAND: 1830-1832.

1833-1841.—First period of Liberal ascendency.—"This period was only once interrupted—for the space of four months in 1835, by the unconstitutional action of William IV. in dismissing Lord Melbourne, and the futile effort of Sir Robert Peel to carry on the Government with a Tory Ministry. Through the whole course of its existence the Government was engaged in an intermittent contest with the House of Lords. The Liberal Prime Ministers were Lord Grey and Lord Melbourne. Lord John Russell led the House of Commons from 1834 [succeeding Lord Althorp, who then became Earl Spencer]. Foreign affairs were in the hands of Lord Palmerston. Mr. [afterwards Lord] Macaulay was a prominent member of the Liberal Ministry."—*Work of Liberalism since the Great Reform Act (pamphlet), pp.* 2-4.—In its first session the Liberal government passed the following measures: Abolition of slavery; an act reforming the Irish church; an act making the first grant in aid of elementary education; the first important factory act (prohibiting the employment of children under nine years of age and that of women and young persons for more than 12 hours a day); and a bill removing Jewish disabilities. In 1835 the transitory government of Sir Robert Peel was succeeded by the Liberals under Lord Melbourne. The chief measures of Lord Melbourne's ministry were: The Municipal Reform Act; The Irish Tithe Act; a marriage act; the establishment of the penny post; and an act granting parliamentary home rule to Canada.

1841-1866.—Sir Robert Peel's ministry.—Lord Russell and the second period of Liberal ascendency.—"The only considerable break in Liberal ascendency until Mr. Disraeli's Ministry of 1874-80, was Sir Robert Peel's great Ministry of 1841-1846. Its policy gradually assumed such a Liberal character that Mr. Disraeli, who did not belong to it, said of Peel in 1844 [two years before the repeal of the Corn Laws] that he 'had caught the Whigs bathing and walked away with their clothes,' and denounced his Government as 'an organised hypocrisy.' Its members [with one or two exceptions] subsequently formed the nucleus of the Peelite party, and most of them, in particular Mr. Gladstone, finally became Liberals. . . . What may be described as the second period of Liberal ascendency began with Lord John Russell's Ministry of 1847, and lasted, with intervals, till 1866. It was twice interrupted by short Conservative Ministries, in 1852 and 1858, and from 1852 to 1855 the country was governed by the Ministry of Lord Aberdeen, which, though a Liberal and Peelite coalition, may be considered as a Liberal Ministry. . . . The main work of this period was financial, and its due progress was, of course, seriously interfered with by the Crimean War. . . . In 1855 Lord Aberdeen was succeeded by Lord Palmerston, who brought the Crimean War to a conclusion. He remained in office till 1859. . . . After another stop-gap Conservative Ministry, Parliament was dissolved in 1859, and Lord Palmerston once more returned to power at the head of a strong Liberal Ministry, Mr. Gladstone being Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Lord John Russell Foreign Minister. This Ministry was the sphere of Mr. Gladstone's greatest financial triumphs. . . . On the death of Lord Palmerston in 1865, Lord John Russell [now Earl Russell] became Prime Minister, and in the first session of the new Parliament which followed his death, Mr. Gladstone, as leader of the House of Commons, introduced the Reform Bill of 1866. . . . Owing to the desertion of a section of the Liberal party, the Bill only passed its second reading by a majority of five votes, and the Government was finally defeated on an important amendment in Committee. They thereupon resigned, and Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli assumed office."—*Work of Liberalism since the Great Reform Act (pamphlet), pp.* 4-5, 7-8.—See also ENGLAND: 1841-1842.

1866-1900.—Electoral reform.—Opposition of Disraeli and Adullamites.—Gladstone's ministries.—Divisions of the party.—Home Rule bills.—Struggle with Boers.—Khaki election.—"In 1866 the question [electoral reform] once more became the vital issue of the day. The Liberals were in power and upon Palmerston's death, the character of their ministry assumed a more really liberal tinge. Their leader in the House of Commons was William Ewart Gladstone. Gladstone had been in Parliament for a generation, and had gradually risen to his position of authority, which was to be supreme during a large portion of the succeeding generation. He had entered the House as a Conservative, but had turned Free Trader with Sir Robert Peel, and a few years later joined the Liberal party. . . . Gladstone's chief opponent and the most brilliant statesman on the Conservative side was Benjamin Disraeli. . . . Disraeli opposed Gladstone's Reform Bill of 1866, which lowered the voting qualifications to seven pounds in boroughs and to fourteen pounds in counties, and which would have admitted some four hundred thousand new voters. The proposed change was slight and Conservative opposition to it could hardly have been successful had it not been for a section of the Liberals themselves who disliked any further extension of the franchise. The latter, known as Adullamites, because they resembled the discontented under the reign of Saul who banded themselves together in the cave of Adullam, acted under the brilliant leadership of Robert Lowe. . . . The alliance of Liberal Adullamites with Conservatives led to the defeat of Gladstone's Bill and the resignation of the Liberal Ministry. The Conservatives, with Lord Derby as Prime Minister and Disraeli, as leader in the House of Commons, entered into power."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes, v.* 1, *pp.* 133-136.—See also

ENGLAND: 1865-1868, to 1894-1895.—Gladstone became prime minister in 1868. The royal assent was given to the bankruptcy bill and to a bill abolishing imprisonment for debt, wiping away those atrocious prisons, the Fleet and Marshalsea. The disestablishment and disendowment of the Irish church occurred on July 26, 1868. The Irish Land Act was passed in 1870 and national education was established by law. Other measures carried into law by this government were: Abolition of religious tests in universities (1871); Ballot Act (1872); abolition of purchase in the army; legalization of trade unions; and Judicature Act (1873). In 1874 Disraeli became prime minister. He resigned in 1880 and was succeeded by Gladstone. The important measures of this ministry were: Employers' Liability Act (1880); Ground Game Act (1880); Burials Act (1880); Irish Coercion Act (1881); Irish Land Act (1881); new Irish Coercion Act (1882); Corrupt Practices Act (1883); and Franchise Act. In June, 1885, the government was defeated on the budget and Lord Salisbury became prime minister. (See ENGLAND: 1885-1886.) "In 1892 Gladstone again formed a Liberal ministry, and although the chief question of the hour was Home Rule for Ireland, the necessity of removing restrictions upon the franchise was recognized by the government. . . . The struggle with the Boers over the sovereignty of South Africa was slowly maturing and in 1899 finally developed into open warfare. The continuation and existence of the Empire was felt to depend upon the successful waging of the war, and when the Conservatives appealed to the country for a vindication of their policy, their success in the 'Khaki Election' of 1900 was sufficient to ensure them five years more of power. . . . The Irish Nationalists were allied with the Liberals for the securing of Home Rule, and threatened to bring the Liberals into power at the next election."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes, v.* 1, *pp.* 163-165.

1866-1905.—Division of the party.—Gladstone's first Home Rule bill of 1886 temporarily wrecked the Liberal party. (See also ENGLAND: 1885-1886.) The rejection of that bill brought the Conservatives back into power. Those Liberals who were opposed to Home Rule for Ireland seceded from the party and termed themselves "Liberal Unionists," pledged to maintain the union of the United Kingdom. This separate party label was kept for many years, though the bearers of it co-operated and voted with the Conservatives, and it was only shortly before the World War that the two sections amalgamated: the term "conservatives" was dropped altogether and that of "unionists" was adopted. Gladstone's second Home Rule Bill of 1893 brought further disaster upon the Liberals; the short-lived Rosebery administration gave place once more to a conservative cabinet under Lord Salisbury in 1895. (See ENGLAND: 1894-1895 [March-September].) Salisbury retired from office and handed the premiership over to his nephew, Arthur James Balfour. (See also ENGLAND: 1900 [September-October].)—Early in December, 1905, Balfour resigned with the whole cabinet. The ensuing general election brought the Liberals back with an overwhelming majority under Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman.—See also ENGLAND: 1905-1906.

1901.—Attitude toward South African War. See ENGLAND: 1901 (February).

1906-1918.—Liberal ministries.—Parliament Act.—Electoral reform.—With the accession of the Campbell-Bannerman administration in January 1906 the Liberal party returned to power after nearly twenty years of comparative exile. The Conservatives, aided by the Liberal Unionists, had been in power since 1886, except for two short periods of one and two years. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman came in, 1906, with an overwhelming majority. The Liberals captured 379 seats out of the total of 670, while the Unionists had only 157. Though a pronounced Home Ruler, the new premier left that dangerous question alone during his tenure of office. The two previous Liberal administrations had gone to pieces on that rock. Herbert Asquith, Liberal, succeeded to the premiership shortly before the death of Campbell-Bannerman in 1908. He was seconded by the chancellor of the exchequer, David Lloyd George. In 1911 the Parliament Act bill was introduced and passed by the Lords, and now the road to Home Rule lay open. The "Osborne judgment" had deprived the trade unions of the right to pay the salaries of labor members in Parliament, and now every member of the House of Commons was voted a salary of $2,000 a year. The Unionists opposed this measure violently. Thus the Liberals, the Laborites, and the Irish Nationalists were welded into one party. Not long after, the "Liberal Unionists" who had seceded from the Liberal party over the Home Rule splits of 1886 and 1893, joined the Conservatives. The united party became known as Unionists, taking the place of the former Conservative party opposed to the Liberals. "The road was now clear for the electoral reform so long demanded by Liberals. Asquith had made it clear in 1910 that as soon as the power of the Lords was broken he would proceed with the task of making the House of Commons 'not only the mouthpiece but the mirror of the national mind, by abolishing plural voting, by shortening the period of qualification, and by converting the representation of the people from what it too often is now—a sham—into a reality.' Accordingly in 1912 a Reform Bill was introduced which rested on a purely democratic basis. . . . The principle of the measure was approved by the House of Commons in 1912, and in the following year the ministry proceeded with their task of converting it into law. But unfortunately for their plans, the Bill could not be carried through, chiefly because of disagreement upon the question of woman suffrage. . . . Electoral reform in the session of 1914 was blocked by the breaking forth of the great war, and most people felt that the question must be dropped until after the cessation of hostilities. But the effect of the war was rather to hasten than to impede the course of electoral reform."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes, v.* 1, *pp.* 168-170.—In 1918 an electoral reform act was finally passed. See ENGLAND: 1918: Representation of the People Act.

1915-1922.—Coalition ministries. See ENGLAND: 1915: Novel legislative and administrative measures; 1916 (December); 1918 (December); 1919-1920: Ministerial changes.

1922.—Fall of Lloyd-George ministry.—End of coalition. See ENGLAND: 1922 (October-November).

1923.—Question of leadership.—"Former Premier Asquith, speaking at Cambridge [on March 7, 1923], . . . made a reply to Mr. Lloyd George's recent appeal for Liberal reunion but gave no direct response to the latter's suggestion that the Liberal leaders should confer together to this end. Mr. Asquith declared that he was all for Liberal reunion in the only sense in which he understood the term—that was co-operation of all Liberals in the pursuit of Liberal principles through the agency of a Liberal Party. . . . As regards the leadership of the Liberal Party, Mr. Asquith said he

was elected its leader fifteen years ago. He had not yet resigned that post, and as far as he knew he had not been deposed from it."—*New York Times, Mar.* 8, 1923.

ALSO IN: J. Morley, *Gladstone.*—W. Churchill, *Liberalism and the social problem.*—C. F. G. Masterman, *New Liberalism.*

See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Austria; Germany: 1840-1850; BELGIUM: 1830-1884; 1899-1900; 1902; 1904; CANADA: 1896-1897; GERMANY: 1887-1893; NETHERLANDS: 1853-1867; NEW ZEALAND: 1906-1909; NORWAY: 1907-1909; RUSSIA: 1904-1905: Growth of political parties; SPAIN: 1900-1909: Parties and conflicts.

LIBERAL REPUBLICAN PARTY. See U.S.A.: 1872.

LIBERALISM. See ECONOMICS: 20th century: Developments; PAPACY: 1864.

LIBERATION, War of (1813-1814). See GERMANY: 1812-1813; 1813 (April-May); 1813 (May-August).

LIBERATOR, anti-slavery paper edited by William Lloyd Garrison, published at Boston, 1832-1865. See U.S.A.: 1829-1832; SLAVERY: 1828-1832.

LIBERATORS, name assumed by the assassins of Julius Cæsar. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 44: After Cæsar's death.

LIBERIA, negro republic in West Africa, on the Atlantic coast, between the British colony, Sierra Leone, and the French colony of the Ivory Coast. See AFRICA: Map.

Geographic description.—"Liberia is situated on the west coast of Africa, in the western part of what on old maps was known as Upper Guinea. Both Upper and Lower Guinea have long been frequented by European traders; different parts of the long coast line have received special names according to the natural products which form their characteristic feature in trade; thus we have the Grain Coast, Ivory Coast, Slave Coast, Gold Coast. Liberia is the same as the old Grain Coast and was so called because from it were taken the grains of 'Malagueta Pepper,' once a notable import in Europe. Liberia has a coast line of some 350 miles, from the Mano River on the west to the Caballa River on the east. . . . Its area is approximately 43,000 square miles—a little more than that of the state of Ohio. The coast of Liberia is for the most part low and singularly uninteresting. Throughout most of its extent a rather narrow, sandy beach is exposed to an almost continuous beating of surf; there is not a single good natural harbor. . . . There is no place where vessels actually attempt to make an entrance; they regularly anchor at a considerable distance from the shore and load and unload by means of canoes and small boats sent out from the towns. At Cape Mount, near the western limit of the country, a promontory rises to a height of 1068 feet above the sea. It is the most striking feature of the whole coast. . . . Five-sixths of the total area of the Republic is covered with a forest, dense even for the tropics. . . . In the northwestern part of the country the forest gives way to the Mandingo Plateau, high grass-land. . . . There are many rivers in Liberia and the country is well watered. Several of these rivers are broad in their lower reaches, but they are extremely variable in depth and are generally shallow. Few of them are navigable to any distance from their mouth, and then only by small boats."—F. Starr, *Liberia, pp.* 2-4.

Population.—"The approximate total coast population of 'civilized' Liberians, mostly Christian and of mixed American and indigenous Negro races, amounts to 50,000. The Liberian community, therefore, at the present time [1921] amounts to a population in the coast regions of about 60,000 in number. . . . At various times, Liberia has been involved in disputes with France, England and the indigenous natives of the region. These latter Negroes, who are uncivilized, number over two millions and form the bulk of the population. Twelve thousand American-Liberians are the governing-class, and the remainder of the voting population consists of thirty or forty thousand civilized Christian Liberians of native origin. The American colonists may only take residence along parts of the coast line and about the mouths of the St. Paul's and Cavalla rivers. Therefore, except for a narrow belt of cleared land all along the seaboard, Liberia is thickly forested. . . . The densest forest of the region is Gora, which is regarded as being nearly wholly uninhabited. It extends about 6,000 square miles between the British frontier and the Po hills."—T. H. B. Walker, *History of Liberia, pp.* 168, 5-6.

Origin of name.—Administrative divisions.—"The name Liberia was suggested in 1824 by Robert Goodloe Harper, of Baltimore, Maryland, and has reference to the fact that the colony was established as a land of freedom; the capital city, Monrovia, was also named on his suggestion in honor of the president of the United States at that time, James Monroe. The Republic of Liberia is divided for administrative purposes into four counties—Montserrado, Grand Bassa, Sinoe, and Maryland. These are named in order from west to east. The portion of Montserrado County lying around Cape Mount forms a territory with Robertsport as its capital and chief city."—F. Starr, *Liberia, p.* 21.

Racial elements.—"In considering the society of Liberia, and the problems with which the Liberian Government has had to deal, it is necessary to sharply distinguish the different elements of which it is composed. . . . The immigrant population, as we use the term, includes negroes who have come from the United States, from the British West Indies, or from South America, and their descendants; this class also includes a number of recaptured Africans and their descendants. The first settlers were, of course, American freed-men from the United States. They and their descendants have always formed the bulk of the Liberian population. Immigration from the United States has never entirely ceased, although in these latter days the newcomers have been people who were born in freedom. There is a very considerable number of so-called 'West Indian Negroes' in Liberia; ever since the foundation of the Republic there has been a small but rather steady influx of such individuals. Occasionally immigrants have also come from South American colonies and from various British colonies and settlements along the coast of West Africa; all of these new-comers are included under the general term of Americo-Liberians, even though they may have had no relation to America. During the early days of Liberia it was customary to send Africans who had been captured on slaving ships by American war vessels to Liberia for settlement; these individuals were known as recaptured Africans, and it was customary to settle them in places by themselves; although such recaptured Africans rapidly acquired the improvements of civilization and showed themselves industrious, enterprising, and progressive, they were generally looked upon with more or less contempt by the other settlers. The aboriginal population may be divided into three quite different groups. The coast natives, Kru and others, have long been in constant contact with white men and have acquired considerable knowledge of the

outside world; they are constantly employed by steamers both as crews and in loading and discharging cargoes. In the western half of the Republic Mohammedan influence is strong; the Mandingo, most of the Vai, and considerable numbers of such tribes as the Gola are Mohammedans; the influence of Mohammedanism is spreading and the presence of this element is destined to have its effect upon the nation. The third element of the native population is the interior natives living the old tribal life. . . . The Liberian settlements generally consist of well built houses arranged along broad, straight streets. The style of architecture is, as might be expected, influenced by the plantation houses of our Southern States before the war. It was natural that the freed-men, when they had a chance to develop, should copy those things with which they were familiar."—F. Starr, *Liberia, pp.* 25-26.

Language.—"The native languages of Liberia—so far as they are known—fall into five groups:—(1) Kru; (2) Kpwesi; (3) Mandingo; (4) Gora; and (5) Bulom. The three first groups have perhaps more fundamental relationship than is the case with the two last. Gora is an almost isolated language, with a very slight resemblance in its vocabulary, here and there, to the Kru group, to the Mandingo, or even to the Bulom. This last-named is only represented in Liberia by the *Kisi* language, spoken to the west of Boporo near the Sierra Leone frontier."—H. Johnston, *Liberia, v.* 2, *p.* 1091.

Portuguese exploration in the 15th and 16th centuries.—Trade in pepper and gold.—The Portuguese discovered the promontory of Cape Mesurado in 1461. In the following year the commander of this exploration, Pedro de Sintra, returned and reached Cape Palmas and the Cavalla river. Subsequently the Portuguese mapped the coast, and capes and islands still bear Portuguese names. "Guinea gold first inspired the European adventurers of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries in their exploration of West Africa. The next most potent inducement was pepper. . . . Judge, therefore [if we may believe French traditions], of the delight of the Dieppois when in their tentative explorations of the Guinea coast they discovered pepper, apparently of two kinds, in use by the Negroes. The first of these spices which they brought to light was the 'grains of Paradise.' These were obtained from Sierra Leone, and notably the coast of Liberia, which is the reason why that part of Guinea has been known on the maps for several centuries as the 'Grain' Coast. These 'grains of Paradise' are sometimes called cardamoms [cardamom is really the name of a kindred species from Eastern Asia], and sometimes Malagueta, or Maniguette, pepper. The origin of the word Malagueta is uncertain, but it may be that in the days of Moorish Spain, Malaga was an emporium for this new spice; for it is known that these 'grains of Paradise' were first introduced into the Mediterranean world by the Moors, who obtained them through the overland trade already existing between Mauritania and West Africa. . . . These 'grains of Paradise' created a kind of rage in Europe from the tenth to the eighteenth century, and formed the foundation of most spices and the flavouring of drinks and viands. . . . The Portuguese also pushed a trade in it, especially in the country of Benin, until towards the middle of the sixteenth century. When the route to India had been discovered, the importation of this African pepper was forbidden in Portugal, in order that it might not compete with the Indian trade. . . . From the middle of the fifteenth to the middle of the sixteenth century the Portuguese had the Guinea trade entirely in their own hands, and they imitated the Venetians in trying to control the pepper trade and run up the price of these spices. With the same result, that the English under Mary I. and Elizabeth, and a little later the Dutch and the Flemings, resolved to follow the tracks of the Portuguese and find out where the pepper came from. . . . Probably the first Englishmen to see the coast of Liberia were the officers and crew of the *Primrose* and the *Lion,* two goodly ships accompanied by a pinnace called the *Moon* which sailed from Portsmouth on August 12th, 1553. . . . About 1550 a Portuguese sea-captain, called Antonio Anes Pinteado of Oporto, after holding high rank in the Portuguese naval service . . . lost favour at Court. He came to Southampton in anger, and resolved to show the English the way to Guinea. . . . The [English] ships entered the Benin River, and Pinteado escorted a party of the officers and men to see the King of Benin, a monarch who was found to be speaking Portuguese perfectly. He promised them a great cargo of pepper; but Pinteado delayed so long over his commercial transactions that the rest of the men in the two ships began to die four or five a day from all sorts of maladies, contracted generally through their imprudence."—H. Johnston, *Liberia, v.* 1, *pp.* 56-62.

Slave trade in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.—"During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the great inducement that brought Europeans to the West Coast of Africa was not merely to trade in gold, ivory, camwood, and pepper, but it was, first and foremost, slaves. Liberia, however, for reasons which will be shown, suffered perhaps less than most parts of the West African Coast, the adjoining district of the Ivory Coast having even greater immunity. Nevertheless, it was the slave trade that indirectly gave birth to Liberia as a recognised state. . . . The early Portuguese explorers sent out by Prince Henry at first took every opportunity of kidnapping the Moors whom they met on the coast of the Sahara, and these people were dispatched as slaves to Portugal. Prince Henry, however, came in time to realise the iniquity of this proceeding and its bad policy on the part of a nation which at that time was aspiring to colonise and rule Morocco. He therefore ordered that they should be given a chance of ransoming themselves. . . . During the first hundred years of their African exploration, the Portuguese picked up Negroes by purchase from the Fula and Mandingo chiefs of Senegambia, and also by kidnapping them occasionally on the peninsula of Sierra Leone and on the Liberian Coast. They traded for them on the Gold Coast, in the Congo and Angola countries. These slaves were mostly sent to Portugal as curiosities, quite as much as for domestic service. Care was generally taken to have them baptized and even to a certain extent educated. Meantime, North and South America had been discovered and the West India Islands settled by Spaniards. . . . [It was suggested] that the hardier Negroes of West Africa should be imported direct into the West Indies, to furnish the unskilled labour for which the native Americans were unsuited by their constitution. . . . The coasts of Liberia were not so much ravaged by the slave trade as were the regions between the Gambia and Sierra Leone, the Dahome or Slave Coast, the Niger Delta, Old Calabar, Loango, and Congo. . . . What damage was done to the coast of Liberia seems to be chiefly attributed to the English, who had already begun to visit that coast at the close of the sixteenth century, and were very busy there all

through the seventeenth. The French traveller Villault de Bellefonds mentions repeatedly in his writings the damage that the English did on the Grain Coast [Liberia] in attacking the natives for little or no cause, and in carrying them off as slaves. . . . Even English travellers such as William Smith [who went out as a surveyor to the Gold Coast early in the eighteenth century] admit that the English had become very unpopular on the Gold Coast, owing to these aggressions on the natives; and William Smith and his companions endeavoured to pass as Frenchmen when they visited Eastern Liberia and the Ivory Coast, 'because of the bad name the English had acquired.' The Chevalier des Marchais, the French traveller who visited Cape Mesurado in 1724-5, wrote that the natives of this part of the Grain Coast were much addicted to human sacrifices, until they found that their captives were marketable commodities which could be sold with profit to the foreigner. . . . English and Spanish pirates paid flying visits to the northern rivers of Liberia during the early part of the eighteenth century, but were not very successful in their search for slaves, and so left the Grain Coast pretty much to the Dutch and French traders in pepper and ivory. It was not until the early nineteenth century that the slave trade revived in the northern half of Liberia. . . . The first country which as a nation denounced the slave trade not only in principle, but in practice, amongst its subjects on the West Coast of Africa was Denmark (1792), followed by the United States in 1794, by Great Britain in 1807, Sweden in 1813, Holland in 1814, and France in 1815-18."—H. Johnston, *Liberia, v.* 1, *pp.* 104-112.

Early history.—"The idea of a sort of expiatory repatriation of the African had been preached in the United States before the Revolution. In England the efforts of Wilberforce had been instrumental in planting a colony of emancipated slaves in Sierra Leone. The state of Virginia had occupied itself with the question, and had sought the aid of the general government to secure some appropriate place for the settlement of free negroes. These tendencies came to a focus in the American Colonization Society, founded in 1816 in Washington through the efforts of Rev. Robert Finley. It counted its supporters among the leading men of the nation. Henry Clay presided over its initial meeting, held in the hall of the House of Representatives, and Justice Bushrod Washington was long its president. Preliminary arrangements for the proposed colony were made in 1818, when representatives of the society visited the coast of Africa, and negotiated for the cession of Sherbro Island in the present colony of Sierra Leone. Two years later, a body of emigrants was sent thither under the convoy of the United States sloop of war, *Cyane.* The hostility of the natives caused the abandonment of the project and the retirement of the would-be colonists to Sierra Leone."—R. P. Falkner, *United States and Liberia* (*American Journal of International Law, v.* 4, *pp.* 530-531).

1820-1823.—First colonists.—Eli Ayres.—Elijah Johnson.—Jehudi Ashmun.—"For the expenses of the expedition $33,000 was placed in the hands of Mr. Bacon. Dr. Samuel A. Crozier was appointed by the Society as its agent and representative; and 86 negroes from various states—33 men, 18 women, and the rest children, were embarked. On the 6th of February, 1820, the Mayflower of Liberia weighed anchor in New York harbor, and, convoyed by the U. S. sloop-of-war Cyane, steered her course toward the shores of Africa. The pilgrims were kindly treated by the authorities at Sierra Leone, where they arrived on the 9th of March; but on proceeding to Sherbro Island they found the natives had reconsidered their promise, and refused to sell them land. While delayed by negotiations the injudicious nature of the site selected was disastrously shown. The low marshy ground and the bad water quickly bred the African fever, which soon carried off all the agents and nearly a fourth of the emigrants. The rest, weakened and disheartened, were soon obliged to seek refuge at Sierra Leone. In March, 1821, a body of 28 new emigrants under charge of J. B. Winn and Ephraim Bacon, reached Freetown in the brig Nautilus. Winn collected as many as he could of the first company, also the stores sent out with them, and settled the people in temporary quarters at Fourah Bay, while Bacon set out to explore the coast anew and secure suitable territory. An elevated fertile and desirable tract was at length discovered between 250 and 300 miles S. E. of Sierra Leone. This was the region of Cape Montserado. It seemed exactly suited to the purposes of the colonists, but the natives refused to sell their land for fear of breaking up the traffic in slaves; and the agent returned discouraged. Winn soon died, and Bacon returned to the United States. In November, Dr. Eli Ayres was sent over as agent, and the U. S. schooner Alligator, commanded by Lieutenant Stockton, was ordered to the coast to assist in obtaining a foothold for the colony. Cape Montserado was again visited; and the address and firmness of Lieutenant Stockton accomplished the purchase of a valuable tract of land. The cape upon which the settlers proposed to build their first habitations consists of a narrow peninsula or tongue of land formed by the Montserado River, which separates it from the mainland. Just within the mouth of the river lie two small islands, containing together less than three acres. To these, the Plymouth of Liberia, the colonists and their goods were soon transported. But again the fickle natives repented the bargain, and the settlers were long confined to 'Perseverance Island,' as the spot was aptly named. . . . After a number of thrilling experiences the emigrants, on April 25, 1822, formally took possession of the cape, where they had erected rude houses for themselves; and from this moment we may date the existence of the colony. Their supplies were by this time sadly reduced; the natives were hostile and treacherous; fever had played havoc with the colonists in acclimating; and the incessant downpour of the rainy season had set in. Dr. Ayres became thoroughly discouraged, and proposed to lead them back to Sierra Leone. Then it was that Elijah Johnson, an emigrant from New York, made himself forever famous in Liberian history by declaring that he would never desert the home he had found after two years' weary quest! His firmness decided the wavering colonists; the agents with a few faint-hearted ones sailed off to America; but the majority remained with their heroic Negro leader. The little band, deserted by their appointed protectors, were soon reduced to the most dire distress, and must have perished miserably but for the arrival of unexpected relief. The United States Government had at last gotten hold of some ten liberated Africans, and had a chance to make use of the agency established for them at so great an expense. They were accordingly sent out in the brig Strong under the care of the Rev. Jehudi Ashmun. A quantity of stores and some 37 emigrants sent by the Colonization Society completed the cargo. Ashmun had received no commission as agent for the colony, and expected to return on the Strong; under this impression his wife had accompanied him. But when he found the colonists in so desperate a situation he nobly

determined to remain with them at any sacrifice. . . . On the 24th of May, 1823, the brig Oswego arrived with 61 new emigrants and a liberal supply of stores and tools, in charge of Dr. Ayres, who, already the representative of the Society, had now been appointed Government Agent and Surgeon. One of the first measures of the new agent was to have the town surveyed and lots distributed among the whole body of colonists. Many of the older settlers found themselves dispossessed of the holdings improved by their labor, and the colony was soon in a ferment of excitement and insurrection. Dr. Ayres, finding his health failing, judiciously betook himself to the United States. The arrival of the agent had placed Mr. Ashmun in a false position of the most mortifying character. . . . Seeing the colony again deserted by the agent and in a state of discontent and confusion, he forgot his wrongs and remained at the helm. Order was soon restored but the seeds of insubordination remained." —J. H. T. McPherson, *History of Liberia* (*Johns Hopkins University Studies, series 9, no. 10, ch. 2, 3, 5*).

1824-1847.—Provisional Constitution for Mesurado Colony.—Gurley and Harper.—Maryland settlement.—Confederation of settlements, 1837.—"From Virginia on board the good ship *Cyrns* one hundred and five fresh colonists came in 1824. With this reinforcement Ashmun felt that he could safely leave the little settlement and so went to Cape Verde Island for a rest from his labors. The American Government and the Colonization Society had recently appointed the Rev. Robert Gurley to draw up a provisional constitution for the Mesurado colony. While proceeding to the Grain Coast on the war vessel *Porpoise* he met Ashmun, and the definite result was the establishing of the plucky leader both as virtual governor of the settlement and as principal agent of the American Colonization Society. . . . Gurley not only drew up a constitution, but on August 15th adopted the suggestion of Robert Goodloe Harper of Baltimore, and named the colony Liberia and the Mesurado settlement, Monrovia. In true religious fervor, Ashmun had tentatively named the little settlement Christopolis, but readily consented to the change. Monrovia was, of course, named after Monroe, then President of the United States. Harper was greatly interested in the colonization project and had suggested both his names in the United States Senate. His own name was afterwards given to the largest settlement in Maryland on Cape Palmas. After Gurley's return to America on August 22, 1825, his measures were almost at once approved and ratified both by the Colonization Society and the United States Government. This ratification was conveyed to Liberia by the United S. S. *Hunter*, which dropped anchor off Monrovia, March 14, 1825. This ship also increased the population of the Mesurado Plateau by sixty colonists."—T. H. B. Walker, *History of Liberia, pp.* 66-67.—"The propaganda of the Society met with considerable success. Branch organizations were founded in several States, and then soon arose a series of settlements along what is now the Liberian coast, each under the fostering care of a separate State society. Of all the States, Maryland took the deepest interest in the matter. Its legislature provided by law that all free negroes should be deported, and contributed an annual appropriation of $10,000 to the Maryland Society. Under the auspices of the latter the State of Maryland in Africa, with its headquarters at Harper, Cape Palmas, was established. The colony was quite successful, though it held aloof from the other settlements. Under the management of the Maryland Society it maintained a wholly separate existence until 1857 when it sought admission to the Republic of Liberia and became a part of it. A confederation of the separate settlements, except Maryland, was effected in 1837, and a definite form of government established. The governor was appointed by the American Colonization Society, but by the terms of this arrangement a self-governing community was established. This government subsisted till 1847, when the Republic was established." —R. P. Falkner, *United States and Liberia* (*American Journal of International Law, July,* 1910).

1846-1862.—Founding of the republic.—"If Britain had decided to annex Liberia in 1846, it is hardly likely that the United States would have offered any considerable opposition. In those days there was no steamship service between England and the West Coast, and the Liberian trade was not of much importance. Consequently the British Government was in no hurry to act, and during this time Governor Roberts had the foresight to materially strengthen the Liberian hold on the Grain Coast by additional purchases from the native chiefs. . . . Whether or not England approved of this territorial growth of the little colony, it did not venture to further interfere with the foreign policies of Liberia, and in January, 1846, Roberts decided that the only solution of the difficulties of Liberia was to declare it an independent Negro Republic. It was not difficult to obtain the assent of the American Colonization Society to this scheme, for the Society had for some time wished itself rid of its responsibilities on the West Coast. The British seemed to favor the plan, provided Liberia constituted itself a State with definite responsibilities, and the government was assured that it would receive full recognition from the British Government. During the spring and early summer of 1847, the Liberians continued to discuss the question of independence. On May 18, an ordinance for administering justice in the State of Maryland was passed, and preparation was made to declare Maryland an independent state simultaneously with Liberia. July 8th, 1847, was declared a day of public thanksgiving in Liberia, to mark the conclusion of the efforts which had been made to draw up the terms of the Declaration of Independence and the future constitution of the Liberian Republic. . . . The hoisting of the new flag of the Republic on August 24th was the signal for the recognition of the new Republic as an independent state by Great Britain. An English man-of-war proceeded to Monrovia and there saluted the new ensign with a salvo of twenty-one guns. On the first Tuesday in October, 1847, Joseph Jenkins Roberts was elected the first President of the Republic and on January 3d, 1848, he was inaugurated. The President was well liked by many of the native chiefs and several hundred tribesmen flocked to Liberia to see the ceremonies of his installation. Soon after taking office, President Roberts left for Europe with his wife, who was an octoroon like himself. Arriving in England Roberts succeeded in completing a commercial treaty with the British Government which thoroughly assured the status of the Liberian Republic as an independent nation. . . . From England Roberts proceeded to France, where he was received by Napoleon III, and thence to Belgium, where Leopold I gave him a most cordial reception. In Holland he was likewise welcomed, and on his visit to Berlin, the Government of Prussia took the opportunity to formally recognize the existence of the Liberian Republic. . . . Soon after his return to Monrovia, France sent a gunboat, the *Penelope*, to salute at Monrovia with twenty-one guns, the flag of the Liberian Republic.

The American corvette *Yorktown* and the English gun vessel *Kingfisher* also visited Liberia in the early part of 1849 and assisted Roberts to a final attack on the obstinate Spanish slave-trade settlements at New Cess River, just beyond Basa, which were destroyed and 3,500 slaves released. In the year 1849, Portugal, Sardinia, Austria, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, Brazil, Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, and Haiti followed the powers of Western and Central Europe in formally recognizing the Liberian State. The United States withheld its act of formal recognition, for the reason it feared if Liberia was recognized as an independent State, the United States would have to receive at Washington a 'man of color.' Such was the color prejudice then in vogue in the United States. In 1862 the United States formally acknowledged the independence of this little State created by American philanthropy." —T. H. B. Walker, *History of Liberia, pp.* 100-101, 102-103, 105-106.

1847.—Declaration of Independence.—"1. The Declaration of Independence of Liberia was adopted on July 26, 1847. It is a human document of extraordinary interest. As a basis for it, the declarers state their case in the following words: 'We the people of the Republic of Liberia, were originally inhabitants of the United States of North America. In some parts of that country we were debarred by law from all rights and privileges of men—in other parts, public sentiment, more powerful than law, ground us down. We were everywhere shut out from all civil offices. We were excluded from all participation in the government. We were taxed without our consent. We were compelled to contribute to the resources of the country, which gave us no protection. We were made a separate and distinct class, and against us every avenue of improvement was effectually closed. Strangers from all lands, of a color different from ours, were preferred before us. We uttered our complaints, but they were unattended to, or met only by alleging the peculiar institution of the country. All hope of a favorable change in our country was thus wholly extinguished in our bosoms, and we looked about with anxiety for some asylum from the deep degradation.' The whole document is well worth reading. 2. The Constitution was adopted on the same day, which date is celebrated annually as the birthday of the nation. The document is largely patterned after our own, but presents some interesting points of difference. Among these, three deserve special mention. Slavery is absolutely prohibited throughout the Republic. Citizenship is limited to negroes, or persons of negro descent; in the original Constitution the wording was, that it was confined to 'persons of color,' an amendment was adopted, changing the expression to 'negroes, or those of negro descent.' The ballot is cast by male citizens, twenty-one years of age, and owning real estate. 3. This Constitution remained without amendment for sixty years."—F. Starr, *Liberia, pp.* 36-37.

1885.—Boundary Treaty. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

1892-1904.—Boundary disputes with French.—"To the north and east Liberia has France as her neighbor. In pursuit of their policy of building up a great West African Empire the French have been a thorn in the side of Liberia. They have been consistent and persistent in their efforts to increase their boundaries. By successive treaties with Liberia they have deprived that country of territories long claimed by her. France has based its aggressions on the plea that the territory which she had annexed, and then had ceded to her by treaty, was not effectively occupied by the Liberians and was therefore subject to acquisition by another power. This in particular was the justification urged in the long dispute which culminated in the treaty of 1892, whereby Liberia lost to France a strip of 60 miles of coast and extensive territories in the interior."—*Sixty-first United States Congress, 2nd Session, Senate Document, no.* 457.—"From 1898 to 1899 another most remarkable journey of exploration had been added to the several notable expeditions into Liberia which had served to arouse French land-hunger as regards Liberian territory. This expedition was under the joint command of a colonial official of the Ivory Coast, M. Hostains, and a military officer, Captain D'Ollone. They started on February 19, 1899. Their journey was the most remarkable piece of exploration that has yet been accomplished in the Liberian hinterland, for this French expedition was the first to reveal with any approach to accuracy the configuration of the Cavalla basin. It also discovered the lofty Nimba Mountains and enabled us to make a more accurate guess at the sources and affluents of the St. Paul's River. Their journey threw a beam of bright light through the dark Liberian hinterland. Therefore, in 1904, proposals and counter proposals on the part of France and Liberia were made in regard to the drawing of the boundary line on the northern and eastern frontiers of the Republic. In the first place, a more accurate delineation of the frontier was rendered necessary, inasmuch as the treaty of 1892 had not been founded on geographical facts. The proposals of France, which were finally agreed to by Liberia, caused the cession by the Republic of a portion of the west basin of the Makona in the northwest, but, on the other hand, assured her undisputed possession of the entire western basin of the Cavalla. The whole basin on the river St. Paul was also given over to Liberia. By this treaty, much valuable territory in both regions of the northeast and northwest is lost to the little Republic."—T. H. B. Walker, *History of Liberia, pp.* 163-164.—"The vagueness of this treaty [of 1892] with respect to the interior boundaries furnished the basis of claims which enabled France to make further encroachments upon territory previously assigned to Liberia and by a further treaty of 1907 to force Liberia to yet further cessions of territory estimated at 2,000 square miles, not indeed then occupied by Liberia any more than by France, but forming a valuable asset for the future development of the Republic. This treaty reflected in its terms the general uncertainty which prevails as to African geography, and required the settlement by a mixed commission of a definite boundary line in accordance with the general principles laid down in the treaty itself."—*Sixty-first United States Congress, 2nd Session, Senate Document, no.* 457.

1903-1908.—Difficulties with Great Britain.—Recently events have occurred in the northwest corner of Liberia in the native town and district of Kanre Lahun which have brought Liberia into an irritating controversy with Great Britain. The history of the case is somewhat involved. Briefly, the town was in the occupation of British command when the delimitation commission of 1903 discovered that it was located within Liberian territory. Before it was known that this region was Liberian, the British had entered into a treaty of protection with the native chief of that district. In 1904 a native war broke out in this district, and it was alleged that raids were made into British territory. Through the consul-general of Great Britain in Monrovia, permission was granted British authorities to enter Liberian territory for the purpose of quelling this disturbance. Though the evi-

dence shows that the hostile chief was driven out of his country some six or eight months later, the British have made no motion to retire from this Liberian territory. They have not denied Liberian sovereignty, but have recently declined to allow the Liberians to exercise it. Though they permitted Liberia to send a customs official and district commissioner into this region in 1906, in September, 1908, they refused to permit the Liberian official to discharge the duties of a district commissioner, and a month later ordered that the customs establishment be removed. . . . In view of the obligations assumed by the treaty of 1907, and in view moreover of certain urgent representations from the British foreign office, the Liberians undertook in the year 1908 to organize a frontier police force and called in the aid of British officers. The officer chosen to command the force, Capt. R. Mackay Cadell, an English militia officer, had seen service in South Africa. . . . Cadell was given the rank of major in the Liberian army and was given free hand to organize and equip the force subject only to a relatively slight supervision by the President of Liberia. . . . In the late summer of 1908 enlistment and military training began. Considerable work was done in this direction, and when Major Cadell finally retired from the command of the force it was a very presentable body of men, showing the beneficial effects of a strict military training."—*Sixty-first United States Congress, 2nd Session, Senate Document, no.* 457.—See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

1907.—Amendments to constitution.—"In the beginning, the term of president, vice-president, and representatives had been fixed at two years, and that of senators at four; experience demonstrated that these terms were too short and a vigorous agitation to lengthen them took place. The Liberians are a conservaive people and look back with pride to the doings of the 'fathers'; very strong feeling was aroused at the suggestion of changing the wording of the sacred document which they had left. In time, however, sufficient sentiment was developed to lead to the submission of amendments at the election of 1907; the amendments were carried by a vote of 5112 to 1467. By these amendments the term of office of president, vice-president, and representatives was extended to four years and that of senators to six."—F. Starr, *Liberia, p.* 37.

1907-1909.—Relations with United States.—"The Liberians felt in the spring of 1908 that France was absorbing their territory and Great Britain their government. The treaty of 1907 with France has been received with dismay, Great Britain had in 1907 indicated to Liberia that unless she put her house in order, introduced an effective frontier police, reformed her finances and her courts, and thus establish a government which could cope with modern problems, Liberia was likely to disappear as an independent nation, and had vaguely hinted that Great Britain might be the agency through which such a disappearance might be expected to take place. These suggestions became demands in a communication from the British Consul-General at Monrovia in January, 1908. With such a powerful stimulus to action the government established a force under English officers, increased the number of Englishmen in the customs service and planned to give the chief inspector large powers with respect to internal finances. Small wonder that the fear arose that Great Britain was gradually insinuating herself into all branches of the administration. The commission which visited the United States in 1908 hoped to check France by a treaty with the United States guaranteeing the territorial integrity and independence of the country, and hoped to check Great Britain by securing through the aid of our Government experts in various lines of administration who would help along rational reforms and dispense with British or other foreign officials. That the United States could not undertake to establish a protectorate over Liberia is obvious, and the envoys were told so frankly. But the earnestness of their appeal convinced the Department of State that if anything could be done properly by our Government to assist these former wards of ours, it ought to be undertaken. Just what it might be it was difficult to ascertain, and it was accordingly recommended that a commission be sent from the United States to Liberia and report upon the situation found there."—R. P. Falkner, *United States and Liberia (American Journal of International Law, July,* 1910).—This commission was sent by President Roosevelt in 1909. The members were W. Morgan Schuster, George Sale and Emmet J. Scott, sceretary to Booker T. Washington, accompanied by Captain Sydney A. Cloman, Military Attaché and Major Percy W. Ashburn of the United States Medical Department, the latter to report on sanitary conditions. This commission on its return six months later (October, 1909) recommended an extension of prompt and effective aid to the Liberian government, in the refunding of its debt, the reform of its finances, the settlement of its boundary disputes, and the organization of a competent constabulary force, also that the United States establish in Liberia a naval coaling station and a research station.

1911-1913.—Action of United States.—Relations with Germany.—The United States determined to act in harmony with Great Britain, France and Germany in supervising boundary, military, financial and agricultural questions. In 1911 a loan of $2,000,000 was floated. In 1912 the president, Daniel Howard, was involved with Germany because Germany accused the Liberians of insulting merchants and sent gunboats to force an apology. In 1913 Liberia retaliated by granting privileges to English traders.—"Germany held the largest commercial interests in Liberia, but England and France are our nearest territorial neighbors. Each of these three powers had at Monrovia a Customs Receiver. . . . In the case of native uprisings in distant parts of the State, in regions where the Government forces were not available, we [Liberia] found it necessary to protect ourselves against the claims for damage put forward by foreign merchants. We, therefore, brought in a new Port of Entry Act, which made it obligatory for every merchant who desired to carry on business in doubtful regions to execute a contract, under consular visa, to submit to the decision of the Liberian courts upon any question of claim arising out of material loss or damage. In 1913 certain German merchants demanded $80,000 from the Government of the republic for alleged losses under the conditions which I have mentioned. Although they had contracted to take all risk and to abide by the rulings of our courts, they invoked the aid of the German Government, which sent the warships Bremen, Emden, and Panther (of Agadir notoriety) to menace Monrovia. These three vessels have been sunk since by the British Navy, but in 1913 they were employed to intimidate our Government into the immediate payment of the sum claimed. We suggested arbitration, which Germany, in view of the pressure of outside opinion, reluctantly had to accept. A Frenchman, a Liberian, and a German were duly appointed to arbitrate as to the amount to be paid to the merchants. The award was

$5,000."—*New York Times Current History, July,* 1919, *p.* 73.

1917-1918.—Part taken in World War.—Liberia severed diplomatic relations with Germany, May 8, 1917, and formally declared war, August 4, 1917. "After the outbreak of the war Liberia was neutral. When German commerce had been swept from the seas, German subjects on foreign territory in Africa were everywhere interned, except in Liberia. . . . On April 9, 1918, a German submarine came to Monrovia. The crew boarded our revenue cutter in the harbor and ordered us to cease all wireless and cable operations. . . . It was realized by everyone present that we were indeed at the mercy of the guns of the submarine. We, nevertheless, maintained a firm attitude, and decided to refuse to deliver up any allied citizens. We declined also to destroy the wireless installation. When the Germans became acquainted with our stand, they sank the patrol vessel. They then bombarded the wireless station. After firing twenty rounds, the submarine was herself attacked by a British merchant ship, the 'Burutu,' which had been attracted by the noise. This timely intervention forced the Germans to abandon their designs. Germany forced many Liberian subjects in the Cameroons to join the Imperial Army. Several hundred were, as a matter of fact, cruelly murdered for refusing to fight the British."—*New York Times Current History, July,* 1919, *pp.* 73-74.

1918-1922.—Loan by United States proposed. —C. D. B. King president.—In 1918, as a war measure, the United States promised $5,000,000 to the credit of Liberia. In 1920 C. D. B. King became president for the term 1920-1924, and in the fall of the same year he visited the United States. An announcement was subsequently made that financially Liberia was under the exclusive supervision of the United States. In 1922 President Harding urged the United States Congress to appropriate the $5,000,000 authorized in 1918, declaring the United States was morally bound to carry out its promise.

1919.—Represented at the Paris conference and the conference of Versailles. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; Part IV: Section IV.

ALSO IN: G. S. Stockwell, *Republic of Liberia: Its geography, climate, soil and production.*—J. H. B. *Latrobe, Maryland in Liberia.*—E. W. Blyden, *Chapter in the history of Liberia.*—F. A. Durham, *Lone star of Liberia.*—B. G. Brawley, *Social history of the American negro, including a history and study of the Republic of Liberia.*—A. Sharpe, *Hinterland of Liberia* (*Geographical Journal,* 1920, *pp.* 289-305).

LIBERIAS, Battle of (1187). See CRUSADES: Military aspect of the Crusades.

LIBERIUS (d. 366), pope, 352-366. See PAPACY: 42-461.

LIBERTINES OF GENEVA.—The party which opposed Calvin's austere and arbitrary rule in Geneva were called Libertines.—F. P. Guizot, *John Calvin, ch.* 9-16.

LIBERTINI. See INGENUI.

LIBERTY, Religious. See TOLERATION.

LIBERTY, American sloop seized by British customs officers in Boston, 1768. See BOSTON: 1768.

LIBERTY BELL. See INDEPENDENCE HALL: Liberty Bell.

LIBERTY BOYS, name for the Sons of Liberty of the American Revolution. "The first germs of political extra-constitutional organization in the American Republic are to be found in the clubs of the colonial period, which flourished mostly in Boston. These clubs represented groups of men generally bound by professional ties [Merchants' Club, Mechanics' Club], or by ties of friendship, and meeting regularly in taverns, or in private houses. Towards the sixties, when the relations between the government of the mother-country and the colonies began to get strained, the clubs naturally became a centre of political discussion, and very soon, reinforced by patriotic societies such as those of the "Sons of Liberty," they supplied the impulse for resistance to the arbitrary acts of the British Parliament."—M. Ostrogorski, *Democracy and the organization of political parties* (tr. by F. Clark), *v.* 2, *p.* 3.—"Before any stamps had arrived in America symptoms of an outbreak appeared in Boston. A large elm tree, which stood at the corner of the present Washington and Essex Streets, opposite the Boylston Market, received the appellation of 'Liberty Tree' from the circumstance that under it the Sons of Liberty held meetings during the summer of 1765. . . . [From its limbs were suspended], two effigies early on the morning of the 14th of August. One represented Andrew Oliver, secretary of the colony and just appointed stamp distributor for Massachusetts; the other was a large *boot* intended to represent Lord Bute. Four months afterward he [Andrew Oliver] was compelled by the populace to go under Liberty Tree and there publicly read his resignation."—B. J. Lossing, *Pictorial field book of the revolution, v.* 1, *p.* 467.—See also LIBERTY TREE.

LIBERTY CAP.—"This emblem, like many similar ones received by the revolutions from the hand of chance, was a mystery even to those who wore it. It had been adopted [at Paris] for the first time on the day of the triumph of the soldiers of Châteauvieux [April 15, 1792, when 41 Swiss soldiers of the regiment of Châteauvieux, condemned to the galleys for participation in a dangerous mutiny of the garrison at Nancy in 1790, but liberated in compliance with the demands of the mob, were fêted as heroes by the Jacobins of Paris]. Some said it was the coiffure of the galley-slaves, once infamous, but glorious since it had covered the brows of these martyrs of the insurrection; and they added that the people wished to purify this head-dress from every stain by wearing it themselves. Others only saw in it the Phrygian bonnet, a symbol of freedom for slaves. The 'bonnet rouge' had from its first appearance been the subject of dispute and dissension amongst the Jacobins; the 'exaltés' wore it, whilst the 'modéres yet abstained from adopting it." Robespierre and his immediate followers opposed the "frivolity" of the "bonnet rouge," and momentarily suppressed it in the Assembly. "But even the voice of Robespierre, and the resolutions of the Jacobins, could not arrest the outbreak of enthusiasm that had placed the sign of 'avenging equality' ('l'égalité vengeresse') on every head; and the evening of the day on which it was repudiated at the Jacobins' saw it inaugurated at all the theatres. The bust of Voltaire, the destroyer of prejudice, was adorned with the Phrygian cap of liberty, . . . whilst the cap and pike became the uniform and weapon of the citizen soldier."—A. de Lamartine, *History of the Girondists, v.* 1, *bk.* 13.

ALSO IN: H. M. Stephens, *History of the French Revolution, v.* 2, *ch.* 2.

LIBERTY CONGRESS, name applied to the national convention of the American League of Anti-Imperialists held at Indianapolis in 1900. See U.S.A.: 1900 (May-November).

LIBERTY GAP, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1863 (June-July: Tennessee).

LIBERTY LEAGUE, wing of the Liberty or Anti-Slavery party formed during a split in the party in 1847. See SLAVERY: 1840-1847.

LIBERTY LOAN ACTS. See U. S. A.: 1917-1919: Taxation and expenditures; Effect on the war.

LIBERTY MEN. See IRELAND: 1820-1870.

LIBERTY MOTOR. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1910-1920.

LIBERTY, or ANTI-SLAVERY, PARTY, United States. See SLAVERY: 1840-1847; MAINE: 1840-1841.

LIBERTY TREE, name given the particular tree under which the Sons of Liberty held meetings. In Boston the tree was an elm; in Charleston, a live-oak; in Maryland, an oak, etc. The Liberty Tree became a symbol of freedom. During the Revolution nearly every town, large or small, set up a pole, which the people reverenced and called the Liberty Tree. It occasioned many fights between the British soldiers and the Liberty Boys. See LIBERTY BOYS.

Importance in Boston.—"From the time of the Stamp Act excitement until the armed possession of Boston by General Gage and his troops in 1774, that tree had been the rallying-place for the patriots and had fallen, in consequence, much in disfavor with the friends of government. It was inscribed 'Liberty Tree' and the ground under it was called 'Liberty Hall.' The *Essex Gazette* of August 31, 1775, in describing the destruction of the tree, says: 'They made a furious attack upon it. After a long spell of laughing and grinning, sweating, swearing and foaming with malice diabolical, they cut down the tree because it bore the name of liberty. A soldier was killed by falling from one of its branches.' "—B. J. Lossing, *Pictorial field book of the Revolution, v.* 1, *p.* 466.—"In 1766, when the repeal of the Stamp Act took place, a large copper plate was fastened to the tree, inscribed in golden characters:—'This tree was planted in the year 1646, and pruned by order of the Sons of Liberty, Feb. 14th, 1766.' . . . The ground immediately about Liberty Tree was popularly known as Liberty Hall. In August, 1767, a flagstaff had been erected, which went through and extended above its highest branches. A flag hoisted upon this staff was the signal for the assembling of the Sons of Liberty. . . . In August, 1775, the name of Liberty having become offensive to the tories and their British allies, the tree was cut down by a party led by one Job Williams."—S. A. Drake, *Old landmarks of Boston, ch.* 14.—See also LIBERTY BOYS; U. S. A.: 1772-1773.

LIBERUM VETO. See POLAND: 1578-1652; 1763-1790; 1791-1792.

LIBIA ITALIANA. See LIBYA, OR LIBYA ITALIANA.

LIBRA, Roman.—"The ancient Roman unit of weight was the libra, or pondus, from which the modern names of the livre and pound are derived. Its weight was equal to 5,015 Troy gr. or 325 grm., and it was identical with the Greek-Asiatic mina." —H. W. Chisholm, *Science of weighing and measuring, ch.* 2.—See also As.

LIBRARIANS, Training of: France. See LIBRARIES: Modern: France: Training of librarians.

Germany. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Germany: Training of librarians.

United States. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: Training of librarians.

LIBRARIES

ANCIENT

Babylonia and Assyria.—"The Babylonians were . . . essentially a reading and writing people. . . . Books were numerous and students were many. The books were for the most part written upon clay [tablets] with a wooden reed or metal stylus, for clay was cheap and plentiful, and easily impressed with the wedge-shaped lines of which the characters were composed. But besides clay, papyrus and possibly also parchment were employed as writing materials; at all events the papyrus is referred to in the texts."—A. H. Sayce, *Social life among the Assyrians and Babylonians, p.* 30.—"We must speak of the manner in which the tablet was formed. Fine clay was selected, kneaded, and moulded into the shape of the required tablet. One side was flat, and the other rounded. The writing was then inscribed on both sides, holes were pricked in the clay, and then it was baked. The holes allowed the steam which was generated during the process of baking to escape. It is thought that the clay used in some of the tablets was not only well kneaded, but ground in some kind of mill, for the texture of the clay is as fine as some of our best modern pottery. The wedges appear to have been impressed by a squared headed instrument."—E. A. W. Budge, *Babylonian life and history, p.* 105.—See also BOOKS: Writing materials: Evolution.—"Assurbanipal, the Sardanapalus of the Greeks, was the greatest and most celebrated of Assyrian monarchs. He was the principal patron of Assyrian literature, and the greater part of the grand library at Nineveh was written during his reign."—G. Smith, *Assyrian discoveries, ch.* 18.—"Assurbanipal is fond of old books, particularly of the old sacred works. He collects the scattered specimens from the chief cities of his empire, and even employs scribes in Chaldea, Ourouk, Barsippa, and Babylon to copy for him the tablets deposited in the temples. His principal library is at Nineveh, in the palace which he built for himself upon the banks of the Tigris, and which he has just finished decorating. It contains more than thirty thousand tablets, methodically classified and arranged in several rooms, with detailed catalogues for convenient reference. Many of the works are continued from tablet to tablet and form a series, each bearing the first words of the text as its title. The account of the creation, which begins with the phrase: 'Formerly, that which is above was not yet called the heaven,' was entitled: 'Formerly, that which is above, No. 1;' 'Formerly, that which is above, No. 2;' and so on to the end. Assurbanipal is not less proud of his love of letters than of his political activity, and he is anxious that posterity should know how much he has done for literature. His name is inscribed upon every work in his library, ancient and modern. 'The palace of Assurbanipal, king of legions, king of multitudes, king of Assyria, to whom the god Nebo and the goddess Tasmetu have granted attentive ears and open eyes to discover the writings of the scribes of my kingdom, whom the kings my predecessors, have employed. In my respect for Nebo, the god of intelligence, I have collected these tablets; I have had them copied, I have marked them with my name, and I have deposited them in my palace.' The library at Dur-Sarginu, although not so rich as the one in Nineveh, is still fairly well supplied."—G. Maspero,

Life in ancient Egypt and Assyria, ch. 16.—"Collections of inscribed tablets had been made by Tiglath-Pileser II., king of Assyria, B. C. 745, who had copied some historical inscriptions of his predecessors. Sargon, the founder of the dynasty to which Assur-bani-pal belonged, B. C. 722, had increased this library by adding a collection of astrological and similar texts, and Sennacherib, B. C. 705, had composed copies of the Assyrian canon, short histories, and miscellaneous inscriptions, to add to the collection. Sennacherib also moved the library from Calah, its original seat, to Nineveh, the capital. Esarhaddon, B. C. 681, added numerous historical and mythological texts. All the inscriptions of the former kings were, however, nothing compared to those written during the reign of Assur-bani-pal. Thousands of inscribed tablets from all places, and on every variety of subject, were collected, and copied, and stored in the library of the palace at Nineveh during his reign; and by his statements they appear to have been intended for the inspection of the people, and to spread learning among the Assyrians. Among these tablets one class consisted of historical texts, some the histories of the former kings of Assyria, and others copies of royal inscriptions from various other places. Similar to these were the copies of treaties, despatches, and orders from the king to his generals and ministers, a large number of which formed part of the library. There was a large collection of letters of all sorts, from despatches to the king on the one hand, down to private notes on the other. Geography found a place among the sciences, and was represented by lists of countries, towns, rivers, and mountains, notices of the position, products, and character of districts, &c., &c. There were tables giving accounts of the law and legal decisions, and tablets with contracts, loans, deeds of sale and barter, &c. There were lists of tribute and taxes, accounts of property in the various cities, forming some approach to a census and general account of the empire. One large and important section of the library was devoted to legends of various sorts, many of which were borrowed from other countries. Among these were the legends of the hero Izdubar, perhaps the Nimrod of the Bible. One of these legends gives the Chaldean account of the flood, others of this description give various fables and stories of evil spirits. The mythological part of the library embraced lists of the gods, their titles, attributes, temples, &c., hymns in praise of various deities, prayers to be used by different classes of men to different gods, and under various circumstances, as during eclipses or calamities, on setting out for a campaign, &c., &c. Astronomy was represented by various tablets and works on the appearance and motions of the heavens, and the various celestial phenomena. Astrology was closely connected with Astronomy, and formed a numerous class of subjects and inscriptions. An interesting division was formed by the works on natural history; these consisted of lists of animals, birds, reptiles, trees, grasses, stones, &c., &c., arranged in classes, according to their character and affinities as then understood, lists of minerals and their uses, lists of foods, &c., &c. Mathematics and arithmetic were found, including square and cube root, the working out of problems, &c., &c. Much of the learning on these tablets was borrowed from the Chaldeans and the people of Babylon, and had originally been written in a different language and style of writing, hence it was necessary to have translations and explanations of many of these; and in order to make their meaning clear, grammars, dictionaries, and lexicons were prepared, embracing the principal features of the two languages involved, and enabling the Assyrians to study the older inscriptions. Such are some of the principal features of the grand Assyrian library, which Assur-bani-pal established at Nineveh, and which probably numbered over 10,000 clay documents."—G. Smith, *Ancient history from the monuments: Assyria, pp.* 188-191.—"In 1882 Sir Henry Layard, passing through one of the doorways of the partially explored palace in the mound of Kouyunjik, guarded by sculptured fish gods, stood for the first time in the double chambers containing a large portion of the remains of the immense library collected by Assurbannipal, King of Nineveh. . . . Since that time, with but slight intermissions, this treasure-house of a forgotten past has been turned over again and again, notably in the expeditions of the late Mr. George Smith, and still the supply of its cuneiform literature is not exhausted. Until . . . [1881] this discovery remained unique; but the perseverance of the British Museum authorities and the patient labour of Mr. Rassam were then rewarded by the exhumation of what is apparently the library chamber of the temple or palace at Sippara, with all its 10,000 tablets, resting undisturbed, arranged in their position on the shelves, just as placed in order by the librarian twenty-five centuries ago. . . . From what Berosus tells us with regard to Sippara, or Pantibiblon (the town of books), the very city, one of whose libraries has just been brought to light, . . . it may be inferred that this was certainly one of the first towns that collected a library. . . . It is possible that the mound at Mugheir enshrines the oldest library of all, for here are the remains of the city of Ur (probably the Biblical Ur of the Chaldees). From this spot came the earliest known royal brick inscription, as follows:—'Urukh, King of Ur, who Bit Nanur built.' Although there are several texts from Mugheir, such as that of Dungi, son of Urukh, yet, unless by means of copies made for later libraries in Assyria, we cannot be said to know much of its library. Strange to say, however, the British Museum possesses the signet cylinder of one of the libraries of Ur, who is the earliest known person holding such an office. . . . Its inscription is given thus by Smith:—'Emuq-sin, the powerful hero, the King of Ur, King of the four regions; Amil Anu, the tablet-keeper, son of Gatu his servant.' . . . Erech, the modern Warka, is a city at which we know there must have been one or more libraries, for it was from thence Assurbannipal copied the famous Isdubar series of legends in twelve tablets, one of which contained the account of the Deluge. Hence also came the wonderful work on magic in more than one hundred tablets; for, as we have it, it is nothing more than a facsimile by Assurbannipal's scribes of a treatise which had formed part of the collection of the school of the priests at Erech. . . . Larsa, now named Senkereh, was the seat of a tablet collection that seems to have been largely a mathematical one; for in the remains we possess of it are tablets containing tables of squares and cube roots and others, giving the characters for fractions. There are from here also, however, fragments with lists of the gods, a portion of a geographical dictionary, lists of temples, &c. . . . To a library at Cutha we owe the remnants of a tablet work containing an account of the creation and the wars of the gods, and, among others, a very ancient terracotta tablet bearing a copy of an inscription engraved in the temple of the god Dup Lan at Cutha, by Dungi, King of Ur. The number of tablets and cylinders found by M. de Sarzec at Zirgulla show that there too the habit of com-

mitting so much to writing was as rife as in other cities of whose literary character we know more."—*Libraries of Babylonia and Assyria* (*Knowledge, Nov.* 24, 1882, *and Mar.* 2, 1883).—"One of the most important results of Sir A. H. Layard's explorations at Nineveh was the discovery of the ruined library of the ancient city, now buried under the mounds of Kouyunjik. The broken clay tablets belonging to this library not only furnished the student with an immense mass of literary matter, but also with direct aids towards a knowledge of the Assyrian syllabary and language. Among the literature represented in the library of Kouyunjik were lists of characters, with their various phonetic and ideographic meanings, tables of synonyms, and catalogues of the names of plants and animals. This, however, was not all. The inventors of the cuneiform system of writing had been a people who preceded the Semites in the occupation of Babylonia, and who spoke an agglutinative language utterly different from that of their Semitic successors. These Accadians, as they are usually termed, left behind them a considerable amount of literature, which was highly prized by the Semitic Babylonians and Assyrians. A large portion of the Ninevite tablets, accordingly, consists of interlinear or parallel translations from Accadian into Assyrian, as well as of reading books, dictionaries, and grammars, in which the Accadian original is placed by the side of its Assyrian equivalent."—A. H. Sayce, *Fresh light from the ancient monuments, ch.* 1.—See also ASSYRIA: Art and archæological remains; EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 35th-6th centuries.

Greece.—"Pisistratus the tyrant is said to have been the first who supplied books of the liberal sciences at Athens for public use. Afterwards the Athenians themselves, with great care and pains, increased their number; but all this multitude of books, Xerxes, when he obtained possession of Athens, and burned the whole of the city except the citadel, seized and carried away to Persia. But king Seleucus, who was called Nicanor, many years afterwards, was careful that all of them should be again carried back to Athens. . . . That Pisistratus was the first who collected books, seems generally allowed by ancient writers, [though Lipsius says that Polycrates had one at the same time]. . . . In Greece were several famous libraries. Clearchus, who was a follower of Plato, founded a magnificent one in Heraclea. There was one in the island of Cnidos. The books of Athens were by Sylla removed to Rome."—A. Gellius, *Attic nights, v.* 2, *bk.* 6, *ch.* 17, *with foot-note by* W. Beloe.—"Athenaeus incidentally refers to the more important of the . . . [Greek libraries] when he praises his friend Laurentius for his skill in classifying books, and says that in this art he surpassed Polycrates of Samos, Pisistratus the Tyrant, Euclid the Athenian, Nicocrates the Cyprian, Euripides the poet, and Aristotle the philosopher . . . At that period critical studies, as we now call them, that is, the collation and emendation of texts, were much followed by princes, and even by kings. . . . I am sure we must believe the library [at Athens] was again established; for how could a city be, as Athens was, the mother of the arts without the aid of books? Indeed there must have been many libraries there in later years. Hadrian, for example, so Pausanias wrote, erected in Athens a temple to the Panhellenic Jove, and placed in it a library. . . . The Attalic or Pergamene library, in Asia, was almost as illustrious as the Alexandrian. When the Attalic kings, minor powers at first, became great and rich through an alliance with the Romans, they adorned their capital city in many ways and erected in it a library. Strabo regarded Eumenes, the son of King Attalus, as the founder of this collection. 'Eumenes,' he says, 'built the city and beautifully adorned it as it now is, with temples and a library.' . . . The Pergamene library never rivalled the Alexandrian in either resources or age. Plutarch writes to this effect where, mentioning both libraries, he says that Antony the Triumvir, fascinated by the charms of Cleopatra, gave to her the library at Pergamum, in which were two hundred thousand volumes. . . . This Pergamene library ceased to exist, then, soon after the destruction of the first Alexandrian one; but lived again in the latter when it was reëstablished."—J. Lipsius, *Outline of the history of libraries, pp.* 49-52, 57-58, 60-61.—"If the libraries of the Greeks at all resembled in form and dimensions those found at Pompeii, they were by no means spacious; neither, in fact, was a great deal of room necessary, as the manuscripts of the ancients stowed away much closer than our modern books, and were sometimes kept in circular boxes, of elegant form, with covers of turned wood. The volumes consisted of rolls of parchment, sometimes purple at the back, or papyrus, about twelve or fourteen inches in breadth, and as many feet long as the subject required. The pages formed a number of transverse compartments, commencing at the left, and proceeding in order to the other extremity, and the reader, holding in either hand one end of the manuscript, unrolled and rolled it up as he read. Occasionally these books were placed on shelves, in piles, with the ends outwards, adorned with golden bosses, the titles of the various treatises being written on pendant labels."—J. A. St. John, *Hellenes, v.* 2, *p.* 84.—"The learned reader need not be reminded how wide is the difference between the ancient 'volumen,' or roll, and the 'volume' of the modern book-trade, and how much smaller the amount of literary matter which the former may represent. Any single 'book' or 'part' of a treatise would anciently have been called 'volumen,' and would reckon as such in the enumeration of a collection of books. The Iliad of Homer, which in a modern library may form but a single volume, would have counted as twenty-four 'volumina' at Alexandria. We read of authors leaving behind them works reckoned not by volumes or tens of volumes, but by hundreds. . . . It will at once be understood that . . . the very largest assemblage of 'volumina' assigned as the total of the greatest of the ancient collections would fall far short, in its real literary contents, of the second-rate, or even third-rate collections of the present day."—*Libraries, ancient and modern* (*Edinburgh Review, Jan.*, 1874).

Alexandria.—"The first of the Ptolemies, Lagus, not only endeavoured to render Alexandria one of the most beautiful and most commercial of cities, he likewise wished her to become the cradle of science and philosophy. By the advice of an Athenian emigrant, Demetrius of Phaleros, this prince established a society of learned and scientific men, the prototype of our academies and modern institutions. He caused that celebrated museum to be raised, that became an ornament to the Bruchion; and here was deposited the noble library, 'a collection,' says Titus Livius, 'at once a proof of the magnificence of those kings, and of their love of science.' Philadelphos, the successor of Lagus, finding that the library of the Bruchion already numbered 400,000 volumes, and either thinking that the edifice could not well make room for any more, or being desirous, from motives of jealousy, to render his name equally famous by

the construction of a similar monument, founded a second library in the temple of Serapis, called the Serapeum, situated at some distance from the Bruchion, in another part of the town. These two libraries were denominated, for a length of time, the Mother and the Daughter. During the war with Egypt, Cæsar, having set fire to the king's fleet, which happened to be anchored in the great port, it communicated with the Bruchion; the parent library was consumed, and, if any remains were rescued from the flames, they were, in all probability, conveyed to the Serapeum. [See ALEXANDRIA: B. C. 48-47.] Consequently, ever after, there can be no question but of the latter. Euergetes and the other Ptolemies enlarged it successively; and Cleopatra added 200,000 manuscripts at once from the library of King Pergamos, given her by Mark Antony. . . . Aulus Gellius and Ammianus Marcellus seem to insinuate that the whole of the Alexandrian library had been destroyed by fire in the time of Cæsar. . . . But both are mistaken on this point. Ammianus, in the rest of his narrative, evidently confounds Serapeum and Bruchion. . . . Suetonius (in his life of Domitian) mentions that this emperor sent some amanuenses to Alexandria, for the purpose of copying a quantity of books that were wanting in his library; consequently a library existed in Alexandria a long while after Cæsar. Besides, we know that the Serapeum was only destroyed A. D. 391, by the order of Theodosius."—*Historic researches on the pretended burning of the library of Alexandria by Saracens* (*Fraser's Magazine, Apr.*, 1844).—See also ALEXANDRIA: Founding of city; B. C. 282-246; EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 3rd-A. D. 3rd centuries.

—"Whether the Museum was still able to house such a collection [as the Pergamene library], or whether these volumes formed the foundation of the later Serapeum Library, is a question which has exercised scholars. . . . [It is] fairly certain; that some of the Museum buildings remained in use till the time of Caracalla. . . . But it is not possible to fix a date either for the end of the Mother Library or for the beginning of the Daughter, though the latter is said to have been founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus. . . . Here then in the Serapeum all the traditions of the earlier learning were maintained; the University, with its great collection of books, was established; and that association of Aristotle's name with Alexandrian study which began at the Museum, was continued at the Serapeum unbroken. . . . But towards the end of the fourth century the Serapeum was doomed to destruction by the Christians under Theophilus. . . . In 366 the Caesarion was wrecked and plundered in a fierce religious contest, in which there is too much reason to think that the Caesarion library perished. As Christianity gathered strength, the war with paganism became fiercer. The Serapeum naturally served as the camp and fortress of the pagans; and for a while they used the advantage which the position gave them to raid the city and slaughter the most zealous of the Christians. Siege was laid to the acropolis; but before matters were forced to the last arbitrament it was agreed to take the Emperor's decision. The edict of Theodosius pronounced wholly in favour of the Christians. It was read aloud between the contending parties in the court of the Serapeum; and as the worshippers of the old Egyptian idols fled, the Christians, under their bishop Theophilus, dismantled and demolished the great temple of Serapis. This happened in the year 391, and the fact is uncontroverted."—A. J. Butler, *Arab conquest of Egypt, and the last thirty years of Roman dominion, pp.* 411-413.—See also ALEXANDRIA: 389.—

"Doubtless the library suffered considerably on this last-mentioned occasion; but that it still partly existed is beyond a doubt, according to the testimony of Oroses, who, twenty-four years later, made a voyage to Alexandria, and assures us that he 'saw, in several temples, presses full of books,' the remains of ancient libraries. . . . The trustworthy Oroses, in 415, is the last witness we have of the existence of a library at Alexandria. The numerous Christian writers of the fifth and sixth centuries, who have handed down to us so many trifling facts, have not said a word upon this important subject. We, therefore, have no certain documents upon the fate of our library from 415 to 636, or, according to others, 640, when the Arabs took possession of Alexandria,—a period of ignorance and barbarism of war and revolutions, and vain disputes between a hundred different sects."—*Historical researches on the pretended burning of the library of Alexandria by Saracens* (*Fraser's Magazine, Apr.*, 1844).—"Did the Library perish in the ruin [caused by Cæsar]? To that question no positive answer can be given. . . . Orosius indeed is quoted as having seen the empty shelves or cases in the Serapeum. If the quotation were accurate, it would prove both that the books had disappeared by 416, when Orosius wrote, and that the Library building remained: but it is not accurate; the words do not justify the construction put upon them. For Orosius makes no mention of the Serapeum. He is speaking of the destruction by fire of the original Museum Library, . . . [and argues that] a library survived which had formed a section of the old museum library and had escaped the fire through being housed in a separate building. They prove rather that other books were collected, in emulation of the old Library, at a date subsequent to the conflagration. . . . If there is one inference which the language of Orosius warrants beyond doubt, it is this—that at the time when he wrote there was no great and ancient library in existence in Alexandria. . . . Orosius therefore is really a witness not to the destruction of the Serapeum Library in 391, but to its non-existence in 416. . . . Of course no one supposes that even in the great wars upon books—such as the war made by Diocletian upon Christian books and the war made by Theophilus upon pagan books—all the books in Alexandria perished. Even after the destruction of the great public libraries, there must have been many volumes in private collections, and many in the remoter monastic libraries. The very fact that Alexandrian learning was not extinguished proves the use of books."—A. J. Butler, *Arab conquest of Egypt, and the last thirty years of Roman dominion, pp.* 420-422.—"Now, towards A. D. 636, or 640, the troops of the caliph, Omar, headed by his lieutenant, Amrou, took possession of Alexandria. For more than six centuries, nobody in Europe took the trouble of ascertaining what had become of the library of Alexandria. [Lipsius believed that "the library existed as long as did the Serapeum itself . . . and that, as reported by certain ecclesiastical writers, the Christians, during the reign of Theodosius demolished it utterly."] At length, in the year 1660, a learned Oxford scholar, Edward Pococke, who had been twice to the East, and had brought back a number of Arabian manuscripts, first introduced the Oriental history of the physician Abulfarage to the learned world, in a Latin translation. In it we read the following passage:—'In those days flourished John of Alexandria, whom we have surnamed the Grammarian, and who adopted the tenets of the Christian Jacobites. . . . He lived to the time when Amrou

Ebno'l-As took Alexandria. He went to visit the conqueror; and Amrou, who was aware of the height of learning and science that John had attained, treated him with every distinction, and listened eagerly to his lectures on philosophy, which were quite new to the Arabians. Amrou was himself a man of intellect and discernment, and very clear-headed. He retained the learned man about his person. John one day said to him, "You have visited all the stores of Alexandria, and you have put your seal on all the different things you found there. I say nothing about those treasures which have any value for you; but, in good sooth, you might leave us those of which you make no use." "What then is it that you want?" interrupted Amrou. "The books of philosophy that are to be found in the royal treasury," answered John. "I can dispose of nothing," Amrou then said, "without the permission of the lord of all true believers, Omar Ebno'l-Chattab." He therefore wrote to Omar, informing him of John's request. He received an answer from Omar in these words. "As to the books you mention, either they agree with God's holy book, and then God's book is all-sufficient without them; or they disagree with God's book, in which case they ought not to be preserved." And, in consequence, Amrou Ebno'l-As caused them to be distributed amongst the different baths of the city, to serve as fuel. In this manner they were consumed in half-a-year.' When this account of Abulfarage's was made known in Europe, it was at once admited as a fact, without the least question. . . . Since Pococke, another Arab historian, likewise a physician, was discovered, who gave pretty nearly the same account. This was Abdollatif, who wrote towards 1200, and consequently prior to Abulfarage. . . . Abdollatif does not relate any of the circumstances accessory to the destruction of the library. But what faith can we put in a writer who tells us that he has actually seen what could no longer have been in existence in his time? 'I have seen,' says he, 'the portico and the college that Alexander the Great caused to be built, and which contained the splendid library,' &c. Now, these buildings were situated within the Bruchion; and since the reign of Aurelian, who had destroyed it—that is to say, at least nine hundred years before Abdollatif—the Bruchion was a deserted spot, covered with ruins and rubbish. Abulfarage, on the other hand, places the library in the Royal Treasury; and the anachronism is just as bad. The royal edifices were all contained within the walls of the Bruchion; and not one of them could then be left. . . . As a fact is not necessarily incontestable because advanced as such by one or even two historians, several persons of learning and research have doubted the truth of this assertion. Renaudot (Hist. des Patriarches d'Alexandrie) had already questioned its authenticity, by observing: 'This account is rather suspicious, as is frequently the case with the Arabians.' And, lastly, Querci, the two Assemani, Villoison, and Gibbon, completely declared themselves against it. Gibbon at once expresses his astonishment that two historians, both of Egypt, should not have said a word about so remarkable an event. The first of these is Eutychius, patriarch of Alexandria, who lived in that city 500 years after it was taken by the Saracens, and who gives a long and detailed account, in his Annals, both of the siege and the succeeding events; the second is Elmacin, a most veracious writer, the author of a History of the Saracens, and who especially relates the life of Omar, and the taking of Alexandria, with its minutest circumstances. Is it conceivable or to be believed that these two historians should have been ignorant of so important a circumstance? That two learned men who would have been deeply interested in such a loss should have made no mention of it, though living and writing in Alexandria—Eutychius, too, at no distant period from the event? and that we should learn it for the first time from a stranger who wrote, six centuries after, on the frontiers of Media? Besides, as Gibbon observes, why should the Caliph Omar, who was no enemy to science, have acted, in this one instance, in direct opposition to his character. . . . To these reasons may be added the remark of a German writer, M. Reinhard, who observes that Eutychius (Annals of Eutychius, vol. ii. p. 316) transcribes the very words of the letter in which Amrou gives the Caliph Omar an account of the taking of Alexandria after a long and obstinate siege. 'I have carried the town by storm,' says he, 'and without any preceding offer of capitulation. I cannot describe all the treasures it contains; suffice it to say, that it numbers 4,000 palaces, 4,000 baths, 40,000 taxable Jews, 400 theatres, 12,000 gardeners who sell vegetables. Your Mussulmans demand the privilege of pillaging the city, and sharing the booty.' Omar, in his reply, disapproves of the request, and expressly forbids all pillage or dilapidation. It is plain that, in his official report, Amrou seeks to exaggerate the value of his conquest, and to magnify its importance, like the diplomatists of our times. He does not overlook a single hovel, nor a Jew, nor a gardener. How then could he have forgotten the library, he who, according to Abulfarage, was a friend to the fine arts and philosophy? . . . Elmacin in turn gives us Amrou's letter nearly in the same terms, and not one word of the library."—*Historical researches on the pretended burning of the library of Alexandria by Saracens* (*Frazer's Magazine, Apr.*, 1844). —Moreover "John Philoponus [John of Alexandria] lived and wrote in 540. How then could he have been alive and influential in 642 when he must have been not less than 120 years old? [Moreover,] . . . if the great Serapeum Library had continued in existence into the seventh century, how comes it that not a single writer in the fifth or sixth century can be cited to establish the fact in clear and unmistakable language? Take one particular instance. . . . John Moschus and his friend Sophronius . . . [visited] Egypt not many years before the Arab conquest. . . . But though they were both fairly voluminous writers, and though they travelled and resided a great deal in Egypt, their pages will be searched in vain for any allusion to other than private libraries in the country. Two centuries of silence, ending in the silence of John Moschus and Sophronius, seem to render it impossible that any great public library can have existed when the Arabs entered Alexandria."—A. J. Butler, *Arab conquest of Egypt, and the last thirty years of the Roman dominion, pp.* 422-423.—"We . . . run no great risk in drawing the conclusion, from all these premises, that the library of the Ptolemies no longer existed in 640 at the taking of Alexandria by the Saracens. . . . If it be true, as we have every reason to think, that in 640 . . . the celebrated library no longer existed, we may inquire in what manner it had been dispersed and destroyed since 415 when Oroses affirms that he saw it? In the first place we must observe that Oroses only mentions some presses which he saw in the temples. It was not, therefore, the library of the Ptolemies as it once existed in the Serapeum. Let us call to mind, moreover, that ever since the first Roman emperors, Egypt had been the theatre of incessant civil war-

fare, and we shall be surprised that any traces of the library could still exist in later times."—*Historical researches on the pretended burning of the library of Alexandria by the Saracens* (*Fraser's Magazine, Apr.*, 1844).—"After summing up the evidence we have been able to collect in regard to these libraries, we conclude that almost all the 700,000 volumes of the earlier Alexandrian libraries had been destroyed before the capture of the city by the Arabs; that another of considerable size, but chiefly of Christian literature, had been collected in the 250 years just preceding the Arab occupation; and that Abulpharaj, in a statement that is not literally true, gives, in the main, a correct account of the final destruction of the Alexandrian Library."—C. W. Super, *Alexandria and its libraries* (*National Quarterly Review, Dec.*, 1875).—"Besides the two great libraries which have been already described, Alexandria possessed a third in the Sebasteum, or Temple of Augustus, and a fourth of much later date than the others, attached to its famous 'School.' If the last-named collection was the object of Omar's fanaticisms, the loss to learning must have been less severe than has usually been imagined."—E. Edwards, *Libraries and founders of libraries, p.* 9.

Rome.—"Of the Libraries of Rome, of which we possess accounts more or less authenticated, the earliest seems to have been that which was established by Æmilius Paulus, about the year B. C. 168. Having subdued Perses, king of Macedonia, he brought the Library of the vanquished monarch to Rome. . . . Lucullus, another successful soldier, had a similar taste for books. . . . His collection was both large and choice. . . . His Library is said to have been open to all comers; and the Greeks who visited Rome resorted to the galleries and porticos of Lucullus as to the retreat of the Muses. . . . [Julius Caesar planned to establish a public library, a design frustrated by his death, and] the establishment of public Libraries did not take place until the reign of Augustus. The honour of the first foundation of an institution so useful to literature is ascribed by the elder Pliny to Asinius Pollio, who erected a public Library in the atrium of the temple of Liberty, on the Aventine Hill. . . . Augustus, amongst other embellishments which he bestowed upon Rome, erected two public Libraries, viz., the Octavian and the Palatine. The Octavian Library . . . stood in the portico of Octavia; and the charge of it was committed to Melissus, who had been manumitted by Augustus. The Palatine Library was added by Augustus to the Temple of Apollo, which he had erected on the site of that part of the Palatine House which had been struck by lightning. There were deposited the corrected books of the Sibyls; and, from two ancient inscriptions quoted by Lipsius and Pitiscus, it would seem that it consisted of two distinct collections, one Greek and the other Latin. This Library, having survived the various revolutions of the Roman empire, existed until the time of Gregory the Great, whose mistaken zeal led him to order the writings of the ancients to be destroyed. . . . Suetonius and other authors inform us that Tiberius enlarged the Libraries founded by Augustus. . . . It may be gathered also, from some incidental notices, that he instituted another collection in his own house, called the Tiberian Library. Vespasian, . . . established a Library in the Temple of Peace, which he erected after the burning of the city by order of Nero; and even Domitian, in the commencement of his reign, restored at great expense the Libraries which had been destroyed by the conflagration, collecting copies of books from every quarter, and sending writers to Alexandria to transcribe volumes in that celebrated collection, or to correct copies which had been made elsewhere. Various writers have asserted that there was a Library attached to the Temple of the Capitol; but they have not informed us by whom it was founded. . . . But the most magnificent of all the Libraries founded by the sovereigns of imperial Rome was that of the Emperor Ulpius Trajanus, from whom it was denominated the Ulpian Library. It was erected in Trajan's Forum, but afterwards [we are told by Vopiscus] removed to the Viminal Hill, to ornament the baths of Diocletian. In this Library were deposited the 'elephantine books,' written upon tablets of ivory, wherein were recorded the transactions of the Emperors, the proceedings of the Senate and Roman magistrates, and the affairs of the provinces. It has been conjectured that the Ulpian Library consisted both of Greek and Latin works; and some authors affirm that Trajan commanded all the books which could be found in the cities he had conquered to be immediately conveyed to Rome, in order to increase his collection. The Library of Domitian having been consumed by lightning, in the reign of Commodus, was not restored until the time of Gordian, who rebuilt the edifice, and founded a new Library, adding thereto the collection of books bequeathed to him by Quintus Serenus Sammonicus, the physician, amounting, it is said, to no less than 62,000 volumes."—E. Edwards, *Libraries and founders of libraries, pp.* 15-19.—"From Suetonius we further learn . . . that Tiberius added to the Public Libraries the works of the Greek poets Euphorion, Rhianus, and Parthenius,—authors whom he especially admired and tried to imitate,—and also their statues; that Caligula (in addition to a scheme for suppressing Homer) had thoughts of banishing both the works and the busts of Virgil and of Livy. . . . We read in Plutarch of the Library dedicated by Octavia to the memory of Marcellus; in Aulus Gellius of a Library in the Palace of Tiberius and of another in the Temple of Peace; and in Dion Cassius of the more famous Ulpian Library founded by Trajan. . . . Of private Libraries amongst the Romans one of the earliest recorded is that which Emilius Paulus found amongst the spoils of Perseus, and which he is said to have shared between his sons. The collection of Tyrannion, some eighty years later (perhaps), amounted, according to a passage in Suidas, to 30,000 volumes. . . . With that—the most famous of all—which was the delight and the pride of Cicero, every reader of his letters has an almost personal familiarity, extending even to the names and services of those who were employed in binding and in placing the books. . . . Of the Libraries of the long-buried cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum there is not a scintilla of information extant, other than that which has been gathered from their ruins. At one time great hopes were entertained of important additions to classical learning from remains, the discovery of which has so largely increased our knowledge both of the arts and of the manners of the Romans. But all effort in this direction has hitherto been either fruitless or else only tantalizing, from the fragmentary character of the results attained."—E. Edwards, *Memoirs of libraries, pp.* 26-29.—"Most houses had a library, which, according to Vitruvius, ought to face the east in order to admit the light of the morning, and to prevent the books from becoming mouldy. At Herculaneum a library with bookcases containing 1,700 scrolls has been discovered. The grammarian Epaphroditus

possessed a library of 30,000, and Sammanicus Serenus, the tutor of the younger Gordian, one of 62,000 books. Seneca ridicules the fashionable folly of illiterate men who adorned their walls with thousands of books, the titles of which were the delight of the yawning owner. According to Publius Victor, Rome possessed twenty-nine public libraries, the first of which was opened by Asinius Polio in the forecourt of the Temple of Peace." —E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans, p.* 531.

Herculaneum.—"Herculaneum remained a subterranean city from the year 79 to the year 1706. In the latter year some labourers who were employed in digging a well came upon a statue, a circumstance which led . . . to systematic excavations. Almost half a century passed, however, before the first roll of papyrus was discovered, near to Portici at a depth from the surface of about 120 English feet. In the course of a year or two, some 250 rolls—most of them Greek—had been found. . . . In 1754, further and more careful researches were made by Camillo Paderni, who succeeded in getting together no less than 337 Greek volumes and 18 Latin volumes. The latter were of larger dimensions than the Greek, and in worse condition. Very naturally, great interest was excited by these discoveries amongst scholars in all parts of Europe. In the years 1754 and 1755 the subject was repeatedly brought before the Royal Society by Mr. Locke and other of its fellows, sometimes in the form of communications from Paderni himself; at other times from the notes and observations of travellers. In one of these papers the disinterred rolls are described as appearing at first 'like roots of wood, all black, and seeming to be only of one piece. One of them falling on the ground, it broke in the middle, and many letters were observed, by which it was first known that the rolls were of papyrus. . . . They were in wooden cases, so much burnt, . . . that they cannot be recovered.' . . . At the beginning of the . . . [19th] century the attention of the British government was, to some extent, attracted to this subject. . . . Leave was at length obtained from the Neapolitan government for a literary mission to Herculaneum, which was entrusted to Mr. Hayter, one of the chaplains to the Prince Regent. But the results were few and unsatisfactory. . . . The Commission subsequently entrusted to Dr. Sickler of Hildburghausen was still more unfortunate. . . . In 1818, a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to inquire into the matter. It reported that, after an expenditure of about £1,100, no useful results had been attained. This inquiry and the experiments of Sickler led Sir Humphrey Davy to investigate the subject, and to undertake two successive journeys into Italy for its thorough elucidation. His account of his researches is highly interesting: . . . 'My experiments' . . . 'soon convinced me that the nature of these MSS. had been generally misunderstood; that they had not, as is usually supposed, been carbonized by the operation of fire, . . . but were in a state analogous to peat or Bovey coal, the leaves being generally cemented into one mass by a peculiar substance which had formed during the fermentation and chemical change of the vegetable matter comprising them, in a long course of ages. The nature of this substance being known, the destruction of it became a subject of obvious chemical investigation; and I was fortunate enough to find means of accomplishing this, without injuring the characters or destroying the texture of the MSS.' These means Sir Humphrey Davy has described very minutely in his subsequent communications to the Royal Society. . . . 'After the chemical operation, the leaves of most of the fragments separated perfectly from each other, and the Greek characters were in a high degree distinct. . . . The MSS. were probably on shelves of wood, which were broken down when the roofs of the houses yielded to the weight of the superincumbent mass. Hence, many of them were crushed and folded in a moist state, and the leaves of some pressed together in a perpendicular direction . . . in confused heaps; in these heaps the exterior MSS. . . . must have been acted on by the water; and as the ancient ink was composed of finely divided charcoal suspended in a solution of glue or gum, wherever the water percolated continuously, the characters were more or less erased.' . . . Sir Humphrey Davy proceeds to state that, according to the information given him, the number of MSS. and fragments of MSS. originally deposited in the Naples Museum was 1,696; that of these 88 had then been unrolled and found to be legible; that 319 others had been operated upon, and more or less unrolled, but were illegible; that 24 had been sent abroad as presents; and that of the remaining 1,265—which he had carefully examined—the majority were either small fragments, or MSS. so crushed and mutilated as to offer little hope of separation; whilst only from 80 to 120 offered a probability of success (and he elsewhere adds:— 'this estimate, as my researches proceeded, appeared much too high'). . . . 'Of the 88 unrolled MSS. . . . the great body consists of works of Greek philosophers or sophists; nine are of Epicurus; thirty-two bear the name of Philodemus, three of Demetrius, one of each of these authors:— Colotes, Polystratus, Carneades, Chrysippus; and the subjects of these works, . . . and of those the authors of which are unknown, are either Natural or Moral Philosophy, Medicine, Criticism, and general observations on Arts, Life, and Manners.'"—E. Edwards, *Memoirs of libraries, v.* 1, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 5.

Constantinople.—"Desirous of making reparation to the Christians, for the injuries they had sustained during the reign of his tyrannical predecessor, . . . [Constantine the Great] commanded the most diligent search to be made after those books which had been doomed to destruction. He caused transcripts to be made of such books as had escaped the Diocletian persecution; to these he added others, and with the whole formed a valuable Library at Constantinople. On the death of Constantine, the number of books contained in the Imperial Library was only six thousand nine hundred; but it was successively enlarged by the emperors, Julian and Theodosius the younger, the latter of whom augmented it to one hundred thousand volumes [or, according to Edwards, 120,000]. Of these, more than half were burnt in the seventh century, by command of the emperor Leo III., in order to destroy all the monuments that might be quoted in proof against his opposition to the worship of images. In this library was deposited the only authentic copy of the Council of Nice: it has also been asserted that the works of Homer, written in golden letters, were consumed at the same time, together with a magnificent copy of the Four Gospels, bound in plates of gold to the weight of fifteen pounds, and enriched with precious stones. The convulsions that weakened the lower empire, were by no means favourable to the interests of literature. During the reign of Constantine Porphyrogennetus (in the eleventh century) literature flourished for a short time: and he is said to have employed many

learned Greeks in collecting books for a library, the arrangement of which he superintended himself. The final subversion of the Eastern Empire, and the capture of Constantinople by Mohammed II., 1453, dispersed the literati of Greece over Western Europe: but the Imperial Library was preserved by the express command of the conqueror, and continued to be kept in some apartments of the Seraglio; until Mourad (or Amurath) IV., in a fit of devotion, sacrificed (as it is reported) all the books in this Library to his hatred against the Christians."—T. H. Horne, *Introduction to the study of bibliography, pp.* 23-25.—See also EDUCATION: Medieval: 4th-15th centuries.

ALSO IN: E. Edwards, *Libraries and founders of libraries, pp.* 19-20.

Tripoli: Destruction of library by crusaders. See CRUSADES: 1104-1111.

MEDIEVAL

Monastic libraries.—"In every monastery there was established first a library, then great studios, where, to increase the number of books, skilful caligraphers transcribed manuscripts; and finally, schools, open to all those who had need of, or desire for, instruction. At Montierender, at Lorsch, at Corvey, at Fulda, at St. Gall, at Reichenau, at Nonantula, at Monte Cassino, at Wearmouth, at St. Albans, at Croyland, there were famous libraries. At St. Michael, at Luneburg, there were two—one for the abbot and one for the monks. In other abbeys, as at Hirschau, the abbot himself took his place in the Scriptorium, where many other monks were occupied in copying manuscripts. At St. Riquier, books bought for high prices, or transcribed with the utmost care, were regarded as the most valuable jewels of the monastery. 'Here,' says the chronicler of the abbey, counting up with innocent pride the volumes which it contained—'here are the riches of the cloister, the treasures of the celestial life, which fatten the soul by their sweetness. This is how we fulfil the excellent precept, Love the study of the Scriptures, and you will not love vice.' If we were called upon to enumerate the principal centres of learning in this century, we should be obliged to name nearly all the great abbeys whose founders we have mentioned, for most of them were great homes of knowledge. . . . The principal and most constant occupation of the learned Benedictine nuns was the transcription of manuscripts. It can never be known how many services to learning and history were rendered by their delicate hands throughout the middle ages. They brought to the work a dexterity, an elegance, and an assiduity which the monks themselves could not attain, and we owe to them some of the most beautiful specimens of the marvellous caligraphy of the period. . . . Nuns, therefore, were the rivals of monks in the task of enlarging and fertilising the field of Catholic learning. Every one is aware that the copying of manuscripts was one of the habitual occupations of monks. By it they fed the claustral libraries already spoken of, and which are the principal source of modern knowledge. Thus we must again refer to the first beginning of the Monastic Orders to find the earliest traces of a custom which from that time was, as it were, identified with the practices of religious life. In the depths of the Thebaïde, in the primitive monasteries of Tabenna, every house . . . had its library. There is express mention made of this in the rule of St. Benedict. . . . In the seventh century, St. Benedict Biscop, founder and abbot of Wearmouth in England, undertook five sea-voyages to search for and purchase books for his abbey, to which each time he brought back a large cargo. In the ninth century, Loup of Ferrières transformed his monastery of St. Josse-sur-Mer into a kind of depot for the trade in books which was carried on with England. About the same time, during the wars which ravaged Lombardy, most of the literary treasures which are now the pride of the Ambrosian library were being collected in the abbey of Bobbio. The monastery of Pomposa, near Ravenna, had, according to contemporaries, a finer library than those of Rome or of any other town in the world. In the eleventh century, the library of the abbey of Croyland numbered 3,000 volumes. The library of Novalese had 6,700, which the monks saved at the risk of their lives when their abbey was destroyed by the Saracens in 905. Hirschau contained an immense number of manuscripts. But, for the number and value of its books, Fulda eclipsed all the monasteries of Germany, and perhaps of the whole Christian world. On the other hand, some writers assure us that Monte Cassino, under the Abbot Didier, the friend of Gregory VII., possessed the richest collection which it was possible to find. The libraries thus created by the labours of monks became, as it were, the intellectual arsenals of princes and potentates. . . . There were also collections of books in all the cathedrals, in all the collegiate churches, and in many of the castles. Much has been said of the excessive price of certain books during the middle ages: Robertson and his imitators, in support of this theory, are fond of quoting the famous collection of homilies that Grecia Countess of Anjou bought, in 1056, for two hundred sheep, a measure of wheat, one of millet, one of rye, several marten-skins, and four pounds of silver. An instance like this always produces its effect; but these writers forgot to say that the books bought for such high prices were admirable specimens of caligraphy, of painting, and of carving. It would be just as reasonable to quote the exorbitant sums paid at sales by bibliomaniacs of our days, in order to prove that since the invention of printing, books have been excessive in price. Moreover, the ardent fondness of the Countess Grecia for beautiful books had been shared by other amateurs of a much earlier date. Bede relates that Alfred, King of Northumbria in the seventh century, gave eight hides of land to St. Benedict Biscop in exchange for a Cosmography which that book-loving abbot had bought at Rome. The monks loved their books with a passion which has never been surpassed in modern times. . . . It is an error to . . . suppose that books of theology or piety alone filled the libraries of the monks. Some enemies of the religious orders have, indeed, argued that this was the case; but the proof of the contrary is evident in all documents relating to the subject. The catalogues of the principal monastic libraries during those centuries which historians regard as most barbarous, are still in existence; and these catalogues amply justify the sentence of the great Leibnitz, when he said, 'Books and learning were preserved by the monasteries.' It is acknowledged that if, on one hand, the Benedictines settled in Iceland collected the Eddas and the principal traditions of the Scandinavian mythology, on the other all the monuments of Greece and Rome which escaped the devastations of barbarians were saved by the monks of Italy, France, and Germany, and by them alone. And if in some monasteries the scarcity of parchment and the ignorance of the superiors permitted the destruction, by copy-

ists, of a certain small number of precious works, how can we forget that without these same copyists we should possess nothing—absolutely nothing—of classic antiquity? . . . Alcuin enumerates among the books in the library at York the works of Aristotle, Cicero, Pliny, Virgil, Statius, Lucan, and of Trogus Pompeïus. In his correspondence with Charlemagne he quotes Ovid, Horace, Terence, and Cicero, acknowledging that in his youth he had been more moved by the tears of Dido than by the Psalms of David."—Count de Montalembert, *Monks of the West, v.* 6, *bk.* 18, *ch.* 4.—"It is in the great houses of the Benedictine Order that we find the largest libraries, such as in England at Bury St. Edmund's, Glastonbury, Peterborough, Reading, St. Alban's, and, above all, that of Christ Church in Canterbury, probably the earliest library formed in England. Among the other English monasteries of the libraries of which we still possess catalogues or other details, are St. Peter's at York, described in the eighth century by Alcuin, St. Cuthbert's at Durham, and St. Augustine's at Canterbury. At the dissolution of the monasteries their libraries were dispersed, and the basis of the great modern libraries is the volumes thus scattered over England. In general, the volumes were disposed much as now, that is to say, upright, and in large cases affixed to a wall, often with doors. The larger volumes at least were in many cases chained, so that they could only be used within about six feet of their proper place; and since the chain was always riveted on the fore-edge of one of the sides of a book, the back of the volume had to be thrust first into the shelf, leaving the front edge of the leaves exposed to view. Many old volumes bear a mark in ink on this front edge; and when this is the case, we may be sure that it was once chained in a library; and usually a little further investigation will disclose the mark of a rivet on one of the sides. Regulations were carefully made to prevent the mixture of different kinds of books, and their overcrowding or inconvenient position; while an organized system of lending was in vogue, by which at least once a year, and less formally at shorter intervals, the monks could change or renew the volumes already on loan. . . . Let us take an example of the arrangement of a monastic library of no special distinction in 1400,—that at Titchfield Abbey,—describing it in the words of the register of the monastery itself, only translating the Latin into English. 'The arrangement of the library of the monastery of Tychefeld is this:—There are in the library of Tychefeld four cases (columnae) in which to place books, of which two, the first and second, are on the eastern face; on the southern face is the third, and on the northern face the fourth. And each of them has eight shelves (gradus), marked with a letter and number affixed on the front of each shelf, that is to say, on the lower board of each of the aforesaid shelves; certain letters, however, are excepted, namely A, H, K, L, M, O, P, Q, which have no numbers affixed, because all the volumes to which one of those letters belongs are contained in the shelf to which that letter is assigned. [That is, the shelves with the letters A, H, K, etc., have a complete class of books in each, and in no case does that class overflow into a second shelf, so there was no need of marking these shelves with numbers as well as letters, in the way in which the rest were marked. Thus we should find 'B 1,' 'B 2,' 'B 3,' . . . 'B 7,' because B filled seven shelves; but 'A' only, because A filled one shelf alone.] So all and singular the volumes of the said library are fully marked on the first leaf and elsewhere on the shelf belonging to the book, with certain numbered letters. And in order that what is in the library may be more quickly found, the marking of the shelves of the said library, the inscriptions in the books, and the references in the register, in all points agree with each other. Anno Domini MCCCC.' . . . Titchfield Abbey was a Præmonstratensian house, founded in the thirteenth century, and never specially rich or prominent; yet we find it with a good library of sixty-eight books in theology, thirty-nine in Canon and Civil Law, twenty-nine in Medicine, thirty-seven in Arts, and in all three hundred and twenty-six volumes, many containing several treatises, so that the total number of works was considerably over a thousand."—F. Madan, *Books in manuscript, pp.* 76-79.—See also ABBEY.

ALSO IN: E. A. Savage, *Old English libraries, pp.* 30-108.

Saracenic libraries. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 9th-15th centuries: Saracen and Moorish learning.

RENAISSANCE

Italy.—On the revival of learning in Italy, "scarcity of books was at first a chief impediment to the study of antiquity. Popes and princes and even great religious institutions possessed far fewer books than many farmers of the present age. The library belonging to the Cathedral Church of S. Martino at Lucca in the ninth century contained only nineteen volumes of abridgements from ecclesiastical commentaries. The Cathedral of Novara in 1212 could boast copies of Boethius, Priscian, the Code of Justinian, the Decretals, and the Etymology of Isidorus, besides a Bible and some devotional treatises. This slender stock passed for great riches. Each of the precious volumes in such a collection was an epitome of mediæval art. Its pages were composed of fine vellum adorned with pictures. The initial letters displayed elaborate flourishes and exquisitely illuminated groups of figures. The scribe took pains to render his caligraphy perfect, and to ornament the margins with crimson, gold, and blue. Then he handed the parchment sheets to the binder, who encased them in rich settings of velvet or carved ivory and wood, embossed with gold and precious stones. The edges were gilt and stamped with patterns. The clasps were of wrought silver chased with niello. The price of such masterpieces was enormous. . . . Of these MSS. the greater part were manufactured in the cloisters, and it was here too that the martyrdom of ancient authors took place. Lucretius and Livy gave place to chronicles, antiphonaries, and homilies. Parchment was extremely dear, and the scrolls which nobody could read might be scraped and washed. Accordingly, the copyist erased the learning of the ancients, and filled the fair blank space he gained with litanies. At the same time it is but just to the monks to add that palimpsests have occasionally been found in which ecclesiastical works have yielded place to copies of the Latin poets used in elementary education. Another obstacle to the diffusion of learning was the incompetence of the copyists. It is true that at the great universities 'stationarii,' who supplied the text-books in use to students, were certified and subjected to the control of special censors called 'peciarii.' Yet their number was not large, and when they quitted the routine to which they were accustomed their incapacity betrayed itself by numerous errors. Petrarch's invective against the professional copyists shows the depth to which the art had sunk. 'Who,' he exclaims, 'will discover a cure for the ignorance and

vile sloth of these copyists, who spoil everything and turn it to nonsense? If Cicero, Livy, and other illustrious ancients were to return to life, do you think they would understand their own works? There is no check upon these copyists, selected without examination or test of their capacity.' . . . At the same time the copyists formed a necessary and flourishing class of craftsmen. They were well paid. . . . Under these circumstances it was usual for even the most eminent scholars, like Petrarch, Boccaccio, and Poggio, to make their own copies of MSS. Niccolo de' Niccoli transcribed nearly the whole of the codices that formed the nucleus of the Library of the Mark. . . . It is clear that the first step toward the revival of learning implied three things: first, the collection of MSS. wherever they could be saved from the indolence of the monks; secondly, the formation of libraries for their preservation; and, thirdly, the invention of an art whereby they might be multiplied cheaply, conveniently, and accurately. The labour involved in the collection of classical manuscripts had to be performed by a few enthusiastic scholars, who received no help from the universities and their academical scribes, and who met with no sympathy in the monasteries they were bent on ransacking. . . . The monks performed at best the work of earthworms, who unwittingly preserve fragments of Greek architecture from corrosion by heaping mounds of mould and rubbish round them. Meanwhile the humanists went forth with the instinct of explorers to release the captives and awake the dead. From the convent libraries of Italy, from the museums of Constantinople, from the abbeys of Germany and Switzerland and France, the slumbering spirits of the ancients had to be evoked. . . . This work of discovery began with Petrarch. . . . It was carried on by Boccaccio. The account given by Benvenuto da Imola of Boccaccio's visit to Monte Cassino brings vividly before us both the ardour of these first explorers and the apathy of the Benedictines (who have sometimes been called the saviours of learning) with regard to the treasures of their own libraries. . . . 'Desirous of seeing the collection of books, which he understood to be a very choice one, he modestly asked a monk—for he was always most courteous in manners—to open the library, as a favour, for him. The monk answered stiffly, pointing to a steep staircase, 'Go up; it is open.' Boccaccio went up gladly; but he found that the place which held so great a treasure was without a door or key. He entered, and saw grass sprouting on the windows, and all the books and benches thick with dust. In his astonishment he began to open and turn the leaves of first one tome and then another, and found many and divers volumes of ancient and foreign works. Some of them had lost several sheets; others were snipped and pared all round the text, and mutilated in various ways. At length, lamenting that the toil and study of so many illustrious men should have passed into the hands of most abandoned wretches, he departed with tears and sighs. Coming to the cloister, he asked a monk whom he met, why those valuable books had been so disgracefully mangled. He answered that the monks, seeking to gain a few soldi, were in the habit of cutting off sheets and making psalters, which they sold to boys. The margins too they manufactured into charms, and sold to women.' . . . What Italy contained of ancient codices soon saw the light. The visit of Poggio Bracciolini to Constance (1414) opened up for Italian scholars the stores that lay neglected in transalpine monasteries. . . . The treasures he unearthed at Reichenau, Weingarten, and above all S. Gallen, restored to Italy many lost masterpieces of Latin literature, and supplied students with full texts of authors who had hitherto been known in mutilated copies. The account he gave of his visit to S. Gallen in a Latin letter to a friend is justly celebrated. . . . 'In the middle [he says] of a well-stocked library, too large to catalogue at present, we discovered Quintilian, safe as yet and sound, though covered with dust and filthy with neglect and age. The books, you must know, were not housed according to their worth, but were lying in a most foul and obscure dungeon at the very bottom of a tower, a place into which condemned criminals would hardly have been thrust. . . . .Besides Quintilian, we exhumed the three first books and a half of the fourth book of the Argonautica of Flaccus, and the Commentaries of Asconius Pedianus upon eight orations of Cicero.' . . . Never was there a time in the world's history when money was spent more freely upon the collection and preservation of MSS., and when a more complete machinery was put in motion for the sake of securing literary treasures."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: The revival of learning, ch.* 3.

MODERN

Europe: Rise and growth of greater libraries. —"Several of the great libraries of Europe date their first beginnings during the hundred years between 1365, when Charles V of France had already won renown as a collector of choice manuscripts, and 1465, when the art of printing had established itself, without having as yet materially interrupted the labours of the copyists. Within this period are included the foundation of the Imperial Libraries of Paris and of Vienna, of the Laurentian Library at Florence, and of the Library of the Vatican; and the liberal gifts of books which were made by Sir Richard Whittington to the Franciscans of London; by Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, to the University of Oxford; by King Henry VI to All Souls College; and by Niccolo Niccoli to his fellow-citizens of Florence. It also witnessed the commencement of those splendid collections of Frederick, Duke of Urbino, and of Matthias Corvinus, King of Hungary, which eclipsed all preceding libraries, and were counted amongst the marvels of the age. But, unfortunately, whilst the Urbino Library has escaped the almost total destruction which befell that of Corvinus, it has lost much of its value by division. . . . Within the same period, too, is comprised the foundation of the oldest of those town libraries in which Germany has become rich. As early as 1413, Andreas von Slommow established a library at Dantzic, in connection with the church of St. Mary. His example was followed by Conrad von Hildesheim, at Ratisbon in 1430; by Heinrich Neidhart, at Ulm in 1440; and by Conrad Kühnhofer, at Nuremberg in 1445. Nor was France far behind in a similar foundation, although in that country the first step was not followed up with equal vigour. There is an account of the purchase of books for a public library by the Common Council of Aix, in the year 1419."—E. Edwards, *Libraries and founders of libraries, pp.* 32-34.—In a work entitled "Essai Statistique sur les Bibliothèques de Vienne," published in 1835, M. Adrien Balbi entered into an examination of the literary and numerical value of the principal libraries of ancient and modern times. M. Balbi, in this work, shows that "the Imperial Library of Vienna, regularly increasing from the epoch of its formation, by means equally honorable to the sovereign and to the nation,

held, until the French revolution, the first place among the libraries of Europe. Since that period, several other institutions have risen to a much higher numerical rank. . . . No one of the libraries of the first class, now in existence, dates beyond the fifteenth century. The Vatican, the origin of which has been frequently carried back to the days of St. Hilarius, in 465, cannot, with any propriety, be said to have deserved the name of library before the reign of Martin the Fifth, by whose order it was removed from Avignon to Rome in 1417. And even then, a strict attention to the force of the term would require us to withhold from it this title, until the period of its final organization by Nicholas the Fifth, in 1447. It is difficult to speak with certainty concerning the libraries, whether public or private, which are supposed to have existed previous to the fifteenth century, both on account of the doubtful authority and indefiniteness of the passages in which they are mentioned, and the custom which so readily obtained, in those dark ages, of dignifying every petty collection with the name of library. But many libraries of the fifteenth century being still in existence, and others having been preserved long enough to make them the subject of historical inquiry before their dissolution, it becomes easier to fix, with satisfactory accuracy, the date of their foundation. We find accordingly, that, including the Vatican, and the libraries of Vienna, Ratisbon, and the Laurentian of Florence, which are a few years anterior to it, no less than ten were formed between the years 1430 and 1500. The increase of European libraries has generally been slowly progressive, although there have been periods of sudden augmentation in nearly all. Most of them began with a small number of manuscripts, sometimes with a few printed volumes, and often without any. To these, gradual accessions were made, from the different sources, which have always been more or less at the command of the sovereigns and nobles of Europe. In 1455, the Vatican contained 5,000 manuscripts. . . . Far different was the progress of the Royal Library of Paris [now the Bibliothèque Nationale]. The origin of this institution is placed in the year 1595, the date of its removal from Fontainebleau to Paris by order of Henry the Fourth. In 1660, it contained but 1,435 printed volumes. In the course of the following year, this number was raised to 16,746, both printed volumes and manuscripts. During the ensuing eight years the library was nearly doubled; and before the close of the next century, it was supposed to have been augmented by upwards of 100,000 volumes more."—G. W. Greene, *Historical studies, pp.* 278-281—"The oldest of the great libraries of printed books is probably that of Vienna, which dates from 1440, and is said to have been opened to the public as early as 1575. The Town Library of Ratisbon dates from 1430; St. Mark's Library at Venice, from 1468; the Town Library of Frankfort, from 1484; that of Hamburg, from 1529; of Strasburg, from 1531; of Augsburg, from 1537; those of Berne and Geneva, from 1550; that of Basel, from 1564. The Royal Library of Copenhagen was founded about 1550." —E. Edwards, *Statistical view of the principal public libraries in Europe and the United States of North America* (*Journal of the Statistical Society, Aug.*, 1848).

Australia

Public and traveling libraries.—"The Public Library of New South Wales was initiated as a Government department by the purchase in 1869 from the trustees of the Australian Subscription Library of the building in which they worked and the whole of their 16,000 books for £5,100, so that the library really dated from February 3rd, 1826, on which date the first meeting was held to form the first library in Australia. . . . The number of books on December 31st, 1897, was 119,842, including a collection of Australasian books. . . . 'In July, 1897 . . . Mr. H. C. L. Anderson, principal librarian of the Public Library of New South Wales, attended [the meeting of the United Kingdom Library Association] as representative of New South Wales and Victoria, and . . . acquired a large fund of information. Seeing that so much good had been done by library associations, . . . it was determined in Melbourne to attempt the establishment of a 'Library Association of Australasia.' A meeting was held accordingly in April, 1896, and was attended by delegates from eighty Australasian libraries, the result being that the proposed association was formed. . . . A paper on 'Travelling Libraries' . . . stated that there were now 132 travelling libraries in Victoria, and each consisted of 50 volumes. They had loaned books to 170 local libraries in different portions of the colony, and in every instance the system had met with great success. . . . [Another stated] there were 158 country, urban, or suburban institutes which were affiliated with the Public Library, the Museum, or the Art Gallery of South Australia . . . [and] participated in the benefits of . . . travelling book boxes. . . . Victoria had spent much more money on libraries than New South Wales. The number of these institutions in the former colony was 437, and the number of volumes in them over 1,000,000. The buildings cost £405,000, of which it might be assumed that more than one-half was provided by the State. In . . . [South Australia] the country libraries had received during the past twenty years £100,000 in subsidy, divided amongst 269 institutions, and 56 municipal libraries had received from the State £10,000."—*Library, v.* 10, *pp.* 368-370.

Austria

Imperial library.—University of Vienna.—"The nucleus of the Imperial Library at Vienna was formed in the first half of the 15th century, even prior to the invention of printing, when the Emperor Friedrich V., of the Hapsburg dynasty, gave orders that the manuscripts in the palace and other buildings should be collected and systematically arranged. . . . This collection of manuscripts was enlarged by the addition of Latin and Greek codexes secured at the pillage of Constantinople, and the embryo library was afterwards enriched by books printed in Friedrich's reign. The actual foundation, however, of the royal library dates from 1497, when Maximilian I., the son of Friedrich, deputed Conrad Celtis . . . to gather books and manuscripts from different parts of the country to build up a library worthy of the empire. The library grew slowly by purchase and by bequests, and under Maximilian II. it was long without a director and sadly neglected. About 15 months, however, before the Emperor died he appointed [by decree dated June 15, 1575] Hugo Blotz librarian, the first in Vienna to bear this honorable name. . . . Hugo Blotz, usually called by his Latinized name Blotius . . . after being installed librarian . . . introduced a systematic arrangement of the books, and worked diligently and rapidly at the inventory, completing it in duplicate on April 24. 1576. . . . Maximilian II. died Oct. 12, 1576, . . . [but his successor Rudolph II]

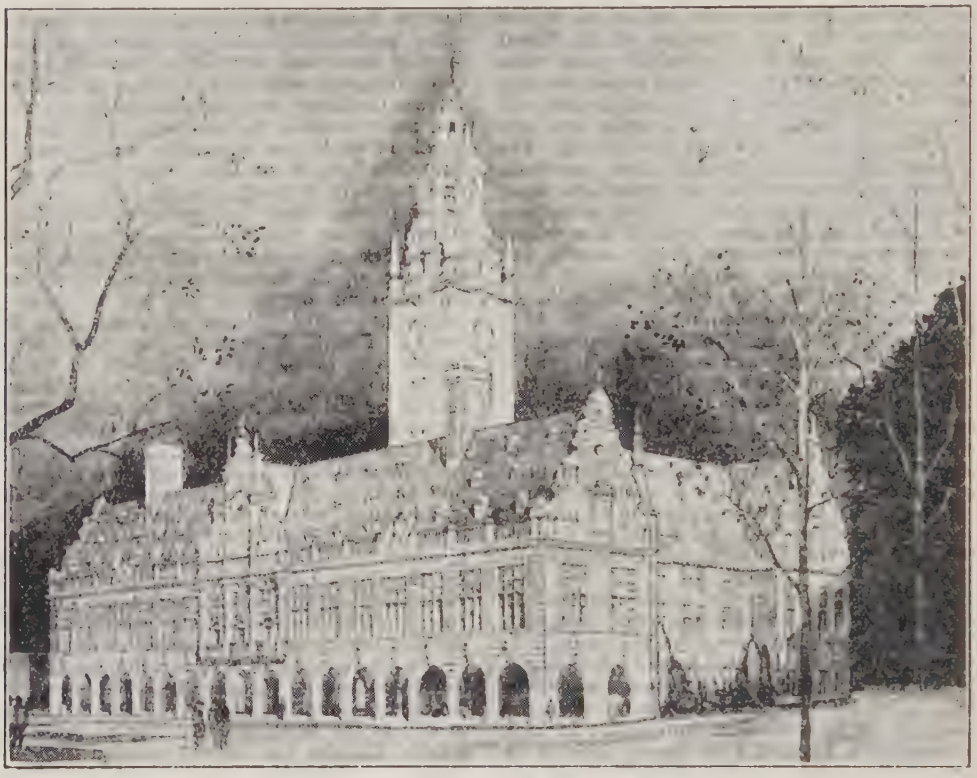
showed liberality to the growing library at Vienna, and retained Blotius in office. Some years after Rudolph's accession the library was enriched by the collection of books [2,600 volumes] formed by Johannes Sambucus, the Hungarian physician, historian, archæologist, and poet."—H. C. Bolton, *Model librarian three hundred years ago* (*Library Journal, June,* 1899).—In 1914 the Imperial Library was credited with a million volumes. "Originally each faculty in the University of Vienna, had its own collection of books, but in 1545, after Bishop Faber bequeathed his library to the university, they were all united. For a long time the library was in a wretched condition, and having no building, the books were ceded to the Royal Library in 1756. At that time the collection numbered 2780 vols. and 1037 mss. The present university library was founded in 1775 by Queen Maria Theresa, by uniting the collections of five Jesuit colleges and the duplicates of the Royal Library. This gave a collection of 45,000 vols. which was opened in 1777. Several collections were added, the reading room, in 1824, had 90 seats, and was open daily (except Sunday, Saturday and holy days) from 10 to 12 A. M. and 2 to 4 P. M. The staff consisted of a chief librarian, four custodians, and two servants, two of the custodians being ecclesiastics and two seculars. . . . The attendance was always large; between 1835-48 it averaged 51,800 per annum. Professors alone, however, had the right to take out books. In 1815-16 three lists of books prohibited to readers were made, for Italian, French, and German literature. . . . After completion of the new University building in 1884 the 300,000 vols. were removed to it, and a liberal policy pursued, which included opening the rooms in the evenings."—H. C. Bolton, *Library of the University of Vienna* (*Library Journal, June,* 1899).—In 1914, the library of the University of Vienna contained 883,344 volumes. Other principal libraries of Austria-Hungary before the breakup of the empire were, besides those in Vienna, the libraries of the Universities of Budapest, Czernowitz, Cracow, Innspruck, Graz, Lemburg, and Prague.

The movement to create public libraries in Austria "began between 1860 and 1870. Some insignificant libraries with from 50 to 300 v., . . . were opened in the country by some *Volksbildungs-Verein.* The school gave place for a bookshelf, the teacher gave out the books once a week in the evening or on Sunday after church. . . . In 1878 and 1879 were founded two library societies in Vienna, which attained a circulation of 20,000, respectively 60,000 in the two libraries opened in the year 1879. In 1887 the *Volksbildungs-Verein* of Vienna opened its first free library. In 1890, six libraries of this Verein had a total circulation of 100,000. . . . At last an insufficient tax of 1 cent a month was adopted, and . . . the first library [was opened] with a circulation of 200,000. . . . In the time of seven years we opened the Central library [in Vienna] with 17 branches and a circulation of 1,800,000. The Central library without branches in the year 1903, had a circulation of 643,857. . . . The Central library opened on the same principles library in the city of Mödling. . . . [Many societies previous to 1904] introduced a tax of 1, 2, 3 cents a month with very good success. . . . In the provinces the old societies with free libraries . . . [continued to exist, but with small success]. The *N. O. Volksbildungs-Verein,* which adopted the library tax in the last year [written in 1904], has 140 libraries with a total circulation of 150,000. What this corporation attained in the lapse of 20 years, the Südmark . . . [did] in four years on the basis of the library tax. Dr. Micael Hainisch gives every year 6000 kronen for public libraries in the Alpine provinces, and the Central library sends the complete libraries out to those places where the Südmark has prepared the ground."—E. Reyer, *Public libraries in Austria* (*Public Libraries, Oct.,* 1904).

Belgium

Brussels Library.—Other great collections.—Effect of World War.—The National library of Belgium, in Brussels, really originated with the library of the Austrian rulers of the Low Countries, which accumulated through three centuries. in 1772, after the suppression of the Jesuits and confiscation of their property, the library acquired much new material, and was opened to the public. In 1794 Brussels was occupied by the French and many books and manuscripts carried off, though most of these were returned in 1815.—In 1795 the books remaining were used to form a public library. In 1830 the library was added to the State archives, and made available for students. According to a sketch of its history "given by the librarian, Dr. Paul Bergman, in an essay which celebrated the first centenary of this institution (May 3rd, 1897), before the Historical and Archæological Society of Ghent, . . . the library is indebted for its origin to the French Revolution, and was established on the basis of the old monastic and court library by the same decree of the 3rd Brumaire, of year 4, as enacted the foundation of a large number of French libraries. . . . In 1804 it was handed over to the town, and given to the University on its establishment in 1818. . . . Next to that of Brussels, it is reckoned the most important library in Belgium. It is estimated [1898] to contain 1,200 MSS., 325,000 volumes, and some 150,000 pamphlets."—*Library, v.* 10, *pp.* 345-346.—A report made by Dr. Milkau to the Prussian Minister of Education, in 1915 stated that in Brussels alone there were 37 libraries, not including the "People's Libraries." "Chief among the Brussels libraries are the Royal Library with 700,000 volumes, the Bollandist Society's Library of 250,000 books, the library of the Foreign Ministry with 100,000, and the War Department and Chamber of Deputies collections of 100,000 and 125,000 volumes each. The Royal Academy of Medicine has a library of 100,000 volumes, and the Ministry of Arts and Sciences as well as the Royal Conservatory of Music have notable libraries but slightly smaller than these others. . . . Altogether, these scientific and technical libraries of Brussels represent a total of over two million volumes, not including many rare parchments and manuscripts. For the provinces Dr. Milkau lists 73 libraries, among them 4 university libraries; 15 libraries attached to theological colleges and seminaries; 22 important municipal libraries; 3 museum libraries; 19 convent or sacred order libraries, and 9 large private collections. Of these the following are the most important numerically as well as in quality: the University and City Library in Ghent with its 450,000 volumes; the University Library in Lüttich (405,000); the City Library in Antwerp (130,000); the Central Public library in Lüttich, and the municipal libraries in Tournai and Mons. . . . Dr. Milkau's list does not attempt to include a perfect network of small public libraries scattered thickly throughout Belgium, nor many collections belonging to churches and communities in the rural districts. . . . Belgium possesses great stores of books, the older literature, although not the most ancient, predominating. . . . The American decimal and card cata-

log systems, generally newly installed, were found almost everywhere. Every opportunity was given the student for serious work, but Dr. Milkau found that the Belgian libraries had made little provision to interest the great mass of the people in reading and study."—*Belgian libraries.* (*Library Journal, June,* 1916, *p.* 390).—The libraries of Liége and Bruges are especially fine. Every town of any size has a communal library, rendering real service to school children, higher students, and the general public. The Louvain University library, which was destroyed by the Germans during the World War, was based upon the collections of Beyerlinck, who bequeathed it to the University in 1627. Another bequest was made by Jacques Romain, and the organization of the library began in 1636. Commencing in 1914 John Rylands library, Manchester, made a collection of about 40,000 books for presentation to the library. About 25,000 volumes were collected in the United States, and in 1922 the people of the United States commenced the erection of a new building at a cost of $1,000,000. By the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, the library authorities were also entitled to choose from German libraries copies of rare books which might replace some of the treasures which were destroyed. The loss in manuscripts was for the most part irreplaceable.



RESTORATION OF THE LIBRARY AT LOUVAIN
Designed by Warren and Wetmore, Architects

Canada

Early libraries.—Ontario public library system. — Important libraries. — Library associations.—"In 1779 a number of the officers stationed at Quebec and of the leading merchants undertook the formation of a subscription library. The Governor, General Haldinand, took an active part in the work, and ordered, on behalf of the subscribers, £500 worth of books from London. . . . A room for their reception was granted in the Bishop's palace, and as late as 1806 we learn from Lambert's *Travels* that it was the only library in Canada. Removed several times, it slowly increased, until in 1822 it numbered 4,000 volumes. The list of subscribers having become very much reduced, it was leased to the Quebec Literary Association in 1843. In 1854 a portion of it was burned with the Parliament Building, . . . and finally, in 1866, the entire library, consisting of 6,999 volumes, was sold, subject to conditions, to the Literary and Historical Society of Quebec. . . . The partial destruction of the library, together with the Parliamentary Library, called attention to the danger which existed of the total loss of many valuable books referring to the early history of the country; and it was resolved, in consequence, by the Canadian Government, to reprint the entire series of the *Relations des Jesuites*. . . . On the organization of each of the Provinces, libraries were established in connection with the Legislatures. In Upper Canada the small library in the Parliament Building was destroyed by the Americans, and the one by which it was replaced, by the fire of 1824, so that, when the two Libraries of Upper and Lower Canada were united in 1841, there appears to have been little left of the early fugitive literature of the Province. At the end of 1897 the Legislative Libraries of the Dominion numbered nine. . . . By far the most important of these is the Library of the House at Ottawa. Originally es-

tablished on the union of the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada in 1841, it was successively removed with the seat of Government . . . and finally to Ottawa—a wandering life, which effectually prevented its attaining large proportions. The unfortunate fires in Montreal and Quebec . . . robbing it of much that was very valuable and which could not be replaced. On the federation of the different Provinces, in 1867, the Library of the two Provinces, only, passed into the hands of the Federal Government. . . . In the Province of Manitoba, Mr. J. P. Robertson, the Librarian of the Legislative Library, says that 'the Red River Library was founded in the spring of 1847, . . . in the then young Colony of the Red River Settlement. The officers in charge of the troops were mainly instrumental in starting this pioneer public library. . . . Previous to the year 1847 there was a subscription library of 200 volumes, belonging to private gentlemen, some of them officers in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company. . . . The first books for the Red River Library arrived from England in the summer of 1848, *via* the Hudson's Bay route. . . . Old settlers say that there must have been at least 1,000 books. . . . The subscription library before referred to was now merged with the General Library. . . . [Peter Fidler, a Hudson's Bay Company officer bequeathed his books (500 volumes), maps and globes to the library, which was unusually valuable for the time and place.] Other additions were made from time to time, which must have increased the number of books in the Library to at least 2,000 volumes. . . .. Shortly after 1860, the institution was divided into two sections, one portion being left at Lower Fort Garry for the benefit of settlers in that vicinity and the other removed to the residence of Magnus Brown for the use of the community around Winnipeg. It was from the latter that the books in the present Provincial Library, belonging to the old institution, were obtained.' On the establishment of the Province in 1870, Lieut.-Governor Archibald arranged for the purchase of about 2,000 volumes; thus raising the Library to 4,000 volumes, but, owing to the fire in 1873 and the want of proper supervision, it only contained 500 volumes . . . in 1884. Since then it has grown in size and importance, and is now [1922] one of the most valuable libraries in Canada. In 1872 the Canadian Government instituted [at Ottawa] an Archives Department for the preservation and calendering of MS. documents relating to Canada. Large numbers of these have been copied at the Public Records Office, the British Museum and other national repositories in England. A partial examination of others in the Colonial Department de la Marine, Paris, has been made [written in 1897], and many valuable records and papers have been secured in the country. . . . The . . . colleges and universities of the Dominion are provided with libraries. . . . The senior of these, Laval University, Quebec, is famous as being, after Harvard (U. S.), the oldest on the continent, being founded by Bishop Laval in 1663. . . . On the suppression of the Jesuit Order and Seminary their books were transferred to it. It . . . is unrivalled for the extent and character of its French collection and its many scarce books in early French-Canadian literature and history. Their collection of the *Relations* of the early Jesuit missionaries is only surpassed by the Lenox Library, New York. . . . The fire which destroyed a large portion of Toronto University annihilated the excellent collection of books which formed its Library. . . . [but the generous response made to an appeal for assistance in replacing it provided a nucleus of 30,000 volumes with which to start again. As early as 1824 there was in Montreal] a subscription library known as the Montreal Library, which contained a voluminous collection of books and prints illustrating the costumes and scenery of different countries. There was attached to it an excellent reading room, round the walls of which were hung maps of all countries. There was 'also a judicial selected garrison library and an advocates' library.' In Kingston, a subscription library known as the Ramsay Library existed in 1836. . . . Similar libraries were to be found in Toronto, Hamilton and Windsor, and indeed, wherever a small colony of intelligent men were clustered together, a library became almost a necessity. . . . The first circulating library in Upper Canada (1800-1820), [was] established by some enterprising citizens of the Town of Niagara. . . . It was successful until the destruction of the town by the American troops in 1813 wasted its volumes and impoverished its subscribers, so that it shortly after quietly passed out of existence. The Province of Ontario was, in fact, the first which attempted to grapple with the question of public libraries. In 1848 the late Dr. Ryerson drafted a School Bill which contained provisions for school and township libraries, and succeeded in awakening a deep interest in the subject. . . . In 1854 Parliament passed the requisite Act, and granted him the necessary funds to carry out his views in the matter. . . . A book depository was established in the Education Office to enable the smaller libraries to obtain readily good literature . . . at cost, and a grant of 100 per cent. on the amount remitted was added in books by the Department. During the thirty years of its existence 1,407,140 volumes were so supplied. The proposal to establish the second class was, however, premature, and accordingly, finding that Mechanics' Institutes, supported by members' fees, were being developed throughout the many towns and villages, the Educational Department wisely aided the movement by giving a small grant. . . . In 1869 these had grown to number 26, in 1880 [when they were transferred to the control of the Minister of Education], 74, and in 1896 to 292. . . . In 1895 the Minister of Education in Ontario brought in a bill . . . [to empower] the Directors of any Mechanics' Institute . . . to transfer the property of the Institute to the municipal corporation on condition that the Library be free, . . . without passing a by-law or requiring a vote from the people. . . . [Prior to this,] in the cities and larger towns . . . the Mechanics' Institute, with its limited number of subscribers, was found unequal to the task assigned it, and accordingly, 1882, the Free Libraries Act was passed, based upon similar enactments in Britain and the United States. The first Free Library established under the Act was in 1883, and in the period between that date and 1897 seventy-eight . . . [came] successfully . . . into operation. . . . Two of them, Toronto and Hamilton, take rank, both in the number and character of their books, among the best libraries of the Dominion. . . . The generosity of the late Mr. Fraser and a number of gentlemen in Montreal has provided a fund for the establishment of a Free Library in that city, which was opened in October, 1885, under the title of the Fraser Institute. The Mercantile Library Association transferred to it 5,500 English books and *L'Institut Canadien* 7,000 French. In St. John, N. B., a Free Library was founded in June, 1883, to commemorate the landing of the Loyalists a century previous, and in Halifax a Free Library owes its origin to the generosity of the late Chief Justice Young. Both of these have been very successful.

A sister society, the Literary and Historical Society of Manitoba, has been the means of introducing a Public Library [in Winnipeg], and, with the assistance of the municipal authorities of Winnipeg, has laid the foundation of an extensive and valuable library."—J. Bain, Jr., *Public libraries of Canada* (J. C. Hopkins, ed., *Canada, an encyclopædia of the country, v. 5, pp.* 207-210).

"The administration of the [Ontario] Public Libraries Act is entrusted to the Minister of Education, who reports annually to the Legislature the condition of the libraries, . . . and advises the House as to financial appropriations and advisable legislation. The actual work of administration, however, is in the hands of the Superintendent of Public Libraries. . . . The department will send its official cataloger to a small library for a sufficient period to classify the library and to carry on the cataloging to a point where the local librarian can complete the work. . . . In 1915 the official cataloger . . . classified and cataloged, wholly or in part, sixteen libraries, with a total of 61,600 volumes, installing the Newark charging system in nine libraries and completing the establishment of a children's department in all of them."—E. A. Hardy, *How Ontario administers her libraries* (*Library Journal, Oct.,* 1916).—"There are two library schools in Canada: one connected with McGill University, founded in 1905, and one held in Toronto by the Ontario Department of Education since 1910. The course at McGill has always been a short summer course, lasting one month. The Ontario school has been of varying lengths: one month, 6 weeks, 2 months, and, since 1919, 3 months. Up to the year 1919 the amount of $3,032,910 had been promised by the trusts established by Andrew Carnegie in 146 grants for the erection of 155 library buildings. Of these buildings 114 had been erected at an expenditure of $2,393,410."—*Public libraries in Canada* (*Canada Year Book,* 1921, *p.* 169).—"The Dominion Archives building at Ottawa was opened on January 1st, 1908. It contains a magnificent collection of historical documents, printed books, manuscripts, prints and other pictures relating to Canada and its history, all of which are at the service of the student, writer, lawyer, conveyancer or anyone else who chooses to make use of them."—E. P., A. E., and E. C. Weaver, ed., *Canadian Woman's Annual and Social Service Directory, p.* 202.—The largest university library in the Dominion is that of (Laval) university. The library of the Quebec legislature is also of great importance. In Montreal the chief libraries are those of McGill university, which is open to the public, the Fraser Institute (founded in 1885), the McGill medical library, which is one of the most complete medical libraries on the continent, and the advocates' library. Although many of the books and documents in the Parliamentary Library at Ottawa were injured in the fire of 1916, it is the most important library in Canada. The library of the Geological and Natural History Survey, the Library of the Supreme Court and the Public Archives are also under the control of the Dominion Government, and together form an invaluable collection. In Toronto, where the most important public library in the province is situated, the circulation library and the reference library are quite distinct, although they are both part of the public library system of the province of Ontario. The reference library, which is in the vicinity of the university, may be looked upon as part of the university system, at the same time that the university has a large library of its own. The law society of Ontario has its library in Osgoode Hall, and aids in the formation and maintenance of County law libraries throughout the province. Hamilton, forty miles distant, has a very fine Carnegie library, with a good reference department. There is also a good law library in the city. The united Legislative and Nova Scotia Historical Society in Halifax is very rich in records of the early history of the province of Nova Scotia. Libraries in Canada follow very closely the system and method of those of the United States and England. Library laws in the Dominion began with a series of acts in 1854. An important feature is the close association between libraries and schools; and there are important extensions of libraries into rural districts. Equipment and organization of Canadian libraries rival those of the United States and Great Britain. "The revised Ontario Public Libraries Act of 1920 is chiefly important for the change made in grants and rate of taxation to be levied for library purposes. Both Saskatchewan and Alberta have Public Libraries Acts (passed respectively in 1906 and 1907) based, as is also the Free Libraries Act of Manitoba (passed in 1899), on the Ontario Act. The Free Libraries Act of British Columbia was passed in 1891. Quebec, in 1890 . . . passed an Act to authorize city, town and village corporations to aid in the support of libraries. There is no public library legislation in the Maritime provinces. . . . [The traveling library system has been found very useful in Canada.] Travelling libraries commenced in 1890, when the Aberdeen Association was organized in Winnipeg. . . . [In 1898] the Government of British Columbia began work among the mining camps and agricultural districts. This work has grown steadily. In 1900 work was commenced with travelling libraries contributed by the Canadian Club of Toronto and by McGill and Queen's universities. In the next year the Canadian Reading Camp Association was formed, and . . . the Frontier College was established with the aim of placing a reading room or tent in every frontier camp in Canada. This College was incorporated by a Dominion Act of 1922 and receives a grant through the Ontario Department of Education. In addition McGill University has an excellent system of travelling libraries, as has also the University of Alberta; while in Ontario and Saskatchewan similar work is carried on under government auspices."—*Public libraries in Canada* (*Canada Year Book,* 1921, *pp.* 168-169).—The Ontario Library Association came into being in 1901. From its first meeting "with 32 representatives of 24 libraries, down to the recent meetings with an attendance of 200, the Ontario Library Association has been an active missionary force. It has striven successfully to secure modern methods in book selection and purchase, in accessioning, classification and cataloging, in charging systems, in library buildings and equipment, in library training. . . . It has brought hundreds of library workers together, it has initiated many improvements, and it has shaped legislation."—E. A. Hardy, *How Ontario administers her libraries* (*Library Journal, v. 41, No. 10, October,* 1916, *p.* 731). . . . "British Columbia formed an Association in 1911, Saskatchewan in 1914, the Maritimes, for the three maritime provinces, in 1918, and Alberta in 1920. The Pacific Northwest Association, organized in 1909, has an international membership."—*Public libraries in Canada* (*Canada Year Book,* 1921, *p.* 169).

China

"The history of Chinese libraries really begins with the invention of Chinese writing. But

the word 'library' in China always means strictly a place for storing books instead of a place for educating the public. It is only recently that educators have begun to know the library not only as a place for taking care of books but also as a melting pot for diffusing knowledge to the ignorant as well as to the learned. . . .

"Roughly the history of Chinese libraries can be divided into six periods which are arbitrarily set . . . to serve the purpose of narrating their development. The first period extends from the appointment of a royal custodian by Huangti down to the burning of books and the persecution of scholars by the great emperor, Shih Huangti of Ch'in dynasty. This period covered the years 2697 to 206 B. C. Many historical references relate that a royal custodian was usually appointed by a ruler to look after the archives of former reigns and to keep the records of the important events of the emperor's own reign. . . . In this period there was not only a royal library but each feudal prince (or duke) had a place for storing his books. . . . The flourishing period of various philosophical systems . . . came to a disastrous end, because the ambitious Shih Huangti, the first great emperor of the Ch'in dynasty, 249 B. C., desired to be known as the originator of all human knowledge. . . . His thoro method of destroying literature, classics and history, and his consolidation of the feudal kingdoms into an empire arrested the development of the numerous libraries of the principalities for a short time.

"This unfortunate end of the first period fortunately lasted only forty-three years. Then came the downfall of the great empire of Ch'in and the rise of the Han dynasty, which took place about 206 B. C. This marked the beginning of the second period of the history of libraries. . . By the constant encouragement of the successive emperors of the Han dynasty, numerous ancient books were dug out from walls of houses where they had been secreted and the revival of interest in classics and literature at once was manifested in every branch of intellectual activity. . . . According to the Annals of the Han dynasty, about the first half century of the Christian era, the imperial library had 3123 volumes on the classics, 2705 volumes of philosophy, 1318 of poetry, 790 on warfare, 2528 on mathematics, and 868 on medicine. Besides the collections in the imperial library, famous scholars always had their own private libraries. . . . It was, has been, and is still a usual practice for the Buddhist monastery always to have a place for storing Buddhistic books, well arranged, classified, and preserved. After the Han dynasty there was a period of four centuries of political turmoil. In spite of the turbulence, the development of libraries was not without steady progress. The rapid increase of production of new books in this period may be explained by the invention of the brush pen and hemp paper, as well as the strong reaction in favor of the old and forgotten Confucian classics. . . .

"The third period began with the glory of Tang dynasty 618 A. D. . . . The second emperor T'ai Tsung (627-650 A. D.) made the name of China respected beyond its own frontiers. His policy of tolerance and hospitality towards the foreign missionaries [led to the introduction, during the seventh and eighth centuries, of writings on Zoroasterism, Mohammedanism, and Nestorian Christianity]. The documents relating to these . . . filled an entire cell at Tung Huang. . . . A literary academy of high standing was founded in the capital and the system of civil service examination was inaugurated. . . . The Tsang dynasty began to classify the books in the imperial library under four main classes: Classics, History, Philosophy, and Belles Lettres. This system of classification was immediately and widely adopted by the libraries of the imperial districts and many private libraries. On account of the civil service examination in literature each district began to have a place for competitive examination, where the books were kept as a sort of district library for the use of scholars and students. This magnificent period was closed with the perfection of block printing by Feng Tao (881-954 A. D.). . . .

"In the year 980 A. D. the Imperial Library of the Sung dynasty . . . was erected. In A. D. 1036 the emperor . . . ordered the librarian to appoint a number of prominent scholars to classify and catalog the books. . . . The flourishing empire of Sung . . . in 1261 A. D. was dominated by Kublai Khan, the first emperor of the Mongol dynasty. . . . The new capital [now Peking] was adorned with a grand building for the imperial library. . . . There were three very prominent private libraries in Kianguan, and the best known one was Chuang library. . . . It is curious enough to say that the system of classification adopted in the Chuang Library had many points of similarity with the system of the Dewey Decimal Classification. It arranged the field of knowledge under ten main classes in logical order and used the characters of the Chinese cycle as notations. After the expulsion of the Mongols by Hung Wu, the founder of the Ming dynasty, . . . [the imperial library underwent many changes]. In 1442 A. D. the descriptive catalog . . . was published. . . . The vastness of the work required eighteen years' labor by hundreds of scholars. It was begun in 1772 and finished in 1790. . . . The emperor . . . ordered the erection of three great imperial libraries in the cities of Tseng Kiang, Yangchow and Huangchow. . . . Only the imperial library in Huangchow has been preserved to the present time and now it has been turned to a public library and removed to an up-to-date building. . . .

"Four important features mark the development of the library history of the fifth period. The first event was the practical application and preparation of Chinese movable types for filling the demand for the rapid manufacture of evangelical works of the Christians. . . . The second . . . is the earnest restoration and erection of libraries and government printing offices in provincial capitals, prefectural and district cities after the suppression of the T'ai-Ping rebellion. Those government libraries were mostly situated in a hall where literary examinations took place. They were the libraries for scholars and students, but not for the common people. . . . Numerous private libraries with large collections formed the third typical feature of this epoch. More than a dozen famous private libraries are scattered far and wide in the empire. . . . After the woeful results of the Chino-Japanese War of 1894-95 and the Boxer uprising of 1900, China gradually recognized the importance of western learning and the inefficiency of the old educational system. . . . By the strong desire of the Chinese people for modern education and the evangelistic efforts of the Christian missionaries, many missionary institutions of higher learning of various kinds have been founded all over the country. Their influence in social education and library development are too great to be neglected. Their founding formed the fourth essential feature of the fifth period of the Chinese library history. . . .

"Missionary institutions, modern school systems,

and western learning are the powerful factors in determining the nature and policy of Chinese libraries of the present. . . . The old order of the Chinese library system for scholars and students has to give place to the needs of all the classes of the people. It is not a place for hiding books but a powerful agency in education. On account of lack of translations of scientific works, compulsory study of foreign modern languages in schools and the general thirst for western learning, make the libraries not only have books in Chinese, but also have a workable collection in foreign languages. All those inevitable tendencies have given birth to the sixth period of Chinese library history. The present period began with the significant birth of the young republic on October 9, 1911. One of the innumerable innovations was to turn the places for storing books and for privileged *literati* only, into free public libraries. In order to set an example for the provinces to follow the government turned the imperial library of Peking into a public library in 1912. . . . Now not only the universities, colleges and learned institutions are anxious to have libraries, but also like to have an efficient system for administration. Since 1914 four Chinese librarians have come to this land of libraries and book lovers to receive the instruction of library science from the library schools."—T. C. Tai, *Brief sketch of Chinese libraries* (*Library Journal, July*, 1919, *pp.* 423-429).

England, Scotland, Ireland

Rise and growth of free town libraries.—Bray's libraries.—Subscription libraries.—Mechanic's Institutes.—First Library Act.—What may have been the earliest free library in England was founded in the fifteenth century by the Guild of Kalenders, whose duty it was to record the local history of the ancient city of Bristol. John Leland, the historian, speaks of the guild as being in existence in 1170, and on the occasion of the Parliament of Bristol, held by Henry III (1216) its deeds were inspected and ratified. It is mentioned again in 1340 by Wolstan, Bishop of Worcester, who gave instructions concerning some of the religious duties of its members, who were both lay and clerical and apparently included some women. Of more interest to us are the steps taken in 1464, by John Carpenter, Bishop of Worcester, to provide a librarian for the library which he had erected at his own expense (Bristol being still part of the diocese of Worcester). By direction of the bishop, the prior was to live in the college, and take charge of the library. He was to allow any one who could read to consult the books from seven to eleven o'clock every festival morning, and was to read a public lecture every week in the library, and try to make clear obscure places in scripture. Three copies of the catalogue were to be made, one for the dean of Augustinian Canons, another for the mayor, and the third for the Prior himself. The library was burned in 1466, and the catalogues were lost so we have no knowledge of its contents. "In the beginning of the seventeenth century a new fashion began; books were bequeathed to city corporations, and formed the earliest free town libraries in . . . [England]. One such was founded at Norwich in the year 1608. The greater part of the original books of this, the oldest city free library with a continuous history to the present day, are now housed in the Norwich Free Public Library. Five years later provision was made by Dr. Toby Matthew, Archbishop of York, and by citizen Robert Redwood, to establish a city library at Bristol. The library was opened in 1615, and is accessible to the reader of to-day [written in 1897] in the Central Free Library of that city. . . . A parochial free library was established in 1623 at Langley Marish, in Buckinghamshire, by Sir John Kederminster, and the books, which consisted of 300 folio volumes of the Greek and Latin Fathers and the chief works of the Reformation controversy, were reported in 1849 to be well preserved. The ancient town of Leicester also has had its free library since 1632, which, after falling into neglect, has been carefully looked after of late years by the corporation. . . . Next in point of date comes the noble bequest of Sir Humphrey Chetham at Manchester, which was long regarded as the oldest free library in England. The Chetham Library, founded in 1653, appears to have an unbroken record of public use, and its store of antiquarian books and valuable original MSS., chiefly English, as well as its literary associations, justly make it the pride of Manchester citizens. . . . In 1635 at Boston, and in 1645 at Wotton Wawen (Warwickshire), the churches were furnished with libraries. Archbishop Tenison's library at St. Martin-in-the-Fields, London, was established in 1684. Other libraries were formed in the seventeenth century at Wisbeach by ten 'capital burgesses,' and at Tong, in Shropshire, by Gervaise, Lord Pierpoint, the latter, and possibly the former, being for the exclusive use of the clergy. Numerous grammar-school libraries, now for the most part shamefully dilapidated, were also founded late in the sixteenth and early in the seventeenth centuries. The eighteenth century saw the rise and development of a considerable movement for supplying ministers of the gospel with libraries in connection with their churches. . . . In England, Dr. Bray, founder of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, while collecting funds for sending missionaries to America, was met with the objection that the poor clergy at home had more need of libraries than the Americans of missionaries. This led him to collect funds for and establish libraries in various parts of the country while prosecuting his mission work. From 1704 to his death, Dr. Bray established sixty-one so-called parochial libraries, and this work was continued after his death by the 'associates of Dr. Bray,' who added, up to 1807, seventy-eight parochial and thirty-five lending libraries. . . . Subscription libraries began to be formed in the more populous places, as early as 1725 in Edinburgh, and 1740 in London. Under the names of Lyceum and Athenæum many of these still . . . [existed in 1897] in various towns, one of the oldest . . . being the Liverpool (Lyceum) Library, founded in 1758. Eight years later it is stated in 'Proposals for a Publick Library at Aberdeen,' 'Public libraries have been established by subscription in most considerable towns where there is a desire of knowledge and improvement.' These libraries were for the use of the local gentry, professional men, and the more prosperous tradesmen, but subsequently they formed models for the Mechanics' Institutions, which brought the advantages of public libraries to the smaller tradesmen and the skilled artisans. A free library for general use was founded in 1778 at Bamburgh Castle, Northumberland, by Nathaniel, Lord Crewe, Bishop of Durham, for the use of all respectable housekeepers within twenty miles of the Castle. . . . A successful experiment in providing libraries for the people was made in 1817 by Mr. Samuel Brown of East Lothian. . . . In 1849 the system was still in proper working order in East Lothian. The plan had been copied in Peebleshire by the Free Church of Scotland, and in the Highlands

and Islands by the General Assembly. Into Russia and into the United States also the same method was introduced. At first these libraries were quite free, but financial necessities soon compelled subscriptions. . . . The first Mechanics' Institute at Haddington and at Dunbar, it is said, grew out of the interest in these circulating libraries. . . . In the twenties, thirties, and forties, Mechanics' Institutes rapidly increased in number, and a return of 1849 shows that there were four hundred in the United Kingdom, possessing from 300,000 to 400,000 volumes. . . . [In 1849 a commission on public libraries was directed to report on the desirability of empowering the establishment of public libraries. A report was submitted, accompanied by recommendations, and these were embodied in the first English Library Act of 1850.]"—J. J. Ogle, *Free library, pp.* 4-9.—See also EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: England: Mechanics' Institutes.

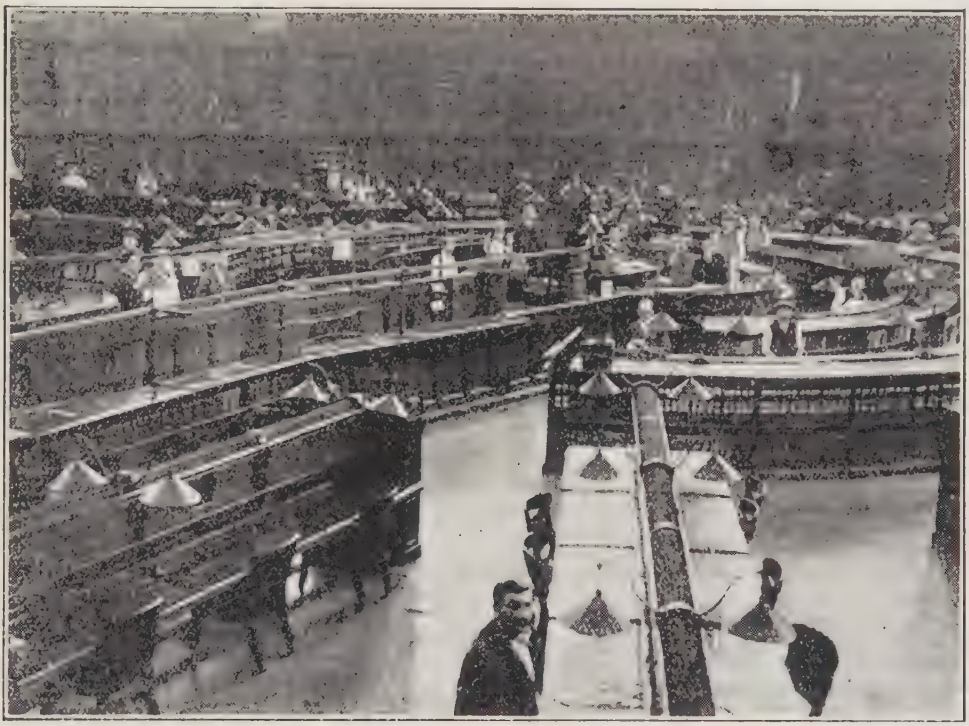
Working of Library Act.—Later legislation.—"During the first 10 years only 24 places adopted the acts, and at the end of 20 years only 46 had done so. When, however, the value of such institutions began to be realized, and their influence for the welfare of the community admitted, the rate of adoption increased by leaps and bounds. Taking consecutive periods of 10 years for convenience in comparison, we find that during the third period 52 places—more than twice the number in the preceding 10 years—adopted the acts. In the fourth period, 96 places—again nearly double the preceding; and in the fifth, 199. . . . From the first, it was recognized by legislators that the public library should work with the school of science and art, and power was given to the library authorities to provide not only public libraries, but museums, schools for science, art galleries and schools for art, and, since 1877 in the case of Ireland, schools of music. . . . Considerable help was given by the passing of the Technical instruction acts of 1889 and 1891, which relieve the library authority from the necessity of maintaining schools of science and art out of the library rate. The first town to take advantage of this act was Cardiff, which had founded such schools, among the earliest, in 1865. . . . At present [written in 1905] no less than 40 places have schools of science and art established in connection with a public library, and about 20 more have schools of science alone. . . . There are now [1905] about 330 technical schools in England, and nearly 100 of them are connected with public libraries, though not necessarily under administration of the library authority."—J. D. Stewart, *Technical education and public libraries in England* (*Public Libraries, Nov.,* 1905).—"Taking into consideration that the modern library movement in Great Britain, the outcome of the Ewart acts of 1845 and 1850, has been from its outset bounded by rate limitation and taxation, its present virile condition is a matter for optimistic jubilation. . . . Lancashire, of all counties in England, showed the most marked activity in adopting the acts and establishing free libraries. Wales led the van for some time, and Ireland, for financial and governmental reasons, brought up the rear. . . . The first library act of 1850 applied solely to municipal boroughs and could only be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the burgesses. The second act, 1853, extended its operations to Ireland and Scotland, though it did not provide for the purchase of books and placed a prohibitive rate limit of 1/2d. in every pound. . . . Later, by the act of 1855, the rate was fixed at a maximum of 1d. in the pound. . . . The income produced from a rate of 1d. in the pound, does not in small communities provide sufficient maintenance for effective administration or extended effort. Many of the larger cities, finding the income thus produced insufficient, have availed themselves of special acts of parliament to increase the rate, and recent local acts have enabled library authorities in several towns to increase the rate with the consent of the rate-payers, though rarely to more than 2d. in the pound. . . . The London government act of 1899 divided the metropolis into 28 boroughs and caused the amalgamation of a number of existing library areas, and the power to adopt the acts was transferred from a popular vote of the rate-payers to the new councils, resulting in the increase of the number of areas in which municipal libraries have been established."—M. S. R. James, *Modern British libraries* (*Public Libraries, Oct.,* 1904).—"The bill passed by the House of Commons in Dec. 1919, abolished rate restriction so far as the central government is concerned; the sum to be levied by the local authorities is left to their own judgment. But "Local authorities who in future adopt the Public Libraries Acts must place their administration in the hands of the education Committee of the district. Where, however, the Public Libraries Acts of 1892-1901 have been adopted previously the powers may remain vested in the already existing Libraries Committees, at the discretion of the local authorities concerned."—L. R. McColvin, *English newsletter* (*Public Libraries, Feb.,* 1920).—"As town libraries were after the passing of the Act of 1892, so now are county libraries. It is a matter for congratulation that the regulations relating to plebiscite are all removed, and a further amendment in the Act of 1919 makes the procedure in adoption one of the utmost simplicity—all that is necessary is for a motion to be passed in the usual methods of the Council it comes before."—D. Gray, *Organisation and administration of rural libraries* (*Library Association Record, Aug.* 15, 1921, *p.* 227).

Bodleian Library at Oxford.—Enrichment of Corpus Christi, Cambridge, by Archbishop Parker's collection.—Cambridge library.—"More than one attempt was made to establish a library at Oxford. In the early part of the fourteenth century the renowned Richard de Bury formed a collection of books, in connection with Durham College, which remained intact until the dissolution of the monasteries in the reign of Henry VIII. About 1320, Bishop Cobham, of Worcester, established the first University library in a room adjoining St. Mary's Church, Oxford. The collection of books in this library was augmented by Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, and others. The subsequent additions to the library made it necessary to increase its capacity, and in 1444, the University authorities resolved to build another library. . . . The whole of the collection thus formed was destroyed in 1550, as a result of a Commission appointed by Edward VI. in that year for the reformation of the Universities. A few years later the University sold the . . . library fittings, and nothing remained but an empty building. The honour of re-establishing the library fell to Thomas Bodley, who was born at Exeter on the 2nd March, 1544, . . . [and] received the foundations of his education [at Geneva, where his family fled during Mary's reign]. . . . [In 1597 he resolved to] occupy the remainder of his days in the re-founding of the University Library. . . . At a cost of £10,000 he gathered together a large collection of books and MSS. which formed the nucleus of the Bodleian Library. The library was opened with all due ceremony on the 8th November, 1602, with a stock of over 2,000 volumes. Bodley was

knighted by James I. two years later, and died in 1613. In order to increase the stock of books in the library, Sir Thomas, in 1610, induced the Company of Stationers to present to the library 'one copy of every book which they should print thenceforward.' The liberality of Sir Thomas Bodley in founding the library became an incentive to others to follow his noble example, and the library speedily received many valuable donations. . . . One of the earliest benefactors to the library was the Earl of Pembroke, at one time Chancellor of the University, who presented some 250 volumes of Greek MSS., which formed the splendid library of Giacomi Barocci, a Venetian nobleman. The next important donor was Sir Thomas Kenelm Digby, who presented a number of books, including some scientific treatises by Grôstete and Roger Bacon, and histories and chronicles. Both the above collections reached the library at the instigation of Archbishop Laud who made a very fine presentation of 1,300 MSS. chiefly Oriental and Biblical, in over a score of different languages. The Archbishop was also instrumental in obtaining for the library a Missal of 1481, several Latin MSS. from the College of Wurzburg, and other valuable works from the monasteries in the Duchy of Baden. The celebrated John Selden—legal antiquary, historian and Oriental scholar . . . presented his collection] of the classics, science, theology, law, and history, as well as a number of Oriental MSS. . . . During the Civil War . . . [the library was protected by Fairfax who presented to it Dodsworth's records of English history and some valuable MSS.]. The Bodleian Library possesses many rare early printed books, which include a magnificent series of the *editiones principes* of the Greek and Latin classics; books printed by Caxton, Pynson and Wynkyn de Worde, specimens from the famous presses of Oxford, St. Albans, and York. Of the 15th century vellum books in the library may be mentioned the Mentz *Psalter* and the *Rationale* of 1459; the Mentz *Bible* of 1462; the superb Wurtzburg *Breviarum* of 1479 and *Missal* of 1481; the Bologna *Pentateuchus Hebrasius* of 1482; the Soncini *Beraehoth* of 1484, remarkable at once as being the first printed portion of the Talmud. In 1858, the Trustees of the Ashmolean Museum offered to transfer their collection of books and MSS. to the Bodleian. Their offer was gladly accepted and by this transaction the library gained further treasures. . . . The stock of the library is over 700,000 printed books, 33,000 MSS., and the coin collection contains over 60,000 pieces. About 1,700 volumes are added annually. By virtue of the Copyright Act, the library is entitled to receive a copy of every book published; but . . . only receives the books for which the authorities make application." —G. R. Bolton, *History of the Bodleian Library* (*Library World, Jan.,* 1910) —Much has been done of late years to classify and catalogue the books in the library, which is the greatest of all the university libraries. The scholars of Tudor times looked on for the most part helplessly at the destruction of the monastery libraries during the process of suppression of the religious establishments. Great though the destruction was, however, it is believed that copies of all the important works of the Middle Ages were preserved by shrewd collectors, and have found their way into public or university libraries. One of the most careful of these sixteenth century collectors was Archbishop Parker, "who stands out prominently in that revival-time of letters. Royal collectors have been legion; nobles and private persons have also gathered together famous libraries; but perhaps no one in a way more representative than Archbishop Parker. That his MSS. and books are still preserved entire at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, has become an historical fact, and one of literary importance and value. Fuller, the historian, remarks that 'this library contained more materials relating to the history of this kingdom, both ancient and ecclesiastical, than could before have been met with anywhere else.' The strict rule that no one may have access to the collection, except in the presence of three persons who are each furnished with their own keys to the cases, has been carried out with exactness to the present day. Not only as a collector, but as a promoter of learning, Archbishop Parker was famous: his biographer, Strype, writes 'that his great skill in antiquity reached to ecclesiastical matters as well as historical. In order to pursue these aims, he procured a printed order of the Privy Council to borrow all the ancient MSS. and Records belonging to the dissolved monasteries that were in private hands. For this he employed agents, and among them we hear of one Stephen Bateman, who states that by the archbishop's commission he gathered, within four years, of divinity, astronomy, history, physic, and others of sundry sorts and sources, 6,700 books.' "—S. W. Kershaw, *Archbishop Parker, collector and author* (*Library, new series, v.* 1, 1900).—"Like Oxford, Cambridge possesses a large number of college libraries, some of them of great interest. The University Library obtains books under the Copyright Act, and has many special collections. . . . A collection which is well worth examining is the FitzWilliam Museum. Magdalene College, containing Library of Samuel Pepys, Peterhouse College Library, Queen's College, and Trinity Hall Library, which contains a chained collection."—J. D. Brown, *British library itinerary* (*Library World, Dec.,* 1912).—The library of Manchester university has a number of special collections such as those included in the Christie, Freeman, Jevons, and Arnold libraries, which have been secured by the university.

King's Library.—Foundation of library of British Museum.—"No monarch of England is known to have been an extensive collector of books (in the modern acceptation of the term) except George III., or, if the name of Charles I. should be added, it must be in a secondary rank. . . . A royal library had, indeed, been established in the reign of Henry VII., it was increased, as noticed by Walpole, by many presents from abroad, made to our monarchs after the restoration of learning and the invention of printing; and naturally received accessions in every subsequent reign. . . . There were also added to it the entire libraries of Lord Lumley (including those of Henry, Earl of Arundel, and Archbishop Cranmer), of the celebrated Casaubon, of Sir John Morris, and the Oriental MSS. of Sir Thomas Roe. Whilst this collection remained at St. James's Palace, the number of books amassed in each reign could have been easily distinguished, as they were classed and arranged under the names of the respective sovereigns. In 1759 King George II. transferred the whole, by letters patent, to the then newly-formed establishment of the British Museum; the arrangement under reigns was some time after departed from, and the several royal collections interspersed with the other books obtained from Sir Hans Sloane, Major Edwards, and various other sources. . . . George III., on his accession to the crown, thus found the apartments which had formerly contained the library of the Kings of England vacated by their ancient tenants. . . . Sir F. A.

Barnard states that 'to create an establishment so necessary and important, and to attach it to the royal residence, was one of the earliest objects which engaged his majesty's attention at the commencement of his reign,' and he adds that the library of Joseph Smith, Esq., the British Consul at Venice, which was purchased in 1762, 'became the foundation of the present Royal Library.' Consul Smith's collection was . . . eminently rich in the earliest editions of the classics, and in Italian literature. . . . Early in the year 1823, it was made known to the public that King George IV. had presented the Royal Library [which had reached large proportions] to the British nation. . . . Shortly after, the Chancellor of the Exchequer stated in the House of Commons that it was his majesty's wish that the library should be placed



© Keystone View Co.

READING ROOM OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM

in the British Museum, but in a separate apartment from the Museum Library."—*Gentleman's Magazine*, 1834, *pp.* 16-22.—"In Britain, our chief public collection of literature and of science originated simply in the public spirit of private persons. . . . Long before Sloane's time . . . there had been zealous and repeated efforts to arouse the attention of the Government as well to the political importance as to the educational value of public museums. . . . Until the appeal made to Parliament by the Executors of Sir Hans Sloane, in the middle of the eighteenth century, all those efforts had uniformly failed. But Sir Hans Sloane cannot claim to be regarded, individually or very specially, as the Founder of the British Museum. . . . Strictly speaking, [however], he was not even the Founder of his own Collection, as it stood in his lifetime. The Founder of the Sloane Museum was William Courten, the last of a line of wealthy Flemish refugees, whose history, in their adopted country, is a series of romantic adventures. Parliament had previously accepted the gift of the Cottonian Library, at the hands of Sir John Cotton, third in descent from its Founder, and its acceptance of that gift had been followed by almost unbroken neglect, although the gift was a noble one. Sir John, when conversing, on one occasion, with Thomas Carte, told the historian that he had been offered £60,000 of English money, together with a carte blanche for some honorary mark of royal favour, on the part of Lewis XIV., for the Library which he afterwards settled upon the British nation. . . . Even from the mercantile point of view, the Cotton family may be said to have been larger voluntary contributors towards our eventual National Museum than was Sir Hans Sloane himself. That point of view, however, would be a very false, because very narrow, one. Whether estimated by mere money value, or by a truer standard, the third, in order of time, of the Foundation-Collections,—that of the 'Harleian Manuscripts,'—was a much less important acquisition for the Nation than was the Museum of Sloane, or the Library of Cotton; but its literary value, as all students of our history and literature know, is, nevertheless, considerable. Its first Collector, Robert Harley, the Minister of Queen Anne and the first of the Harleian Earls of Oxford, is fairly entitled to rank, after Cotton, Courten, and Sloane, among the virtual or eventual co-founders of the British Museum. Chronologically, then, Sir Robert Cotton, William Courten, Hans Sloane, and Robert Harley, rank first as Founders; so long as we estimate their relative position in accordance with the successive steps by which the British Museum was eventually organized. But there is another synchronism by which greater accuracy is attainable. Although four years had elapsed between the passing—in 1753—of 'An Act for the

purchase of the Museum or Collection of Sir Hans Sloane, and of the Harleian Collection of Manuscripts, and for providing one general repository for the better reception and more convenient use of the said Collections, and of the Cottonian Library and of the additions thereto,' and the gift—in 1757—to the Trustees of those already united Collections by King George II. of the Old Royal Library of the Kings his predecessors, yet that royal collection itself had been (in a restricted sense of the words) a Public and National possession soon after the days of the first real and central Founder of the present Museum, Sir Robert Cotton. But, despite its title, that Royal Library, also, was—in the main—the creation of subjects, not of Sovereigns or Governments. Its virtual founder was Henry, prince of Wales [son of James I]. It was acquired, out of his privy purse, as a subject, not as a Prince."—E. Edwards, *Founders of the British museum, bk. 1, ch. 1.*—See also British Museum: 1880-1916.

London libraries.—Important libraries in the provinces.—National Library of Wales.—Quite aside from the library of the British Museum, there are many important libraries in London. Among the chief of these is the London Library, a subscription library, which is interesting not only because of its great value, but because of its associations. It was founded in 1841, at the suggestion of Carlyle, for men who, like himself, needed books for reference at home. From the beginning, therefore, it has been primarily intended to meet the needs of literary workers and scholars, and is in no sense of the word a public library. The books have been carefully selected by such men as Carlyle, John Chorley, John Stuart Mill, Gladstone, Grote, Tennyson, Arthur Balfour, and the library has been greatly enriched by gifts from author members of their own works. The Library of Political Science founded in 1896 in the London School of Economics and Political Science contains municipal documents of over 300 municipalities in the British Empire, Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Holland and the United States, besides the special libraries of the Child Study Society, Royal Economic Society, World Conference Library, Frye Library of Economic Law. The library of the University of London founded in 1826 possesses the Goldsmith's library of economic literature, bought and presented to it in 1902 by the Goldsmiths' Company, one of the greatest special libraries in existence. The university also has George Grote's library of Greek and Latin classics and history. The university library is housed in the Imperial Institute which also owns an important library relating chiefly to the industry and commerce of the British Empire. The Public Record Office Library contains the historical records of England: Domesday Book, the Pipe Rolls, Rolls of Parliament, State papers, treaties are only a few of the names on the long list of documents which stir the imagination of the student of history. The Patent Office Library has a fine collection of books and periodicals relating to inventions and allied subjects. This library publishes bibliographies of text books and treatises which are invaluable. Other great libraries of London are those of the Royal Statistical Society, the Board of Trade, which publishes many documents, the Department of Overseas Trade, Royal Geographic Society; Lincoln's Inn, which dates from 1497, and is the greatest law library in London, the Inner Temple and Grey's Inn (also law), the Royal Botanical Gardens (botany), the library of the Science Museum, the Royal College of Music, the Victoria and Albert Museum, which is the largest existing collection of books on fine and applied arts.

There is no great central lending library in London. The library of the Royal College of Surgeons, and of Royal Society of Medicine are good scientific libraries. Each of the twenty-eight boroughs of which the city is composed has its own library and library administration. Outside of London, Manchester has one of the oldest and most extensive library systems in England, with 24 branches and several reading rooms. Chetham's library, long thought to be the oldest in England, is in a college for boys. The John Rylands library, founded in 1899 in memory of a philanthropic merchant by his wife, has rich collections of early printed books and eastern and western manuscripts, including the Crawford collection of manuscripts and the Althorp library. Leeds library has twenty-one branches and is the head-quarters of the Yorkshire Village Union Library. Birmingham library in 1912 had twenty-two branches, in addition to the libraries of three suburban areas. This library has one of the greatest collections of Shakespeariana known. The central municipal library in Liverpool founded in 1832 has many fine collections. It has eleven branches and pays special attention to work for children. "The Copyright Act 1911 extends to Wales the same privileges with regard to books published in the United Kingdom as are already given to the Bodleian Library, Oxford, the University Library, Cambridge, the Advocates' Library, Edinburgh, and the Library of Trinity College, Dublin."—*National Library of Wales, a short account of the library and the scheme of buildings, the foundation stones of which were laid by Their Majesties King George V. and Queen Mary, July 15, 1911, pp.* 1-4.—From the inception of the idea of the library Sir John Williams began to gather books, manuscripts, prints and drawings as a nucleus for the library, and on the appointment of a librarian he transferred his collection—the work of thirty years. It contains many old Welsh manuscripts, including the Hengwrt and Peniarth manuscripts and the Shirburn collection. The library comprises about 150,000 volumes.

Rural libraries.—"Samuel Brown, in 1817, with certain funds of which he had become possessed, purchased 200 volumes, assorted them into four sets of 50 volumes each, and placed them in the villages of Aberlady, Salton, Tyninghame, and Garvald, under the charge of honorary librarians for loan to the inhabitants of those villages in East Lothian. At the end of two years each set was exchanged for one from the other villages so that after three exchanges all the books had circulated over a total period of eight years. . . . The success of the experiment encouraged Samuel Brown to extend the system, and by 1836 he had set 47 libraries, comprising 2380 volumes, in action through the county. The funds, by means of which the system was made possible, were derived from donations and from a scheme by which the new books were first placed in the towns of Haddington, North Berwick, and Dunbar for the use of annual subscribers of 5s. . . . Coming South of the Tweed, we find that the Yorkshire Village Library was formed in 1856, under the auspices of the Yorkshire Union of Mechanics' Institutes, and was the result of an amalgamation of three circulating libraries formed a few years earlier [1837] in that area of England. At first it was difficult to find readers; but by 1898 it was difficult to provide the readers with books; two hundred villages were supplied with books, and at least 100,000 readers were reached. Similar

in organization is the Library of the Lancashire and Cheshire Union which was founded slightly earlier than the Yorkshire Village Library, in 1847. . . . Of more recent foundation is the Herefordshire scheme founded in 1906 by the Bishop of Hereford. . . . Under its provisions any elementary school, and a number of the poorer parishes in the county, can obtain a box of fifty books three times a year for a subscription of £1. . . . There are also a number of very interesting stationary libraries in villages up and down the Kingdom. . . . The English Act of 1892 contains clauses allowing several parishes to combine together, or be annexed to a larger library authority, such as a borough, for library purposes. . . . In Scotland the principal Act is the one of 1887, but its powers were enlarged by the Act of 1899, under which neighbouring parishes can combine for library purposes."—A. L. Hetherington, *Rural libraries* (*Library Association Record, May* 15, 1916).

Ireland.—University and college libraries.—Popular libraries.—The library of Dublin university was founded in the early part of the seventeenth century, at the same time as the Bodleian library in England. In 1601 the English army, wishing in some permanent manner to commemorate their victory over Spanish troops at Kinsale, subscribed £1800 for the establishment of a library at the university. Many valuable gifts, as well as extensive purchases, have added to the library's collection, which now contains more than 338,884 volumes, many of them of great value. Other notable college libraries in Ireland are those of the Belfast university, of the Cork branch of the National university, and of St. Patrick's College, Maynooth. "After the passing of the public libraries of Ireland Act in 1902, an effort was made to erect rural libraries. Thanks to Mr. Carnegie's generosity they are now widely distributed throughout the country. In 1911 there were forty-six Carnegie libraries in Ireland, the number of volumes in circulation was 266,727, and the annual expenditure was £22,603. . . . As a rule grants were made for the building and its furnishing, and only in a few cases were they given for books. It had been the practice to require that local authorities shall provide the site free of charge, and it was also required that plans of the building should be submitted with estimates of cost. Since 1911 a considerable number of libraries have been erected. . . . In 1915 . . . the Assistant Librarian of the Co-operative Reference Library in Dublin . . . [made] a complete and careful investigation of the libraries in Kerry and Limerick. They were under local control, the conditions being laid down 'that when grants from the Carnegie fund are made the authorities of the district shall adopt the library acts and impose a penny rate in the pound.' . . . A central library was made a distributing agency for a fairly large area, circulating books among the branch libraries and schools. The central library was generally efficiently worked, but the branch libraries, which were administered by local committees, were in an extremely unsatisfactory condition. . . . There was generally only a small stack of books on the shelves, so the borrowers gradually dwindled in numbers, and, in a few cases, the libraries were closed altogether. On inquiry this was accounted for by the fact that the people did not get the books they wanted. . . . They had no one to tell them what was to be found in the books on the library shelves. Under the circumstances the Carnegie trustees decided to appoint an Organising Librarian in these districts. He took up his duties at the end of May, 1915, and in little more than six months time there was an amazing change for the better in the library administration in Limerick and Kerry. . . . Other areas in the south of Ireland made overtures to the Trust to obtain the same beneficial administration. . . . A scheme has been divised for sending books to the schools, the teachers distributing them among the children."—G. D. Cummins, *Evolution of the rural library in Ireland* (*Library, Apr.*, 1917).

Scotland.—Libraries in Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Glasgow.—Itinerating libraries.—Coats' libraries.—"Most of the Scotch libraries are organised on old-fashioned lines, but nevertheless, a good deal is to be seen in them. Edinburgh (320,315), like London, Oxford, and Cambridge, is full of libraries. . . . A very important library is the Advocates' Library [in Edinburgh] founded in 1682. It contains about half a million volumes and is entitled to receive a copy of everything published in the United Kingdom under the provisions of the Copyright Acts. . . . Aberdeen Public Library [is] situated in a fine building near the Art Gallery. A special indicator is used for the lending department, which also performs the functions of a catalogue. The children's reading room has open access. There are some fine collections, local and other. There are [also] two fine University Libraries [in the city], King's College, in old Aberdeen, and Marischal College."—J. D. Brown, *British library itinerary* (*Library World, Nov.*, 1912).—"The lending and reference libraries of the city of Glasgow had their origin in a bequest [in 1877] of the late Mr. Stephen Mitchell, for the establishment and endowment of a large public library in Glasgow. To-day, under the administration of the Corporation, the city is in this way thoroughly well equipped. The Mitchell Library is a reference library, containing about 250,000 volumes, and in extent, variety, and value takes rank with the chief reference libraries in the kingdom. There are twenty district lending libraries and reading-rooms established throughout the city. . . . The Stirling's Library, which . . . [has been] taken over by the Corporation, contains, for reference, the publications issued by the Patents Office. The Commercial Library, . . . is easily accessible to all persons engaged in commercial pursuits."—J. Lindsay, *Municipal history and activities* (*Scottish Geographical Magazine*, 1921).—The university library has a valuable collection of about a quarter of a million books and manuscripts.

"In the year 1817, a system of what was called 'itinerating libraries' was begun in East Lothian, Scotland—the object being to furnish the towns and villages of the county with libraries of useful books. Each library was to consist of 50 volumes, and was to be moved about from one town or village to another, and a new division sent in its place. . . . At first, all the libraries were entirely gratuitous. Subsequently, a plan was adopted of keeping the new books for the use of persons giving a small subscription, which amounted to about a penny a volume. . . . [In August, 1826, a society was established in] Edinburgh, for the purpose of establishing a [subscription] society for the promotion of itinerating libraries. . . . [About ten of these libraries were established; but the effort was a failure, and seems to have come to an end about 1834.]"—*Early traveling libraries* (*Library Journal, May*, 1899, *p.* 206.—The Coats Libraries in rural districts in Scotland, chiefly in the Highlands and Islands [has been more enduring]. So far as I have been able to ascertain, there are [1915] 150 of the Coats Libraries in the Islands, viz., 59 in Shetland and Orkney, 33 in Lewis and

Harris, 21 in Skye, and 37 scattered over the remaining Islands. There are on the mainland 186 libraries. . . . These libraries are placed, almost without exception, in small remote villages, and consist as a rule of a collection of usually about 300 to 600 volumes, presented by the late Mr. Coats of Ferguslie, Paisley, on condition that the library was housed free of cost and open free of charge to the public. . . . Several places have added fresh books to their libraries at their own charge by means of funds raised locally."—W. G. S. Adams, *Report on library provision and policy, pp.* 17-18.

British war libraries.—A British war libraries scheme was launched, by Mrs. H. M. Gaskell, immediately after the World War was declared. Lady Battersea lent Surrey House for the work. Lord Haldane, then War Minister, approved the plan officially, and the head of the R. A. M. C., Royal Army Medical corps gave official sanction. "The Admiralty asked whether the new organization would be willing to supply the Navy, the sound men as well as the sick. . . . [Response to appeals for books came at once.] Not only parcels and boxes, but vanloads of books were delivered to Surrey House. . . . Dr. C. Hagberg Wright of the London Library was appealed to and when he . . . [saw the multitude of over a million well-selected books, he decided to call upon his assistants. The work proceeded rapidly]. The permanent hospitals were supplied with a library before the wounded arrived, and as the war area expanded the War Library followed with literature. Advertisements were inserted in American and Canadian newspapers with the result that many publishers sent most acceptable gifts from across the water. Later, large consignments of literature came from South Africa, Australia, Madeira, the Canary Islands and New Zealand. English publishers were more than generous. One publisher sent 600 beautifully printed copies of six of the best novels in the English language. . . . In November, 1914, the Admiralty asked the War Library organization to supply the sailors in the North Sea Fleet at the rate of a book a man. Not only was this done, but boxes of books were sent to all the guards around the coasts of the British Isles, the Shetland and Orkney Isles, and the West Coast of Ireland. . . . Then the Red Cross and Order of St. John was asked to affiliate the War Library scheme with its organization. In October, 1915, it was not only agreed to do this, but became financially responsible for the undertaking, the promoters of the latter promising in return to supply the literature that they and their hospitals required."—W. Koch, *Books in camp, trench and hospital* (*Library Journal, July,* 1917).—Not only were the hospitals supplied; but books were sent to training and rest camps, and even into the trenches.

France

Bibliothèque Nationale.—The Mazarin.—Other important libraries in Paris.—"The first solid foundations for a National Library were laid at the same period in France and England, the end of the fifteenth century, under Charles VIII. and Henry VII., respectively, who both collected books for their private pleasure. . . . Louis XII., the successor of Charles VIII., added to his father's collection the library gathered by the Dukes of Milan, at Para. Under Francis I., and his successors of the cultured House of Valois, no pains were spared in making additions, more especially of classical MSS., to the royal collections, and a regular librarian, the 'Master of the King's Library,' was appointed. During the seventeenth century, . . . the Golden Age of French literature, the library received enormous accessions under the fostering care of Colbert. . . . Every species of machinery was by him set in motion to obtain rare books and MSS. He sent local scholars, and often too the Ambassadors of France received instructions to co-operate. Thus Dom Mabillon, during his travels in Italy, obtained 4,000 books, and D'Avaux, Minister at the Court of Charles II., enriched the library with treasures of English literature and spoils from the hoards of English collectors. All through the eighteenth century these varied efforts were kept up—as an instance may be taken the labours of the Abbé Sevin, who in two years, amassed in Constantinople, over 600 Oriental MSS. These official exertions, as might naturally be supposed, were largely aided by private munificence, and a constant stream of donations and bequests poured in. These were by no means of the nature of private gifts to the Sovereign, for already under the Valois Kings the Royal Library had become accessible to scholars. . . . Another source of gain to a National Library, the deposit of copies for legal purposes, began . . . under Henry II., in 1556, and was kept up ever after with more or less regularity. . . . The enormous additions made to the French Library by revolutionary confiscation; . . . the libraries of the religious communities, and of the fugitive nobles, formed a mass of books of which the exact number can never be known, but which must be counted by millions, and the greater part of them were absorbed by the Bibliothèque Nationale."—*Library, v.* 10, *pp.* 37-39.—"The history of the vast collection of books which is now, after many wanderings, definitely located in the Rue de Richelieu, divides itself naturally into three periods, which, for the sake of convenience, may well be called by three of the names under which the Library has, at different times, been known. The first period is that in which the Library was nothing more than the private collection of each successive sovereign of France, which sometimes accompanied him in his journeys, and but too often, as in the case of King John, or that of Charles VII, shared in his misfortunes; it was then fitly called the 'Bibliothèque du Roi.' This period may be considered as ending in the time of Henry IV, who transferred the royal collection from Fontainebleau to Paris, and gave it a temporary home in the Collège de Clermont. Although its abode has often been changed since, it has never again been attached to a royal palace, or been removed from the capital. The second period dates from this act of Henry the Fourth's, and extends down to the Revolution of 1789, during which time the Library, although open with but slight restrictions to all men of letters who were well recommended, and to the general public for two days a week, from the year 1692, was not regarded as national property, but as an appendage of the Crown, which was indeed graciously opened to the learned, but was only national property in the same sense that the Queen's private library at Windsor is national property. Although still called the Bibliothèque du Roi during this period, it may well be here spoken of, for the sake of distinction, as the Bibliothèque Royale down to the Revolution. In 1791, the King's library was proclaimed national property, and it was decreed that it should henceforth be called 'Bibliothèque Nationale,' which name it bore till the coronation of Napoleon as Emperor of the French, in 1805, when it was styled 'Bibliothèque Impériale.' Of course it was Bibliothèque Royale again in 1815, 'Nationale' in 1848, and once again,

in 1852, was declared to be the 'Bibliothèque Impériale.' "—*Imperial library of Paris* (*Westminster Review, Apr.,* 1870).—After the fall of the Second Empire, the great library again became "Nationale" in name. According to a report made in the spring of 1894, the Bibliothèque Nationale of France contained, at the end of the previous year, 1,934,154 "'numbers,' forming at least 2,600,000 volumes." This report was made by a committee of twenty persons, appointed to consider the advisability and method of printing the catalogue of the library. The conclusions of the committee are favorable to the printing of the catalogue.—*Nation, May* 17, 1894.—Books come to the National Library "in three ways: from (1) gifts, about 3,000 a year; . . . (2) purchase, 4,500 (the library has $20,000 a year to spend on books and binding); (3) copyright, 22,000 articles and 6,000 pieces of music. The printer, not the publisher, is bound to make the deposit, so that if the text and the illustrations are printed at different places there is a chance, unless every one is careful, that the library will have an imperfect copy. But the greatest trouble comes from periodicals, of which the Bibliothèque Nationale receives 3,000. What would some of our librarians think of this who are inclined to boast or to lament that they receive 300? Every number of every newspaper in France must be received, sent for if it fails to come, registered, put on its pile, and at the end of the year tied up in a bundle and put away (for only the most important are bound). . . . The titles of new books are printed in a bulletin in two series, French and Foreign (causing a printer's bill of 5,000 francs a year). This began in 1875 for the foreign, and in 1882 for the French. These bulletins are cut up and the titles mounted on slips, which are fastened in a Leyden binder, three making a small folio page. The result is a series of 900 volumes, less easy to consult than a good card catalog, very much less easy than the British Museum pasted catalog, the Rudolph books, or the Rudolph machine."—C. A. Cutter, *Notes on the Bibliothèque Nationale* (*Library Journal, June,* 1894).—The library in 1920 numbered more than 4,000,000 books, 500,000 maps, 110,000 manuscripts, and 1,000,000 prints. This library and the library of the British Museum are the largest in the world. The Mazarin library was founded in the seventeenth century by Cardinal Mazarin, who employed Gabriel Naudé as librarian, and commissioned him to enlarge his collection. "The famous three hundred and fifty folio volumes of manuscripts of Loménie de Brienne, . . . made a wonderful foundation for the manuscript collection, while the purchase of the library of the bibliophile, Canon Descordes, provided six thousand well chosen printed books, largely on history and theology, already catalogued by Naudé. . . . [At the end of October, 1643, the moving to the newly purchased Hôtel Tubeuf . . . was completed, and] twelve thousand printed volumes and four hundred manuscripts were ready for use. The doors were thrown open, and on every Thursday, from eight till eleven and from two until five the people were admitted freely to this the first public library in France. 'It shall be open to all the world without excluding a living human soul,' is Naudé's cry. The only earlier public libraries in Europe were the Bodleian at Oxford, opened in 1603, the Angélique at Rome (1604), and the Ambrosian at Milan (1609). The collection grew rapidly, and the resources of Paris being exhausted, Mazarin despatched Naudé on his famous journeys through France, to Italy, —where the shops, according to Rossi, seemed devastated after he had passed as though by a whirlwind,—to Germany, and to England. . . . Before very long the number of volumes was increased to forty thousand. . . . But the troubles of the Fronde began. Mazarin was forced to leave Paris, Parliament seized his possession, and . . . ordered the sale of the library. . . . Naudé realized that he must yield to the inevitable, he went about saving what he could from the disaster, buying the books on medicine himself, though he could ill afford to do so. . . . By his will the medical books which Naudé had bought at the sale of the collection were returned to Cardinal Mazarin, who purchased the rest of Naudé's library, so that nearly all his books are now in the Mazarin Library. . . . When it was known that the work of reconstruction had begun, Queen Christina returned all the manuscripts which she had bought, and others followed her example. In 1660 a large proportion of the losses had been recovered. The following year saw the death of the Cardinal, whose will provided for the founding of the *Collège de Quatre Nations* (commonly known by Mazarin's name), to which the library should be attached. . . . The library was under the direction of the Sorbonne from 1688 to 1791; but since the Revolution it has been controlled by the State."—G. Naudé, *Cardinal Mazarin's library* (*Literature of libraries in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, v. 6, pp.* 24-30, 34-36).—The Arsenal Library where the archives of the Bastille are preserved, has almost a complete series of plays, and a collection of newspapers, which is not equalled by the Bibliothèque Nationale. At the library of Saint Geneviève there is a remarkable collection of works from the Aldine, Manutius and Elzevir presses, and also most of the *publications periodiques* of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Other very important libraries in Paris are those of the Sorbonne, the Institut, the *Collège de France,* the University of Paris, *l'École Normale Superieure,* the library de *l'École des Chartres* and the library of the Louvre. In addition there is a very large number of special libraries devoted to the literature of art, agriculture, charity, commerce, industry, law, legislation, manufactures, medicine, philosophy and religion, as well as the libraries of the departments of state. In all, including the popular municipal libraries, there is in the city a total of 196 libraries.

Paris municipal popular libraries.—Libraries outside of Paris.—"The Bibliothèques Municipales de Paris have undergone a rapid development. . . . In 1878 there were only nine altogether, of which five were little used, and four practically unused. A special Bureau was then appointed by the Municipal Council to take charge of them with the result that altogether 22 libraries . . . [were opened by 1884. An annual sum] is placed at the disposal of each library by the Municipal Council [which is appropriated for the salaries of the librarian and attendant, for books and binding]. . . . For the year of 1884 the sum of 171,700 fr. [was] . . . voted, the increase being intended to provide for the establishment of fifteen new libraries in Communal Schools, as well as for the growing requirements of some of the libraries already established. . . . The libraries are open to the public gratuitously every evening from 8 to 10 o'clock, and are closed on five days only during the whole year. Books may be read in the library or are lent out for home use. . . . Music is lent as well as books, the experiment having been first tried at the Mairie of the second arrondissement, in 1879. . . . Beside these libraries under the direction of the Mairies, there are a certain number of popular free libraries established and supported by voluntary efforts, all of which have been formed

since 1860."—E. C. Thomas, *Popular libraries of Paris* (*Library Chronicle, v.* 1, 1884, *pp.* 13-14).—All the provincial cities of France possess large libraries which owe their origin to monastic collections and private liberality. Noteworthy among these are those at Lyons (1527), Aix (1705), Bordeaux (1738), and Rouen (1809). Other libraries are found in connection with educational institutions, municipal organizations, and other bodies. Tassy and Leris, in *Les Ressources du Travail Intellectuel en France* list about 325 libraries of over 2,000 volumes in existence outside of Paris, after the World War. Some of the ancient local libraries are quite large. For instance, the library of San Mihiel, which was found empty after the retreat of the Germans in 1918, had contained 16,000 volumes. Of these about a fourth were recovered; but the library and municipal archives at Arras were completely destroyed.

Training of librarians.—"There is no systematic training for librarians in France except for appointments to the staff of the Bibliothèque Nationale or for University librarians. The majority of librarians are appointed from among the pupils of *L'École des Chartres* who hold the *diplôme d'archiviste-paléographe,* as their practical knowledge of manuscripts and documents, and of paleography, classification and bibliography, specially fits them for such positions. Courses of instruction in the above named subjects are given at *L'École des Chartres,* and the practical knowledge is gained by the daily handling of the great historical collections there. These courses are also supplemented with practical work at the Bibliothèque Nationale or the St. Geneviève Library; and since 1893 there has been a course of lessons in bibliography given at the Sorbonne. Before an appointment is made to the staff of a library a professional examination must be passed, and the candidate must have served voluntarily as a beginner (*stagiaire*) in a library for at least one year. For appointments in the Bibliothèque Nationale a special examination has been instituted, somewhat like that for appointments in the British Museum. The first professional examination for University librarians took place on the 27th October, 1879, at the Bibliothèque de l'Arsenal. There was no fixed age limit then, but since 1882 a rule has been in force that candidates must be between the ages of 21 and 35. The knowledge required covers a very wide field."—A. C. Piper, *Training for librarians in France* (*Library World, May,* 1910).

Germany

University and state libraries.—Town and popular libraries.—In the fourteenth century the first great university libraries in Germany were established, Prague (1348), Heidelberg (1386), Leipzig (1409). State and University libraries have long been under government control, and have much in common. They are both open to the public, and no longer restricted to professors and students. The Royal library in Berlin was founded by Frederick William and opened to the public in 1661. It is still the largest of the many excellent libraries in Berlin. Chief among municipal libraries are those of Berlin, Munich, and Dresden. Free popular libraries were slow to spread in Germany. "In the *Börsenblatt* for December 5, 1898, appeared an article by Dr. A. Gräsel, making a strong plea for the establishment of public libraries in the smaller cities of Germany, to be managed according to English and American methods. . . . The beginnings of public libraries in Germany are cited as follows: The German Society of Ethical Culture has established libraries in Berlin, Freiburg, and Frankfort. In Jena this society worked hand in hand with the Comenius Society, and funds are promised for libraries in other cities . . . [written in 1899]. In Dresden the Association *Volkswohl* opened reading-rooms in its building, and reading-rooms were also opened at Mainz through the generosity of a private citizen. In Düsseldorf a citizen gave 15,000 marks ($3750) for the opening of a reading-room. . . . [The German free library, at this time, was] intended only for the very poor, and filled with heterogeneous volumes given from charitable impulse."—*Free public libraries in Germany* (*Library Journal, Feb.,* 1899, *p.* 64).—"The German *Volks bibliothek* is not the same as an English Public Library. . . . 'Too often it still means a very small collection of books, probably gifts which are accessible to borrowers at certain hours each week. As a rule, the revenue is so trifling that after paying the small working costs there is little or nothing left for buying books.' Taking, therefore, the term Public Library for the sake of convenience, we may assume that the first Public Library in Germany was opened in Hamburg, in 1529, as the result of Luther's recommendation (1524) 'that good libraries, especially in the large towns, should be established.' At the beginning of the 18th century, a number of free libraries were established, these were usually connected with churches and schools, yet their very name 'free' seemed an invitation to everyone to share the treasures they contained. These libraries were principally in central Germany and Saxony. . . . The first of the modern free libraries was opened in 1828, at Grossenhain. At first known as a School Library, the name was changed to 'Town Library,' five years later. The library was open only on Sunday afternoons, yet there was an annual issue of 1,000 books for home reading. In 1828 the Saxon Economic Association, . . . established small village libraries with books on agriculture. To the general surprise, the success of this experiment was great, and it was found necessary not only to increase the supply of books, but to provide books a knowledge of the existence of which had never been suspected in the peasants. In the forties . . . many Societies for the dissemination of good literature came into existence. In 1841 Prof. Von Raumer, while travelling in the United States, . . . [learned the value, to general education, of public libraries]. On his return to Berlin, Prof. Von Raumer and his colleagues formed a society whose object was the provision of Science lectures and Public Libraries . . . [Funds were raised by a series of lectures given by the professors, and] in addition to the contribution of the association, the city made a small grant in aid. At first there were no reading rooms, but . . . [after 1895 twelve municipal reading rooms were provided]. As late as 1896 the hours of opening were only two hours a day, three times a week, yet in spite of this absurd limitation the movement has gone ahead. In 1907 the number of libraries had increased from four to twenty-eight. . . . With the exception of Berlin, Frankfurt-a-M. was more fortunate than any other large town prior to the seventies, as she possessed, either through the agency of societies of private munificence, Public Libraries of one kind or another. Even . . . [at the end of last century] the large towns of Germany were so miserably provided with free libraries of any kind that twenty-eight towns with an aggregate population of 7,294,000, had only 401,655 vols. among them. This unfavourable state of things does not apply to villages, for . . . most of the villages in Saxony and Würtemburg had their

Volks bibliothek, towards which the State made a grant. Numerous as these *Volks bibliotheken* were, however, the conditions governing them were not so liberal as to allow them all to be classed as free libraries accessible to the general public. The Saxon government wisely decided to leave the maintenance and administration of each library in the hands of the local authority, at the same time expressing a readiness to make grants in aid on condition that the money was spent on books selected from the Official Best Books Catalogue. In Würtemberg the villages at this time were also well provided with libraries, but the towns were just as badly off. In 1870 there were 586 libraries, with 59,000 vols.; in 1890 they had increased to 1213, with 261,000 vols. . . . The condition of some other States was truly lamentable. Mecklenburg, for instance, had only two small *Volks bibliotheken,* and even the university town of Rostock had to depend upon the unaided efforts of women for its library. Bavaria and Alsace-Lorraine were about as bad as Mecklenburg, whilst Prussia stood about midway between Saxony and Mecklenburg. True, its progress seemed due more to the fear of than love for the people, for in 1893 the Ministry of the Interior recommends the establishment of libraries as a means of combating Social Democracy. In 1899 the State grant, amounting to M. 50,000, was made—not a large sum for the whole State when compared with the grant of over a million marks to the University Library and Royal Library of Berlin. During the nineties successful efforts were made, notably by the Society for the Spread of Popular Education, to promote village libraries and travelling libraries, . . . [but] it may be doubted whether their existence has not had the effect of retarding the adoption of a true 'free' library system. . . . The town libraries were not all free Public Libraries in the proper sense. . . . They have been run too much on the lines of the national research libraries. . . . The modern Public Library movement, based on the English and American systems, may be said to date from the nineties, and even from the principles advocated by Dr. Nörrenberg and Prof. Reyer in 1899. The following are the principal results: Charlottenburg (1898), Elberfeld (1902), Osnabrück (1902), and the . . . re-organization of the Berlin and Breslau libraries. Associations and large employers of labour . . . established libraries in Hamburg (1899), Bremen (1902), Jena (1896), Essen (1899), Dortmund (1905), and other places."—T. E. Maw, *German public libraries* (*Library World, Apr.,* 1909).—"The credit of having first brought together a collection of books which met the higher demands of a public library belongs to Dr. Ernst Jeep, who in 1897-1898, organized the Municipal public library (Städtische Volksbibliothek) in Charlottenburg near Berlin. [Here American methods seem for the first time to have been grasped.] When his catalog was published the greatest and hardest step on the way to the library of the future was taken, and all subsequent reorganizations (as in Berlin) or new institutions could build upon this basis. Such new foundations have followed since in goodly number, but what makes a fundamental contrast between America and Germany is the difference, historical in origin and now deeply rooted, between city library (*Stadtbibliothek*) and popular library (*Volksbibliothek*). . . . Only such cities as formerly had no municipal library have established . . . a union public library. . . . The German system has, however, this advantage: that you will find in every city which has a *Stadtbibliothek,* more serious literature than if, for an equal expenditure, the town had a union library. In consequence of this system, there are, relatively, many scholarly centers in Germany."—C. Nörrenberg, *Libraries in Germany* (*Public Libraries, Oct.,* 1904).

Training of librarians.—"About 1861, Friedrich Ritschl, the well-known scholar of Bonn University, organized the library of that university to a high degree of efficiency, and used it as a training school for intending librarians. . . . In 1866, Dziatzko was appointed librarian to Göttingen University, and shortly afterwards the German Government decided to add the subjects of Library Economy and Bibliography to the curriculum of the university. . . . All candidates are expected to have completed the ordinary university course. This is definitely stated in an act passed in 1893 detailing the qualifications for librarians in the Royal Library of Berlin and the university libraries. . . . The advance of women into the field of librarianship has made it necessary to establish two schools in Berlin for the training of women as librarians. The first was opened in February, 1900 . . . and is open to all girls over sixteen years of age, who possess the leaving certificate from a High School. . . . Two years after . . . another was founded by Herr Wolfsteig. The age for admission to this school is nineteen."—A. C. Piper, *Training for librarians in Germany* (*Library World, Nov.,* 1909).

War libraries.—"A war-time innovation in the library work in Germany is the organization of traveling libraries for the various Army Corps. A library . . . [consisted] of 1500 to 2000 volumes, fitted up compactly on shelves in its own car, equipped and sent out from the Royal Library in Berlin. It had its own catalog, but each division to which a library [was] sent provided its own librarians and was responsible for the care of the books."—*Library Journal, Oct.,* 1916, *pp.* 785, 788.

India

Imperial library.—Patna library.—Free libraries in Baroda and Lahore.—Libraries in India are not a new thing. There are many collections of books throughout the country; but the great majority are in private ownership, in temples, the property of societies, of native princes and of the legislatures. Probably the largest collection of books is that in the Imperial Library at Calcutta. In Calcutta also the Royal Asiatic Society has a good collection, equalled perhaps by the collection of the same society in Bombay. " 'The Patna Oriental Public Library,' is one of the finest collections of Moslem literature in the world. It is lodged for ever, in so far as a man's wishes can shape the future, in . . . Patna, the city of Asoka. . . . [The collection was begun by Mohamed Baksh, and carried on by his son Khuda Baksh, who had the cities of the east ransacked for treasures.] In truth there is nothing in the world to surpass the exquisite caligraphy, the enamelled gold, the priceless miniatures, the colours of *lapis-lazuli* and vermilion, of indigo and scarlet, green, purple, cinnabar, and saffron, of some of these illuminated pages."—V. C. S. O'Connor, *Eastern library, pp.* 1-3.—The cataloguing which was begun in 1904 had not been finished in 1920. No general effort has been made throughout India to introduce free libraries; but an example has been set by the Maharajah of the native state of Baroda. In 1892 this enlightened ruler established a central library in one of the royal palaces; placed an American librarian in charge, and opened branches throughout his dominions. All these

libraries are free and self-supported. Indore also has a free library system.

Italy

Laurentian and Vatican libraries.—Government, university and popular libraries.—Italy, once the center of world civilization, contains the oldest existing libraries in Europe. The oldest of these is the Laurentian Library, at Florence, founded by the bequest of Nicoli (1437), of his own collection of 800 manuscripts. In 1441 a building was erected for it by Cosimo de' Medici, and its present name, Laurentian Library was given to it by Lorenzo de' Medici. When the Medici were driven out at the close of the fifteenth century, the collection was owned by a monastery. Leo X bought it later, and Cardinal Siulio de' Medici, in 1521, restored it to the city and placed it in a building built by Michaelangelo. In the library of the Vatican "not a book is to be seen—not a shelf is visible, and there is nothing to inform the visitor that he is in the most famous library in the world. . . . The eye is bewildered by innumerable busts, statues, and columns. The walls are gay with brilliant arabesques, and the visitor passes through lofty corridors and along splendid galleries, finding in every direction something to please and interest him. . . . The printed books number about 125,000 volumes and there are about 25,000 manuscripts. The books and manuscripts are enclosed in low wooden cases around the walls of the various apartments, the cases are painted in white and gold colors, and thus harmonize with the gay appearance of the walls and ceilings. . . . The honor of founding the Vatican Library belongs to Pope Nicholas V., who, in 1447, transferred to the Palace of the Vatican the manuscripts which had been collected in the Lateran. At his death the library contained 9,000 manuscripts, but many of them were dispersed under his successor, Calixtus III. Sixtus IV. was very active in restoring and increasing the library. In 1588, the present library building was erected by Sixtus V., to receive the immense collection obtained by Leo X. In the year 1600 the value of the library was greatly augmented by the acquisition of the collection of Fulvius Ursinus and the valuable manuscripts from the Benedictine Monastery of Bobbio, composed chiefly of palimpsests. . . . The next acquisition was the Library of the Elector Palatine, captured in 1621, at Heidelberg, by De Tilley, who presented it to Gregory XV. It numbered 2,388 manuscripts, 1,956 in Latin, and 432 in Greek. In 1658 the Library

© Underwood & Underwood

CORRIDOR OF THE VATICAN LIBRARY

founded by Duke Federigo de Urbino—1,711 Greek and Latin manuscripts—was added to the valuable collection. One of the most valuable accessions was the collection of Queen Christina of Sweden, containing all the literary works which her father, Gustavus Adolphus, had captured at Prague, Bremen, etc., amounting to 2,291 manuscripts, Greek and Latin. In 1746 the magnificent library of the Ottobuoni family, containing 3,862 Greek and Latin manuscripts, enriched the Vatican collection. After the downfall of Napoleon and the restoration of the peace of Europe in 1815, the King of Prussia, at the suggestion of Humboldt, applied to Pope Pius VII. for the restoration of some of the manuscripts which De Tilley had plundered from the Heidelberg Library. The Pope, mindful of the prominent part taken by Prussia in the restoration of the Papal See, immediately complied with the royal request, and many manuscripts of great value to the German historians were sent back to Germany."—E. L. Didier, *Vatican Library* (*Literary World, June* 28, 1884).—The "Bibliographical and Historical Miscellanies" of the Philobiblon Society published in 1854, give an interesting account of Italian libraries at that date. "Not only does every principal town in Italy contain one, and frequently several public libraries, but manuscripts of the greatest interest, and magnificent copies of early printed books are to be found in the ancient collections of the monasteries in every part of the country. . . . Not only are the most superb old books to be found in Italy, but the rooms which contain them are often remarkable for their antiquity and the beauty of their architectural decorations. Two of the most beautiful rooms in existence are the hall of the library of the Vatican, and the library of the cathedral of Sienna; while in the ancient library of the Malatestas, at Cesena, the Laurentian library at Florence, and some others where the books are chained down to the desks, and not kept in modern book-cases, we may see libraries of the 15th and 16th centuries still existing in their primitive forms and arrangements. . . . [There is a fine collection of manuscripts in the Royal library at Naples. La Cava, near Salerno] is mostly famous as the depository of the ancient records of the south of Italy. There are about 30,000 rolls and diplomas arranged in drawers round the walls of two good fixed rooms. They begin about the year 700 A. D. . . . The superb Benedictine monastery of Monte Casino, is situated about half way between Rome and Naples. . . . The MSS. amount to 800 volumes, mostly of the 11th and 12th century. There are several curious chronicles, and books of the Lombardic laws, as well as classics among them; with some poems of the middle ages. . . . Besides the books, there is a wonderful collection, in three rooms, of charters and records; . . . many of great antiquity, some written in Greek, some in Latin but with Greek letters, and most interesting with respect to the history of Apulia, Calabria and Naples. . . . The ancient library of the Popes, preserved in the palace of the Vatican, at Rome, contains about 100 thousand printed books. The manuscripts amount to about 36,000 in number, but many volumes have several MSS. bound up together. . . . The Hebrew MSS. are very fine. They amount to about 700 vols. The Syriac, 458 vols. are mostly of great antiquity; they are damaged from having been upset in the Nile, on their way from the monasteries of the nation lakes, from whence they were brought by the famous Asseman. . . . The Coptic are extraordinarily fine MSS. of remote antiquity. . . . In another room, richly decorated, are about thirty Latin Edicts on Papyrus, with dates and signatures, mostly from Ravenna, of the 6th and 7th centuries. . . . The Library at the top of the Barbarini Palace contains 40,000 volumes, of which 7,000 are MSS. contained in a separate room; of these 600 are Greek, and 1,000 on vellum: the early printed books also fill another room. . . . The Laurentian Library, Florence, contains 10,000 MSS. It is not a very remarkably fine collection. The books are mostly of the 15th century; a great many are folios, but the greater part on paper. The most precious volume is the famous Medici Virgil, viz. Virgilius, 8vo., written in one column, in fine uncial letters, about the year 494. . . . The Library of St. Mark, at Venice, contains 10,000 MSS., of which above 1,000 are on vellum. Many fine Greek folios on vellum, were bequeathed to the library by Cardinal Bessarion of Trebizond. . . . The Public Library at Sienna . . . contains a large collection of printed books, which, however strange it may appear for a public library, are much read and frequented by the students of Sienna. The finest printed books which it possesses is a splendid copy of the Landino Dante, of 1481, which contains eighteen engravings, illustrating the Inferno. . . . Many of the manuscripts which . . . [the Ambrosian library at Milan] contains were taken from the ancient monastery of Bobbio. This monastery was founded by Scotch and Irish monks in the seventh century, when England was in a state of supreme barbarity. The early Gaelic and Irish manuscripts which they brought with them at that early period, are among the most remarkable of any existing remains of British literature."—R. Curzon, *Short account of some of the most celebrated libraries of Italy* (*Philobiblon Society, Miscellanies, v.* 1, *pp.* 3-4, 13-16, 35, 41, 48-49, 52-53, 57-59).—Among famous Italian collections are those in the government libraries under the authority of the minister of public instruction. They include the national central libraries of Rome and Florence, national libraries of Milan, Naples, Palermo, Turin, which was badly injured by fire in 1904, and a large number of irreplaceable books and manuscripts burned, and Venice, and the government libraries of some thirty and more cities. Famous libraries are the Ambrosian Library at Milan (1602), and the Vittorio Emanuele at Rome. There are many fine university libraries, also under government control. Of these, the most notable include those of Bologna, Naples, Padua, Genoa, Catania, Pavia, Cagliari and Sassari. Messina, destroyed by the earthquake of 1908, was in 1910 already largely restored. There is at present a growing sentiment in Italy in favor of public circulating libraries resembling those of the United States.

Japan

Imperial library.—Osaka and Ohashi libraries.—"In 1872, the Tokyo library was established by the Bureau of museums in the department of education. This is the origin of the present Imperial library. But the earliest library opened to the public was the Shusho-in established in Kyoto the following year."—Government Report, *Libraries in Japan* (*Public Libraries, Oct.*, 1904).—"The Imperial Library was established in April, 1897, when the Tokyo Library was merged into the new institution, and its development has been effectively taken up by the government. The new library was created in accordance with a memorial presented by the Imperial Diet. . . . Since June, 1897, the library has been open in the evenings, and the attendance has greatly increased in consequence."—*Japanese libraries* (*Library Journal,*

Sept., 1899).—"In 1899, was issued the law concerning libraries, which granted to any body public and private the right of establishing a library at any place throughout the country. . . . The chief and clerks of a public library are appointed by the governor of the district, and their treatment is similar to that of instructors and clerks of hannin rank. Public libraries are allowed not only to charge fees for reading, but also to establish endowment funds and collect contributions from the people of the district. According to the statistics of 1902, the number of libraries at that date was 1 government, 20 public, and 46 private libraries. . . . Libraries are as yet very few [1904], and their influence upon general education is very limited. But the number rose from 30 in 1897 to 49 in 1901, and every year new ones are started by private people as well as school organizations, from the Ken down to villages. . . . The Osaka public library and Ohashi private library are among the best equipped. The former was founded by Sumitomo Kichizaemon, a millionaire living in Osaka, at the cost of 200,000 yen and was offered to Osaka-Fu, which has undertaken to provide for its maintenance. It was opened to the public at the beginning of this year [1904] and is working as an important aid to general education. [The Ohashi library was started in July, 1902. The founder who had attained success] as a publisher and bookseller, . . . spent a considerable sum in establishing this library for the benefit of the reading public of Tokyo. . . . The Imperial library, the only government library in Japan, is the most perfect in its plan and equipment. It contains 171,890 Japanese and Chinese and 45,304 European and American books, making a total of 219,194, of which the public has free access to 165,000 Japanese and Chinese and 45,000 western volumes. The number of the books of reference and of those that can be taken out is increasing year after year, and new and rare Chinese and Korean works have . . . been added to the collections. . . . Schools, whether public or private, belonging to higher education, have libraries of their own for the use of professors and students. . . . The largest and best regulated of these attached libraries is the one belonging to the Imperial university of Tokyo, . . . [to which may be added the Library of the College of Agriculture]. The nucleus of the library of the cabinet was the books constituting the Momiji-yama library established by Tokugawa Shogun, which, together with the books added afterwards, make 365,000 Japanese, 176,000 Chinese, and 83,000 western books, amounting to the magnificent total of 624,000 books in all. . . . Some of the libraries belonging to other departments contain a great number of books, but as they can be read only by a few people and are not accessible to the public, such libraries are of very little value as public libraries." —Government Report, *Libraries in Japan* (*Public Libraries, Oct.*, 1904, *pp.* 407-408).

Mexico

National Library.—"The notable thinker and writer, Dr. José Maria Luis Mora . . . was the first to conceive the idea of establishing a National Library in the City of Mexico. [An attempt was made to establish it in 1833, but, with change of administration of the country, the project had to be postponed. Frequent attempts were made thereafter but without success, until 1857.] The year 1857 may be considered as the one in which the Library was practically created, because, though it had not an appropriate building, nor was solemnly inaugurated owing to the terrible struggle that lasted three years in Mexico, from that year the University was the centre where all the books which had been the property of the libraries of religious corporations and communities were gathered by virtue of the disentail and confiscation of ecclesiastical properties. . . . The liberal Government being victorious, and the capital of the Republic occupied by it from 1861 to 1863, the organization of the Library progressed, though slowly. . . . The number of volumes gathered in the University's building and which formed the National Library up to the Intervention and the Empire . . . [were] 90,964. The Library then began to regularly render its public services during the morning and the afternoon, predominating among its books those in relation with theology and ecclesiastical subjects. . . . While Maximilian was in power, . . . [he] planned different projects to organize it in a more convenient way . . . [but they] were a complete failure. The Republic was reëstablished in the year 1867 and on November 30th a decree was published creating the much desired National Library. . . . [A Director and Librarian were appointed] and selected the ancient church of San Augustin for the Library. . . . The work of fitting it up covered more than fifteen years. . . . The National Library was solemnly inaugurated on April 2nd, 1884. . . . The volumes that now constitute the Library are not many in each subject because, as it may be easily understood, the majority of them proceeding from religious convents, almost two thirds of the total number refer to theological matters."—L. G. Obregón, *National library of Mexico* (tr. by A. M. Carreño), *pp.* 7, 25, 27-32, 40, 45, 65.

Netherlands

Hague and University libraries.—Town libraries.—The Dutch people, according to a report made in 1904 by the librarian of the Leesmuseum of Amsterdam, have been slow to shake off their indifference to public libraries. Clubs of every kind, however, possess their own libraries. "At the head of all the libraries in Holland must be mentioned . . . [the] national library, the Koninklijke bibliotheek, at The Hague . . . [which was established in 1798, when the library of the princes of Orange was joined with those of defunct government bodies for the use of the States-General. Since 1815 it has been the national library]. The use of it is rapidly increasing. . . . The library is open all working days. . . . Books can be had for a period of two weeks by inhabitants of The Hague, and for a month by every Dutchman outside this town. . . . Of all the books sent in by the publishers at the Office of justice in order to have their rights reserved, the Royal library receives one copy, which, however, may not be lent out. Other libraries of which the government pays the expenses are the libraries of the universities at Leiden, Utrecht and Groningen. . . . The libraries of the universities in Leiden, Utrecht, and Groningen are open to the public every working day. . . . The University library in Amsterdam is open daily, except on Sundays. . . . It is the . . . (Society for the promotion of the general good) which has done so much for the promotion of the education of the people. . . . In 1793, the first library of this society was opened at Haarlem, and in a short time several other towns followed the example set by Haarlem. According to the last annual report [written in 1904], 308 libraries and 34 libraries for the young have been founded in several places where branches of the society are

established. . . . Dordrecht . . . is the first and only town in the Netherlands which gives any support for a free library and acknowledges such an institution to be in the interests of the public. . . . Many towns have their own library, the town library. As a rule these collections are little frequented, the immediate cause being the antiquated books which they contain. . . . Unnecessary to say that schools for the training of librarians in the technical part of their work are totally unknown."—D. Smit, *On Dutch libraries* (*Public Libraries, Oct.,* 1904).—Public libraries were opened in the following order—Utrecht, 1892; Dordrecht, 1899; Groninjen, 1903; Leunwarden, 1905; The Hague, 1906; Rotterdam, 1907; Zutphen, 1908; Albemaar, 1908; Hilversum, Leiden, Sneek, 1910; Appingedam, 1911; Appledoom, Middleburg, Zeist, 1912; Amersfoort (2), Flushing, Francher, Helder, Helmond, Tilburg, Veendam, Weisp, Zaandam, 1913; Bussum, 1914.

Russia

State libraries.—Popular libraries.—Administration of state libraries subsequent to revolution of 1917.—The first library in Russia was organized in the eleventh century by Duke Yaroslow about fifty years after the introduction of Christianity. Following on this the monks copied manuscripts and multiplied in their monasteries the books which provided the nucleus of the later theological libraries. The earliest secular library in Russia, the Library of the Academy at St. Petersburg, was founded in 1728, the nucleus being books taken by the Russian armies from the Baltic provinces. It became a state library, and in 1915 possessed nearly 1,000,000 volumes. Next in age came the Imperial Public Library. "After the death of Paul I., a new era opened for Russia under the guidance of Alexander I. and his liberal minister, Speranski. . . . Russia's literary history . . . may be said to have been inaugurated in the reign. Many scientific societies were founded and newspapers started and among other institutions the Russian Imperial Library was opened. The first step in this particular direction had, however, been taken some years before by Catherine II., who, when Poland was divided in 1795, carried off the famous library of the Princes Zaluski as spoil."—*Note on the Imperial Russian Library* (*Library,* 1895, *pp.* 179-180).—"The Imperial Library was the result of the Russian capture of Warsaw. Count Joseph Zalussky, bishop of Kiev, spent forty-three years collecting a rich library of 300,000 volumes and 10,000 manuscripts, devoting all his wealth to the purchase of books. His brother Andrew further enriched the library with volumes taken from the museum of the Polish king, John III. In 1747 Joseph Zalussky opened the library to the public, and in 1761 bequeathed it to a college of Jesuits in Warsaw. Six years later (1767) Zalussky was arrested and his library removed to St. Petersburg. The transfer took place in bad weather and over poor roads, so that many books were injured and many lost in transit. When the library reached St. Petersburg it numbered 262,640 volumes and 24,500 estampes. Many had been stolen during the journey, and years later there were to be found in Poland books bearing the signature of Zalussky. To the Imperial Library Alexander I. added, in 1805, the Dubrovsky collection. . . . Dubrovsky gathered his collection during a twenty-five years' residence in Paris, Rome, Madrid, and other large cities of Europe. He acquired many during the French revolution. The Imperial Library possesses many palimpsests, Greek manuscripts of the second century, . . . besides Slavonian, Latin, French, and Oriental manuscripts. . . . The library is [1893] constantly growing, about 25,000 volumes being added every year. In income, size, and number of readers it vastly surpasses all private libraries in Russia, the largest of which does not exceed 25,000 volumes. In later years the village schools began to open libraries for limited circles of readers. Small libraries were successfully maintained in cities and the demand for good reading steadily increased among the people."—A. V. Babine, *Libraries in Russia* (*Library Journal, March,* 1893).—In Moscow, a great collection of books was made at the Rumiantzen Art Museum, which in 1915 owned about 1,100,000 volumes. Each of the three state libraries, under the old regime was entitled to a copy of every work published in Russia. Before the revolution the library of the Imperial University of Moscow was the best of the university libraries and possessed about 450,000 volumes. Warsaw, Kurkon, Helsingfors (which like Warsaw is no longer Russian), the Polytechnic Institutes at Petrograd, Kiev and Tomsk all had notable libraries. The libraries of the Surgeons' Academy, the State Council, and the Art Academy, St. Petersburg, were good special libraries in medicine, law and art. In 1915 there were about 800 public libraries in Russia, some supported by cities or Zemstvos, some (called popular libraries) by societies. There were also large municipal reference libraries such as the libraries at Odessa (founded in 1837), 200,000 volumes; Kiev, founded 1866, 600,000 volumes. The best society library was at Karkow. This library owned 200,000 volumes. Free popular libraries were first founded by cities or educational societies in the eighties of last century and were followed a little later by the zemstvo free rural libraries. In spite of official interference, and suppression, the movement prospered and in 1915 these libraries numbered 5,000 in cities and 20,000 in zemstvos. They were not exceptionally well managed, nor well staffed; but in 1913 the Shaniawsky University opened a library course, limited to 200 students, for the proper training of librarians.—Based on L. Haffkin-Hamburger, *Russian libraries* (*Library Journal, Mar.,* 1915).—"The . . . Russian Public Library . . . formerly the Imperial Public Library of Petrograd . . . has been administered [since 1918] by a committee, in which the Academy of Sciences, the University, the Book Chamber, the Library Science Society, as well as the readers, are represented. No substantial changes have taken place in the inner organization of the institution. As before it comprises the following departments: Manuscripts, Russian Literature, Orientalia, Natural Sciences, Philology and Incunabula, Arts and Technology, History, History of Cults, Social and Economic Sciences, Polygraphy, Rossica, Slavica, Philosophy and Pedagogy, and the General Catalog. A separate technology division is being formed, but the work is greatly hampered by the lack of space in the library building and by the scarcity of funds for the purchase of recent technological literature. In 1919 and 1920 two large collections of books, namely, the library of the quondam Theological Academy and that of the Free Economic Society, were merged with the Library and named respectively The First and The Second Division of the Russian Public Library. The library of the Theological Academy is known for its manuscript collections and for its literature on philosophy, history of Christianity, and archæography. That of Free Economic Society is strong in files of Zemstvo and municipal publi-

cations and in works on economic history and theory. . . . In October, 1918, the Library opened a central information bureau, for the purpose of locating books for inquiring readers in the libraries of the two capitals. The bureau gradually became a clearing-house for bibliographical information."—A. Yarmolinsky, *Russian Public Library* (*Library Journal, Apr.* 15, 1922).

Scandinavian States

Denmark.—The Royal Library at Copenhagen was founded in the sixteenth century during the reign of Christian II; but owes its early development chiefly to Frederick III (1648-1670). The building was commenced in 1667, during the reign of Frederick, who also made the collection of Icelandic literature for which the library is famous. "The University library of Copenhagen can be traced back to 1482. In 1728 it was completely destroyed by a fire which laid in ashes the church in the loft of which it was lodged. It was not until 1860 that it got a separate building. It has received large gifts of books, e.g., det Classenske bibliotek, and has incorporated several special libraries. It gets its books in the same way as the Royal library, spending every year $5000 for the purchase of books. It now has [1904] 400,000v., 7000 manuscripts, among which is the unique Arnamagnean collection of old Islandic and Norwegian manuscripts."—A. S. Steenberg, *Public libraries in Denmark* (*Public Libraries, Oct.*, 1904). —There is a national association, formed in 1905, for the promotion of public libraries. In 1909 a special adviser in library matters was appointed by the minister of public instruction. Most of the large towns and a great many villages have public libraries and reading rooms. Iceland has an important National Library (founded in 1818) at Reykjavik in which there are upwards of 60,000 volumes including a large number of manuscripts. The Learned School, or College of Iceland also has an excellent library.

Norway.—The University Library at Christiania is the principal library in Norway. It was established by Frederick II in 1811, the year of the opening of the University. The king donated thousands of duplicates from the Royal Library at Copenhagen. In 1780 Carl Deichmann founded the Deichmanske Bibliothek in Christiania as a free library. In 1798 Bishop P. Hansen founded small libraries for reading circles in Kristianssand See. "The Bergen Public Library, or to give its proper designation 'Bergens Offentlige Bibliothek,' is the largest municipal free public library in Scandinavia, and . . . [in 1898, comprised] about 75,000 vols. . . . [It] was founded in 1872 with 14.000 vols. This collection of valuable books had been formed by Botten-Hansen, the University librarian, who died in 1869. They were acquired for the sum of 12,800 Kroner, . . . raised by private subscription among the inhabitants of Bergen. . . . In 1872 the municipality accepted this handsome gift and undertook to house and maintain it."—*Library, v.* 10, *p.* 20.—"In 1830 there were [in Norway] 50 state-supported public libraries, in 1913 the number had risen to 950 and now (1916) there are over 1000. . . . Looking for the cause of this rapid progress it will be found in the introduction in the year 1901 of excellent reforms in the management of the state-supported libraries, brought about chiefly by the late librarian at Christiania, Mr. Haakon Nyhuus, who had obtained his library education in the United States. . . . The country libraries are usually very small and vary in size from about 100 volumes to 2000. . . . The books are commonly placed on a shelf in the schoolhouse or in the assembly-building of the country. The library is open for lending only on Sundays before and after church hours. . . . In a large number of the city libraries modern systems have been adopted and at some places results are shown that would be worthy of an American library."—A. Kildal, *Library work in Norway* (*Library Journal, Oct.*, 1916).

Sweden.—The Royal Library at Stockholm was established in 1585. The first collections have since been scattered; the original collection was given to the university of Upsala by Gustavus II; Christina's is now a part of the Vatican library; and the library of Charles X was destroyed by fire in 1697. Not long after, the present library was organized. The University Library at Upsala was founded in 1620 by Gustavus Adolphus. It was composed of sections of several convent libraries, and an endowment was also provided. "There are three types of . . . libraries [in Sweden]: 1) Those which have developed into or are developing into libraries for learned studies. These are, as a rule, located in the cathedral cities. They are mostly old libraries, rich in older literature, and with not inconsiderable collections of manuscripts. . . . The largest and best known is that of Linköping, possessing about 100,000v. and 2400 manuscripts. . . . 2) The school libraries in cities which otherwise possess libraries for learned studies. They are mostly professional collections for the teachers. The libraries in Stockholm and Upsala are representative of this class. . . . 3) Libraries for the scholars. These are found in nearly all the high schools, and are separate from the libraries for the teachers."—*Foreign notes* (*Public Libraries, July*, 1905, *p.* 364).—The largest city library in Sweden is that of Göteborg. Dr. Steenberg states that it contains 7730 volumes, but this is a surprising error. The library really contains over 80,000 volumes, and includes the library of the Göteborg University. . . . It was founded in 1861 by Robert and James Robertson Dickson, who have supported it ever since and given it a beautiful building. There are various libraries in Stockholm, both parish libraries and libraries owned by labor organizations. An interesting movement has been begun by the student society 'Verdandi' in Upsala in buying up books wholesale or at auctions and selling at cost to small libraries in the country. This society founded in 1891 a workingmen's library in Upsala, which in 1899 was given over to the Upsala Workingmen's Library Association." —*Reviews* (*Library Journal, Nov.*, 1900, *pp.* 703).— "In Stockholm, there is a large number of special libraries, among which are: 1) The library of the Royal academy of sciences, embracing natural science, astronomy, and mathematics. . . . The library of the Royal academy of literature, history, and antiquities, for archeology, numismatics, and history, . . . the library of the Riksdag, for jurisprudence, politics, and political economy, . . . the Library of the Central bureau of statistics, for statistics and political economy. . . . Next in size to the library of the Upsala university, comes the library of the Land university. Ever since the beginning of the eighteenth century the library has been entitled to receive a copy of every publication printed in the kingdom."—B. Lundstedt, *Swedish libraries* (*Public Libraries, Oct.*, 1904).

South Africa

Cape Town, Kimberley, Johannesburg, Bloemfontein libraries.—"The principal library is at Cape Town, and contains nearly 140,000 volumes,

with an issue in 1919 of 100,176. . . . Its glory lies in possession of the Grey Collection, which includes over one hundred incunabula. . . . The Kimberley library is up to date and progressive. Its stock amounts to nearly 50,000 volumes, and its issue in 1920 to over 75,000. . . . It must be pointed out that South African libraries rely upon subscribers often for a considerable portion of their funds. For example, Johannesburg in 1920 obtained £2,900 from Grants (Government and Municipal), and over £3,000 from subscribers. Port Elizabeth has a library of 50,000 volumes, and an issue of 125,000. . . . Nearly every district capital . . . has a small library which the Provincial Government helps in the £1 for £1 principle. Port Elizabeth and Capetown both send out boxes of books to members who live within twenty-five miles of a railway line. . . . Practically all the country towns in Natal have libraries which are available to the rural population, while the Pietermaritzburg and Durban public libraries have circulating libraries specially intended to meet the convenience of country subscribers. . . . The principal Public Library of the Orange Free State is that of Bloemfontein. . . . The Library at Pretoria [with 60,000 volumes] is . . . Dutch in its influences. . . . But the best and most progressive library in the Transvaal is undoubtedly that of Johannesburg. It provides lectures for the general public. . . . The Reference Department is well used, and the work of the library generally has increased fourfold in the last ten years."—*Public libraries of South Africa* (*Library Association Record, June* 15, *and July* 15, 1921).

South America

Argentina.—Brazil.—Chile.—Public libraries, as the term is generally known, are almost nonexistent throughout the greater part of South America. Nevertheless, there are some important libraries south of the equator. "The National Library in Buenos Aires was founded at the very birth of the nation in 1810, by the Revolutionary *Junta,* who placed in charge Dr. Mariano Moreno. In 1796, the prelate, don Manuel Azamory Ramirez, had at his death left his books for this object, but the English invasion in 1806 delayed the execution of the plan. The project received enthusiastic support in the substantial form of gifts. Installed in a house of the Jesuits where it remained till 1902, it was then removed to its present quarters on calle Mexico, 560-566, soon to be enlarged. A fine vestibule and staircase lead to the spacious reading-room. There is a handsome hall for lectures, and the ordinary appurtenances of a library. The institution in 1880 passed from the hands of the City to the Government, when Buenos Aires was federalized. . . The last figures obtainable were of 200,000 volumes and 10,000 MSS. Equally interesting is the *Library* of the late *General B. Mitre,* preserved in his former residence; . . . this, Congress has decreed a public monument. . . . It is a bibliographic treasure, amassed by General Mitre during fifty years of active intellectual life. It is distinguished by American historical works, especially documents and MSS. . . . The library has twelve sections, including the works on the pre-Columbian native races of America, their languages, culture, geography, etc.; the discovery of America; further exploration; Rio de la Plata in general and particular; Spanish America; Portuguese America; North America; boundary limits, laws, seals, constitutions, treaties, etc.; with letters and stamps. . . . The *Library Rivadavia,* founded May 20, 1879, by the Bernardino Rivadavia Association, is free to readers, but the members pay one *peso* a month for the privilege of taking out books. . . . The Library of the Sociedad *Tipográfica Bonaerense,* with more than 5000 volumes, is noteworthy. . . . There are especial libraries: that of the *Faculty of Medicine,* . . . and having more than 20,000 volumes, that of the *Law,* . . . and that on *Education.* [Public libraries in Argentina now number about 200.] . . . The *National Library* [of Rio de Janeiro], called the most valuable in South America and, with more than 400,000 catalogued numbers, the largest south of the equator, is housed in a handsome building of the best modern equipment. . . . The famous Ajuda Collection, which was brought over by Prince João in 1806, when Napoleon's army invaded Portugal, was the nucleus. From the old Carmelite hospital in the rua Primeiro de Marco it was moved to its own quarters in 1810, when it already numbered 60,000 volumes. All schools and periods of typographic art may here be found, examples of Johann Fust and Peter Schoeffer, Aldins and Plautius, Ibarras, Elsivers, and many others. . . . In the rarity of some of its treasures, if not in number, the collection compares with the famous ones of Europe. . . . With over 100,000 prints and above 30,000 (many rare) numismatic specimens, a treat is afforded to the specialist. . . . Other libraries . . . are the *Fluminense* with 90,000 volumes . . . the *Libraries* of the *Army,* and of the *Navy,* that of the *Medical School* with 70,000 volumes, of the *Polytechnic* with 70,000, the *Senate Library,* the *Congressional,* the *Gabinete Portuguez de Leitura,* occupying a beautiful building in the rua Luis de Camões near San Francisco Square, the *Commerce Library* in the Stock Exchange Building, and others. [Brazil also has about two hundred public libraries.] . . . One of the first acts after the inauguration of the Republic [of Peru] previous, indeed, to the final battles of the war, was the creation of the National Library. On the 17th of September, 1822, it was opened to the public with a collection of about 12,000 volumes, many of which were of great value. Unfortunately, while the Chilian army was in occupation of Lima in 1881, this library, then containing 50,000 works, was ruthlessly destroyed, a portion being carried to Chile, and the remainder scattered about the streets or sold at auction by weight. The later restoration of the library was chiefly due to Dr. Ricardo Palma, who remained its Director until 1912. Dr. Palma by diligent effort collected many of the old books and priceless manuscripts; many patriotic Peruvians made contributions; sympathetic nations, Spain, Argentina, Ecuador, the United States, sent gifts. A collection of 5000 volumes was presented by the Smithsonian Institute. In 1884 the library was reopened with 28,000 volumes; it now contains 60,000 [many of them of rare value]. The Society of Engineers has an important library. . . . The Lima Geographical Society . . library contains many valuable works and the leading geographical magazines of the world. . . . [La Paz has a municipal library and reading room.]"—A. S. Peck, *South American tour, pp.* 245-246, 321-322, 81-82.

Also in: F. B. Spaulding, *South America and library progress* (*Library Journal, Apr.* 15, 1922).

Spain and Portugal

Famous collections.—Lack of local libraries.—"In these countries libraries serve as archives and deposits, rather than as vital, growing, responsive centers of public interest and initia-

tive. While there are priceless collections of books and manuscripts, such as those of the *Real Academia Española*, the *Biblioteca Nacional* and similar institutions in Madrid, the *Archivo de Simancas* and the *Archivo de Indias* in Sevilla, and the *Universidade de Coimbra* in Portugal [founded in 1796], libraries, as living entities that send their arteries forth into their surroundings, that continue the process of disseminating knowledge, begun in the schools; libraries, as we understand them in the United States, do not exist. If circulating libraries are to be found, they are insignificant private enterprises of slight extent and value."—*Annual Reports, 1921-1922, American Library Association, Detroit Conference, June 26-July 1, 1922 (pamphlet), p. 47.*—The library of the University originally at Palencia, Spain, founded in 1212, and removed to Salamanca in 1254, is one of the oldest libraries. The National Library at Madrid with 700,000 volumes, is the largest in Spain.

Switzerland

Library statistics.—"Evidence that the Swiss people are devoted to books and reading is contained in a 52-page pamphlet on 'The public libraries of Switzerland in 1911,' compiled by the Federal Bureau of Statistics. . . . This statement is the first since 1868, and was undertaken in connection with the national exposition of 1914, following an investigation of every library in the country not strictly private. The investigation showed that there were 5798 libraries, among which 1335 were scientific, . . . and 4443 were educational or instructive. The great majority (5191), that is 89.6 per cent., belonged in the modern division (1801-1912) with regard to the date of their foundation; only eight were founded before 1500. These libraries have a total of 9,384,943 volumes. . . . Public libraries (of the confederation, the cantons, districts and communes) make 57.4 per cent. of this total; . . . 35.9 per cent., more than a third, belong to societies (reading circles, scientific societies, professional libraries, military, theatrical, musical, sport, public utility). More than a half, however (65.7 per cent.), have less than 500 volumes. Among these are all the little school and popular libraries, which are to be found for the most part, in the country. Seven libraries have more than 200,000 volumes. There was in 1911 an average of 1.5 libraries for every 1000 persons."—*Brief survey of the libraries of Switzerland (Library Journal, May, 1917, p. 378).*

United States

Early history.—Development of library system.—"The American public library, as at present constituted, is the outgrowth of an essentially modern movement; but this had its earlier beginnings and manifestations. In Prof. Herbert B. Adams's report on 'Public Libraries and Popular Education,' . . . the author specifies nineteen 'original library types,' of which possibly the following may be considered to embody in some respects one or more functions of the modern public library: (1) The Church or parish libraries established in many of the colonies, especially in the South, by Rev. Dr. Thomas Bray, founder and secretary of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, early in the eighteenth century. To Maryland alone Dr. Bray sent thirty parish libraries, embracing 2,545 books. Dr. Bray accepted in 1696 an appointment from the Bishop of London as commissary of ecclesiastical affairs in Maryland on the express condition that he should be aided in the provision of these parochial libraries for his missionaries, and in a pamphlet issued in London in 1697 he announced his intention of extending his scheme 'for the supply of all the English colonies in America therewith.' In 1698 one of Dr. Bray's libraries was placed in New York for Trinity Parish. Although these libraries were primarily for the use of the clergy, they were open to the public, and seem to have antedated the town libraries of New England by more than a century. (2) Town libraries, of which the first is said to have been opened in Salisbury, Conn., in 1803. Similar to these, and in many cases much more flourishing, were school-district libraries, which are not to be confused with school libraries. . . . School-district libraries were authorized by law in New York in 1835. (3) Subscription libraries. These are 'public' in the sense that they are open to all on the same conditions, without discrimination. The co-operative or joint-stock type is represented by the Philadelphia Library Company, founded by Benjamin Franklin. The 'Mercantile' type, represented by the libraries of that name in New York, Boston, and St. Louis, arose about 1820, originating in the desire to furnish good reading for the younger employees of business houses. In some of these libraries any person who can certify that he is employed on a salary is still charged a lower annual subscription than other borrowers. The American libraries accessible as means of literary culture a century or more ago were, all told, as given by Horace E. Scudder in his monograph on 'Public Libraries a Hundred Years Ago,' one in Philadelphia, two or three small ones in Pennsylvania, one in Charleston, one in New York, one in Newport, one in Providence, one in Portland, one in Salem, one in Leominster, one in Hingham, and the 'revolving library' of Kittery and York, Me., apparently so called because it was contained in a revolving case. There were also the college libraries, which, as often at the present day, were used not only by officers and students, but also by the educated men of the community. The nearest approach in Revolutionary days to what we call a free public library was, according to Mr. Scudder, the Philadelphia Library, which, although . . . it was a joint-stock affair, gave large liberty of consultation to non-stockholders. It is estimated by Messrs. Warren and Clark, editors of the volume on 'Public Libraries in the United States' issued by the United States Bureau of Education in 1876, that the number of books contained in all the 'public' libraries of the country in the year 1800, including book clubs, social libraries, and so on, was not more than 80,000, or about one volume to seventy inhabitants. The editors elsewhere in the same report state their conclusions that between 1775 and 1800 there were established in the United States 30 libraries, which at the time of writing numbered 242,171 volumes; between 1800 and 1825, 179 libraries, with 2,056,113 volumes; between 1825 and 1850, 551 libraries, with 2,807,218 volumes, and between 1850 and 1875, 22,040 libraries, with 5,481,068. These figures, it must be remembered, apply to these libraries or their successors in 1875. . . . The joint-stock form of library is in its simplest form a book club, as in the so-called 'social libraries' of Massachusetts, the subscription being the purchase of a share or the payment of a life membership, sometimes with an annual subscription. . . . The really progressive free public library belongs to the lat-

ter half of the nineteenth century. Before that time the idea of a collection of books for the use of an entire community, supported by that community from the proceeds of a tax, can scarcely be said to have existed. The town library at Salisbury, Conn., was established in 1803 by a bequest, but the town is said to have supported it for some time, although it is not now in existence. Possibly the oldest existing library of the kind is the one at Peterborough, N. H., which has been maintained by public taxation ever since its foundation in 1833. Legislative authorization for the establishment and maintenance of public libraries by municipalities dates from 1848, when the Massachusetts General Court, largely through the pioneer work of Josiah Quincy, empowered the city of Boston to raise $5,000 yearly to support a public library. Under this act the present Boston Public Library was opened in 1854. The act was extended to all towns in the state in 1851. Similar laws were enacted by New Hampshire in 1849, by Maine in 1854, by Vermont in 1865, and by Ohio in 1867; and they are now quite common throughout the Union. Really active progress along the lines of the 'modern library idea' dates from the formation of the American Library Association in 1876."—A. E. Bostwick, *American public library, pp.* 5-8.

Franklin and first subscription library.—When Franklin's club, at Philadelphia, the Junto, was first formed, "it often happened that a member would bring a book or two to the Junto, for the purpose of illustrating the subject of debate, and this led Franklin to propose that all the members should keep their books in the Junto room, as well for reference while debating as for the use of members during the week. The suggestion being approved, one end of their little apartment was soon filled with books; and there they remained for the common benefit a year. But some books having been injured, their owners became dissatisfied, and the books were all taken home. . . . Deprived of the advantage of the Junto collection, Franklin conceived the idea of a subscription library. Early in 1731 he drew up a plan, the substance of which was, that each subscriber should contribute two pounds sterling for the first purchase of books, and ten shillings a year for the increase of the library. As few of the inhabitants of Philadelphia had money to spare, and still fewer cared for reading, he found very great difficulty in procuring a sufficient number of subscribers. . . . It was not until November, 1731, at least five months after the project was started, that fifty names were obtained; and not till March, 1732, that the money was collected. After consulting James Logan, 'the best judge of books in these parts,' the first list of books was made out, a draft upon London of forty-five pounds was purchased, and both were placed in the hands of one of the directors who was going to England. Peter Collinson undertook the purchase, and added to it presents of Newton's 'Principia,' and 'Gardener's Dictionary.' . . . In October the books arrived, and were placed, at first, in the room of the Junto. A librarian was appointed, and the library was opened once a week for giving out the books. The second year Franklin himself served as librarian. For many years the secretary to the directors was Joseph Breintnal, by whose zeal and diligence the interests of the library were greatly promoted. Franklin printed a catalogue soon after the arrival of the books. . . . The success of this library, thus begun by a few mechanics and clerks, was great in every sense of the word. Valuable donations of books, money and curiosities were frequently made to it. The number of subscribers slowly, but steadily, increased. Libraries of similar character sprung up all over the country, and many were started even in Philadelphia. Kalm, who was in Philadelphia in 1748, says that then the parent library had given rise to 'many little libraries,' on the same plan as itself. He also says that non-subscribers were then allowed to take books out of the library, by leaving a pledge for the value of the book, and paying for a folio eight pence a week, for a quarto six pence, and for all others four pence. 'The subscribers,' he says, 'were so kind to me as to order the librarian, during my stay here, to lend me every book I should want, without requiring any payment of me.' In 1764, the shares had risen in value to nearly twenty pounds, and the collection was considered to be worth seventeen hundred pounds. In 1785, the number of volumes was 5,487; in 1807, 14,457; in 1861, 70,000. The institution is one of the few in America that has held on its way, unchanged in any essential principle, . . . always on the increase, always faithfully administered, always doing well its appointed work. . . . The prosperity of the Philadelphia Library was owing to the original excellence of the plan, the good sense embodied in the rules, the care with which its affairs were conducted, and the vigilance of Franklin and his friends in turning to account passing events. Thomas Penn, for example, visited Philadelphia a year or two after the library was founded; when the directors of the library waited upon him with a dutiful address, and received, in return, a gift of books and apparatus. It were difficult to over-estimate the value to the colonies of the libraries that grew out of Franklin's original conception. They were among the chief means of educating the colonies up to Independence. 'Reading became fashionable,' says Franklin; 'and our people having no public amusements to divert their attention from study, became better acquainted with books, and in a few years were observed, by strangers, to be better instructed and more intelligent than people of the same rank generally are in other countries.'" —J. Parton, *Life and times of Benjamin Franklin, pp.* 200-203.—"The books were at first kept in the house of Robert Grace. . . . Afterward they were allotted a room in the State-House; and, in 1742, a charter was obtained from the Proprietaries. In 1790, having in the interval absorbed several other associations and sustained a removal to Carpenter's Hall, . . . the Library was at last housed in a building especially erected for it at Fifth and Chestnut streets. . . . It brought only about eight thousand volumes into its new quarters, for it had languished somewhat during the Revolution. . . . Two years after removal to its quarters on Fifth street, the Library received the most valuable gift of books it [had] as yet had. James Logan, friend and adviser of Penn, . . . had gathered a most important collection of books. . . . His library comprised, as he tells us, 'over one hundred volumes of authors, all in Greek, with mostly their versions; all the Roman classics without exception; all the Greek mathematicians. . . . Besides there are many of the most valuable Latin authors, and a great number of modern mathematicians.' These, at first bequeathed as a public library to the city, became a branch of the Philadelphia Library under certain conditions, one of which was that, barring contingencies, one of the donor's descendants should always hold the office of trustee. . . . In 1869 died Dr. James Rush, son of Benjamin Rush. . . . By

his will about one million dollars were devoted to the erection and maintenance of an isolated and fire-proof library-building, which was to be named the Ridgway Library, in memory of his wife. This building was offered to the Philadelphia Company, and the bequest was accepted. That institution had by this time accumulated about one hundred thousand volumes: . . . A building of the Doric order was erected, . . . calculated to contain four hundred thousand volumes, . . . and to this building the more valuable books of the Library were removed in 1878."—B. Samuel, *Father of American libraries* (*Century Magazine, May,* 1883).

First library in New York.—"In 1729, the Rev. Dr. Millington, Rector of Newington, England, by his will, bequeathed his library to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. By this society the library of Dr. Millington was presented to the corporation of the city, for the use of the clergy and gentlemen of New-York and the neighbouring provinces. . . . 'In 1754 a set of gentlemen undertook to carry about a subscription towards raising a public library, and in a few days collected near 600 pounds, which were laid out in purchasing about 700 volumes of new, well-chosen books. Every subscriber, upon payment of five pounds principal, and the annual sum of ten shillings, is entitled to the use of these books,—his right, by the articles, is assignable, and for non-compliance with them may be forfeited. The care of this library is committed to twelve trustees, annually elected by the subscribers, on the last Tuesday of April, who are restricted from making any rules repugnant to the fundamental subscription.' . . . The library of the corporation above alluded to, appearing to have been mismanaged, and at length entirely disused, the trustees of the New-York Society Library offered to take charge of it, and to deposit their own collection with it, in the City-Hall. This proposal having been acceded to by the corporation, the Institution thenceforward received the appellation of 'The City Library,' a name by which it was commonly known for a long time. A good foundation having been thus obtained, the library prospered and increased. . . . In 1772, a charter was granted to it by the colonial government. The war of the revolution, however, which soon after occurred, interfered with these pleasing prospects. . . . An interval of no less than fourteen years, (of which it possesses no record whatever,) here occurs in the history of the society. At length it appears from the minutes, that 'the accidents of the late war having nearly destroyed the former library, no meeting of the proprietors for the choice of trustees was held from the last Tuesday in April, 1774, until Saturday, the 21st December, 1788, when a meeting was summoned.' In 1789, the original charter, with all its privileges, was revived by the legislature of this state; the surviving members resumed the payment of their annual dues, an accession of new subscribers was obtained, and the society, undeterred by the loss of its books, commenced almost a new collection." —*Catalogue of the New York Society Library: Historical Notice.*

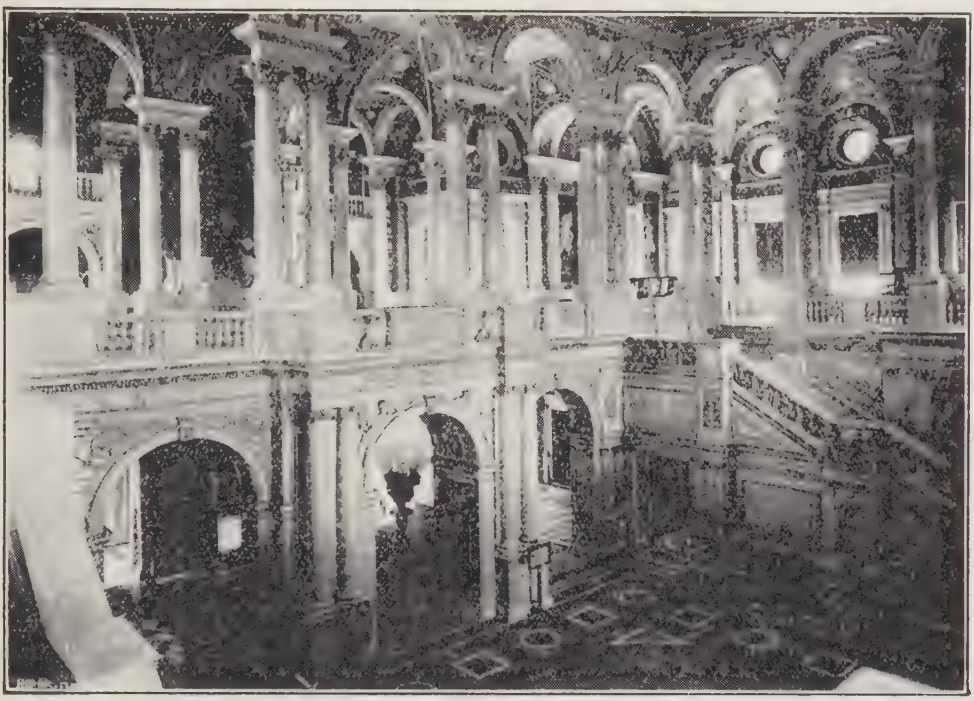
Redwood Library.—While Bishop Berkeley was residing, in 1729, on his farm near Newport, Rhode Island, "he took an active share in forming a philosophical society in Newport. . . . Among the members were Col. Updike, Judge Scott (a grand-uncle of Sir Walter Scott), Nathaniel Kay, Henry Collins, Nathan Townsend, the Rev. James Honeyman, and the Rev. Jeremiah Condy. . . . The Society seems to have been very successful. One of its objects was to collect books. It originated, in 1747, the Redwood Library."—A. C. Fraser, *Life and letters of George Berkeley* (*v. 4 of Works*), *p.* 169.—The library thus founded took its name from Abraham Redwood, who gave £500 to it in 1747. Other subscriptions were obtained in Newport to the amount of £5,000, colonial currency, and a building for the library erected in 1750.

Free public libraries.—Boston Library.—Massachusetts law.—"Mr. Ewart, in his Report of the Select Committee on Public Libraries, 1849, says: 'Our younger brethren, the people of the United States, have already anticipated us in the formation of libraries entirely open to the public.' No free public library, however, was then in operation, in the United States, yet one had been authorized by legislative action. The movements in the same direction in England and the United States seem to have gone on independently of each other; and in the public debates and private correspondence relating to the subject there seems to have been no borrowing of ideas, or scarcely an allusion, other than the one quoted, to what was being done elsewhere. In October, 1847, Josiah Quincy, Jr., Mayor of Boston, suggested to the City Council that a petition be sent to the State legislature asking for authority to lay a tax by which the city of Boston could establish a library free to all its citizens. The Massachusetts legislature, in March, 1848, passed such an act, and in 1851 made the act apply to all the cities and towns in the State. In 1849 donations of books were made to the Boston Public Library. Late in the same year Mr. Edward Everett made to it the donation of his very complete collection of United States documents, and Mayor Bigelow a gift of $1,000. In May, 1852, the first Board of Trustees, with Mr. Everett as president, was organized, and Mr. Joshua Bates, of London, made his first donation of $50,000 for the use of the library. . . . Mr. George Ticknor was the person who mapped out the sagacious policy of that library—a policy which has never been improved, and which has been adopted by all the public libraries in this country, and, in its main features, by the free libraries of England. For fifteen years or more Mr. Ticknor gave the subject his personal attention. He went to the library every day, as regularly as any of the employés, and devoted several hours to the minutest details of its administration. . . . Started as the public-library system was on such principles, and under the guidance of these eminent men, libraries sprang up rapidly in Massachusetts, and similar legislation was adopted in other States."—W. F. Poole, *President's address at the annual meeting of the American Library Association,* 1887.

Library gifts.—A remarkable number of the free public libraries of the United States are the creations of private wealth, munificently employed for the common good. The greater institutions which have this origin are the Astor Library in New York, founded by John Jacob Astor and enriched by his descendants, and the Lenox Library in New York, founded by James Lenox, united with the Tilden Foundation in the New York Public Library; the Peabody Institute, in Baltimore, founded by George Peabody; the Enoch Pratt Free Library, in Baltimore, founded by the gentleman whose name it bears; the Newberry Library, in Chicago, founded by the will of Walter L. Newberry, who died in 1868; the Sutro Library in San Francisco, founded by Adolph Sutro, and the

great number of American Carnegie libraries. John Crerar, who died in 1889, bequeathed $2,500,000 for the library in Chicago now known by his name.

Library of Congress.—Some special libraries in Washington.—The Library of Congress was established in 1800, but destroyed in 1814 when the Capitol was burned. Not long after Congress purchased the library of ex-President Jefferson to add to it, but a fire in 1851 reduced the entire library to 20,000 volumes. Increase since then has been rapid through appropriations by Congress, deposits under the copyright Act, gifts, and exchanges. In 1921 the library was third in size in the world.—"By the act of April 15, 1886, the present site, one-quarter of a mile south of east from the Capitol, was selected, its acquisition by the United States provided for, and the construc-



© Harris & Ewing

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, WASHINGTON

tion of a building authorized. During this long period of discussion many schemes for attaining the desired end, including a variety of plans for enlarging and occupying the Capitol and many different sites in the city of Washington, were considered. Several times did the legislation reach an advanced stage and fail through the pressure of more absorbing interests. Finally the law referred to adopted sketch plans that had been prepared by Messrs. Smithmeyer and Pelz, a firm of Washington architects, but it fixed no limit of cost, nor did it specify the materials of construction or character of execution of the design other than to stipulate that the building should be fireproof. A commission, composed of the Secretary of the Interior, the Librarian of Congress, and the Architect of the Capitol, was designated to conduct the construction of the building. The site, comprising two city squares—nearly nine acres, within the city building lines and with the included streets—was purchased of the private owners, the ground cleared of some seventy buildings occupying it, and by the summer of 1888 about one-half of the foundation footings for the building were laid. During that year, however, Congress became dissatisfied with the progress that had been made and the uncertainties involved in the operation of the inadequate original law, and accordingly, on October 2, modified it and lodged the entire control of the work, including the preparation of new plans at a limited cost, in the hands of Brig. Gen. Thomas Lincoln Casey, Chief of Engineers of the United States Army. He immediately placed the writer in local charge. On March 2, 1889, Congress enacted that the building should be erected at a total cost of $6,500,000, including previous expenditures, according to a plan that had been prepared and submitted by General Casey, pursuant to the previous act of October 2, 1888. This plan was based on that adopted by the original act, and provided a building of similar form, dimensions, and architecture. The project embodied the principal materials of construction and a detailed estimate of the cost. Under these auspices operations were begun in the spring of 1889 where the operations had left off the year before, and the construction thence proceeded without interruption until the building was finally completed, in the spring of 1897. It was 470 feet in length by 340 feet in width, having three stories and a subbasement, and fronts west—toward the Capitol. . . . The foundations of the building are of hydraulic cement concrete, 6 feet deep in ground which is a mixture of clay and sand of very uniform character. The cellar walls are of hard red brick; the exterior face of the superstructure of a fine grained light blue granite from Concord, N. H.; the stone of the rotunda and the trimmings of the court walls a light blue granite from near Woodstock, Md.; the facing of the court walls enameled brick from Leeds, England; and the

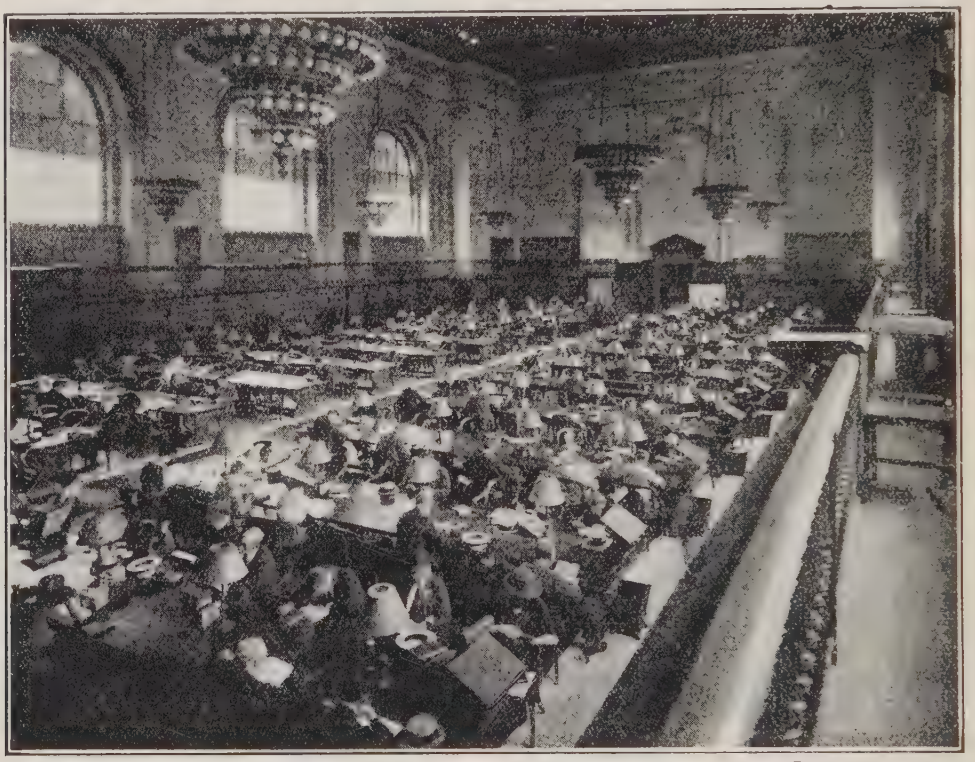
backing and interior walls as well as all of the vaulting of the basement and first stories are of hard red brick. Most of the floors that are flat ceiled are of terra cotta, and this material also forms the covering and filling of the roofs and main dome, of which the supporting members are of rolled steel in beams, girders, and trusses. All of the floors are leveled up with concrete and surfaced with tiles, terrazzo, or mosaic in the public spaces, while in the office and working rooms they are covered with a carpet of southern pine boards. The most important of the strictly useful features of the building are the book stacks, of which the design is largely original. The problem was new, not only through the capacity to be provided but the numerous other conditions to be met, such as light, ventilation, adjustability to several uses, communication, immunity from fire, cleanliness, durability, and simplicity. It was also necessary that rapid mechanical transmission of books between the shelving and the reading room should be provided, coupled with a quick and reliable means of communication, both written and oral. . . . The book carrier is a pair of parallel, endless chains, running in a vertical shaft in the middle of the stack; thence in a horizontal duct in the cellar to a point below the central desk of the reading room, where it turns upward and ascends vertically to the delivery outlet at the desk. A series of equidistant book trays, eighteen in number, are suspended between the chains. The machine runs continuously and automatically takes on and delivers books of the size of a quarto or less at its reading room terminal and at each of the stack stories. The speed of the carrier is about 100 feet per minute. The pneumatic message tube is also convenient as a speaking tube. The great rotunda or public reading room of the building, the main staircase hall or foyer, the private reading rooms for the members of Congress, the Librarian's office, the corridors communicating with these, and the exhibition halls as well as many portions of the exterior walls, especially the west main pavilion, have received a good degree of artistic treatment and embellishment, but all within strict architectural requirements. Some forty sculptors and mural painters, about equally divided in numbers, furnished the principal works of art under the architects' supervision and direction. Many appropriate quotations and names are inscribed on the walls in the architectural tablets, friezes and panels, adding to the general impressiveness and interest of the building. In all ways and from all points of view the library building is eminently instructive as an example of good design, good appointment for its great purpose, good building and good administration in the execution, and therefore the more appropriate to house the nation's library. The unusual success of the undertaking under Government auspices is almost wholly due to the selection of a known competent, sturdy, and faithful individual such as General Casey was, and giving him the sole charge directly under Congress without an executive superior liable to interfere and cause delays. The work went on quietly, but with energy, and was completed within the originally estimated time and well within the legal limit of cost. The total cost of the building was $6,344,585.34—that of the site, $585,000."—B. R. Green, *Building for the Library of Congress* (*Annual Report Smithsonian Institution*, 1897, *p.* 625).—"The Library, inclusive of the Law Library, contained 2,918,256 books at the end of the fiscal year [1920], a gain of 86,932. Maps and charts (pieces) totaled 170,005, a gain of 3,557; music (volumes and pieces), 919,041 as against 884,227 in 1920; prints (pieces), 424,783, a gain of 5,807."—*Library of Congress in 1920-1921* (*Library Journal, Jan.*, 1921, *p.* 22).—It has the largest collection in the United States of manuscript sources for American history. These last include the records and papers of the Continental Congress, the papers of Washington, Jefferson, Monroe, Madison, Hamilton, Franklin, Jackson, Van Buren, Polk, Pierce, Johnson, Chancellor, Kent, and others. It "has an official right to one copy of every book published in the United States, and so may claim to be a national library. It is still not comparable to the many-sided and complete collection of the British Museum; the national library is one-sided, or at least shows striking gaps. Having started as the Library of Congress, it has, aside from its one copy of every American book and the books on natural science belonging to the Smithsonian Institution, few books except those on politics, history, political economy, and law. (See also below: University libraries.) . . . The library now prints catalogue cards for all current deposits under the copyright law—that is, for all American copyrighted publications—as well as for selected foreign purchases and some of the most important books already on the shelves. It duplicates these cards freely and sells them at cost, as public documents, to all libraries that desire to use them, thus acting as a great central cataloguing bureau for the whole country."—A. E. Bostwick, *American public library*, *pp.* 80, 29.

Some very important special libraries are located in Washington, D. C. Thus the Department of Agriculture has a valuable library containing 155,000 volumes; the Judge Advocate, 17,000 volumes; the Quartermaster General, 27,000; the Surgeon General, a notable library, 600,000 books, pamphlets, MSS. and public documents; the department of Justice, 60,000 volumes; the Navy Department, 60,000 volumes; the Bureau of Education, 175,000 volumes; the Geological Survey, 150,000 books and 37,000 maps; the Bureau of American Ethnology, 400,000 volumes; the Smithsonian Institution, 300,000 volumes; Interstate Commerce Commission, 25,000; Public Library, 230,000 volumes and 50,000 mounted pictures. In the purely educational field the Riggs Memorial Library has 165,000 volumes. This is a general university library. George Washington University has a total of 62,500 volumes in its various schools. Two libraries which hold a pathetic interest are the National Library for the Blind, 11,000 volumes; and the Columbia Institution for the Deaf, 9,000 volumes. In Sociology, the Department of Labor has 80,000 books and pamphlets, the American Federation of Labor, 6,000; the American National Red Cross, 6,000 volumes and pamphlets. These collections are all rapidly increasing in size and importance.

New York Public Library, Astor, Lenox, and Tilden Foundations.—Other New York libraries.—"The New York Public Library differs from the great libraries of London, Paris, St. Petersburg and Washington in that it provides both a library of reference and a system of circulation. . . . In the number of books and pamphlets contained, it is exceeded by the British Museum, the Bibliothèque Nationale of Paris, the Imperial Library of St. Petersburg, the Library of Congress at Washington, and perhaps one or two others, being in this respect the sixth or seventh in the order of magnitude of the great libraries of the world; but as a system for supplying books to all classes of readers it is unequalled in size, and is likely to remain so. . . . This library system was begun

by the consolidation of the Astor and Lenox libraries and the Tilden Trust, the first meeting of the trustees of the new corporation having been held May 27, 1895, at which time the consolidated library contained about 353,000 volumes."—J. S. Billings, *New York Public Library* (*Library Journal, May,* 1911).—"The names of John Jacob Astor, James Lenox, Samuel Jones Tilden . . . are linked in the name of the [New York Public Library]. . . . First of [the] . . . efforts in point of time was the Astor Library, in inception and formation the work of John Jacob Astor and Joseph Green Cogswell—a New York merchant and a New England school teacher. . . . [John Jacob Astor (who died in 1848) at the instigation of Cogswell left by will the sum of $400,000 to be used for the establishment of a public library. The first meeting of the Trustees was called on May 20, 1848. In September a site was chosen on Lafayette Place, and in October Cogswell was despatched to Europe to buy books. In January he wrote] 'I am happy to state to you that the library is now growing rapidly. . . . I think I may say that no one department of learning has been overlooked in laying the foundation for a library.' The act of incorporation was passed on January 18 [1849]. It fixed the number of trustees at eleven. . . . The trustees declared their acceptance of the act on February 14, 1849, and on that date chose Irving for president and Ruggles for secretary. . . . By the terms of the will not more than $75,000 was to be spent for the building and $120,000 was to be spent for purchase of books and other fittings. . . . [In April the trustees hired] for two years the dwelling house at 32 Bond Street for temporary custody and exhibition of the books they had purchased. . . . [The hours were fixed at from 10 A. M. to 5 P. M. except Sundays and holidays. The library was to be for reference only. Admission was free for all persons over fourteen years of age.] At this time the total number of books in the library was estimated at over 20,000 volumes, including $2,500 worth purchased by Cogswell during Astor's lifetime. . . . [In 1851 Cogswell was again sent to Europe to buy books and] felt that the trip justified fully his expectations as to the number and character of works so secured. 'It . . . afforded me an opportunity of making our own institution more widely known than it had been before. It was very gratifying to hear men like Humboldt, and Bunsen and Lepsius speak of it as an institution, in which the world was interested, and to find many persons desirous of offering some valuable volume or volumes to enrich its collection.' . . . [Again in November, 1852, he went abroad and returned with 25,000 volumes. Of his ability as a book buyer John Hill Burton says] 'Dr. Cogswell, the first librarian of the Astorian library, spent some time in Europe with his princely endowment in his pocket, and showed himself a judicious, active, and formidable sportsman in the book-hunting world. Whenever, from private collections, or the breaking-up of public institutions, rarities got abroad into the open market, the collectors of the old country found that they had a resolute competitor to deal with—almost, it might be said, a desperate one—since he was in a manner the representative of a nation using powerful efforts to get possession of a share of the literary treasures of the Old World.' . . . The building was opened for public examination on January 9, 1854, stocked with between 80,000 and 90,000 volumes, purchased at a cost of about $100,000."—H. M. Lydenberg, *History of the New York Public Library* (*Bulletin of the New York Public Library, July,* 1916, *pp.* 555-556, 565-566, 570-572).—The library was planned to hold 100,000 volumes, which left no room for growth. In October, 1855, W. B. Astor came to the rescue with a deed of gift of three lots on which he erected an extension which more than doubled its capacity. During his lifetime W. B. Astor also made other very large gifts in books and money, and bequeathed to it the sum of $249,000. The building again became too small and in 1879 John Jacob Astor presented a second extension. "During 1879 the Japanese government presented a representation of their national literature. . . . Through Viscount Cranbrook, secretary for India in Beaconsfield's cabinet, the library received a large collection of official publications relating to India; New Zealand, New South Wales, Canada, Italy, France, Prussia were moved also to make valuable contributions of documents and statistical material."—H. M. Lydenberg, *History of the New York Public Library* (*Bulletin of the New York Public Library, Aug.,* 1916, *pp.* 643-644).—John Jacob Astor continued to make large gifts in money and rare books and manuscripts, and at his death in 1890 bequeathed to the library the sum of $450,000. Long prior to this, however, New York had been enriched by the acquisition of a second endowed library foundation. In 1870 James Lenox, a merchant of New York presented his valuable collections of books, paintings and sculpture to the city, together with a heavy endowment. The Lenox Library was incorporated by the State legislature in January of the same year. A building was erected on Fifth Avenue between 70th and 71st Streets and in 1876, Mr. Lenox's collections were placed in it. Later the Duyckinck collection, and the Astoin collection were added, and Mr. Lenox continued to buy Americana extensively for the library. His books however were in an almost hopelessly confused state, and it was some time before they could be catalogued and made available for scholars to whom this library made a special appeal. Later on a third trust was established in the Tilden Library Trust which was created by the will of Samuel Jones Tilden, one time governor of New York State, who died in 1886, and who also provided Yonkers and New Lebanon with Free Libraries. Costly litigation tied up the funds for a number of years; the will was set aside; but one of the heirs gave up $2,000,000 of the share inherited by her, and the trustees received this fund together with a library of about 20,000 volumes. The city now had two important libraries, and a trust fund which might be used to provide a third. But public sentiment was against the multiplication of library administrations. The distance which separated the Astor and Lenox libraries militated against the best use of these institutions, and murmurs against the administration of the Lenox library, which had always been heard, grew louder. Moreover, the Astor library was hampered by lack of funds, while the question of how to use the money of the Tilden foundation to the best advantage was still unanswered. Under the circumstances, it was felt that amalgamation would be better for the city than further division of forces, and the problem was in part solved by the consent of the Trustees of the Astor Library to join with the Tilden Trust in creating one more great library, which would be more useful than two lesser ones. Action by the Tilden board was soon concluded. The conference committee appointed November 17, 1894, reported favorably on January 15, 1895, and the report was adopted. Final authorization and approval of

the consolidation agreement were given on May 22 the day before the agreement was actually signed and consolidation legally effected. Meantime negotiations were begun with the Lenox Trust. They were complicated by restrictions placed on part of the land upon which the Lenox Library was built, and on the Stuart art collection, which belonged to the Lenox Trust. These complications, however, were happily overcome or provided for, and the three Trusts were consolidated under the name "The New York Public Library, Astor, Lenox and Tilden Foundations." It was at first proposed to erect a large building on the site of the Lenox Library; but it was felt that neither the Lenox nor the Astor site was quite suitable, especially if a circulating library were to be part of the institution. Later on the block was sold in various parcels for a total of over $5,000,000. Meantime Dr. J. S. Billings who had created the Surgeon-General's library at Washington, was chosen executive head of the consolidated foundations, and the work of providing a modern catalogue was actively taken in hand.—Based on H. M. Lydenberg, *History of the New York Public Library* (*Bulletin of the New York Public Library, Jan.*, 1921, *p.* 11).—"In the agreement for consolidation it was provided that . . . the number of its trustees should be twenty-one, to be selected from the thirty-three members of the separate boards; and that 'the said new corporation shall establish and maintain a free public library and reading room in the city of New York, with such branches as may be deemed advisable, and shall continue and promote the several objects and purposes set forth in the respective acts of incorporation of "The Trustees of the Astor Library," "The Trustees of the Lenox Library," and the "Tilden Trust."' . . . At the time of the consolidation the Astor library owned its site and buildings, had an endowment fund of about $941,000, producing an annual income of about $47,000, and contained 267,147 volumes. The Lenox library owned its site and building, had an endowment fund of $505,500, producing an annual income of $20,500, and contained about 86,000 volumes. The Tilden Trust possessed Mr. Tilden's private library, containing about 20,000 volumes, and an endowment fund estimated at $2,000,000, making the total number of volumes in the New York Public Library 373,147, and the total endowment fund about $3,446,500. [Immediately upon the completion of the consolidation of the three libraries, the city of New York was asked to provide a suitable building for the great institution contemplated, and the ground covered by the old reservoir, on Fifth Avenue, between Fortieth and Forty-second Streets, was suggested as an advantageous site.] The result of this appeal, which met with cordial public support, was that an act was passed by the legislature and approved May 19, 1897, giving the necessary authority to the city to issue bonds for the construction of a library building, the result of which was that on November 10, 1897, the plans prepared by Messrs. Carrère & Hastings, of New York City, were selected and approved; . . . were approved by the Board of Estimate [on December 1], and on December 8 a contract was entered into between the City of New York and the New York Public Library, by which the library building to be erected upon Bryant Park was leased to the New York Public Library."—*Handbook to the New York Public Library*, 1900.—On the 12th of March, 1901, Andrew Carnegie wrote to Dr. Billings mak-



© Keystone View Co.

ONE OF THE MAIN READING ROOMS OF THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY

ing a proposal of unparalleled munificence: "Dear Dr. Billings: Our conferences upon the needs of greater New-York for branch libraries to reach the masses of the people in every district have convinced me of the wisdom of your plans. Sixty-five branches strike one at first as a very large order, but . . . the number is not excessive. You estimate the average cost of these libraries at, say, $80,000 each, being $5,200,000 for all. If New-York will furnish sites for these branches . . . as it has done for the central library, and also agree in satisfactory form to provide for their maintenance as built, I should esteem it a rare privilege to be permitted to furnish the money as needed for the buildings, say, $5,200,000." "Since that time the following libraries engaged in circulation have been consolidated with [the New York Public Library]: the New York Free Circulating Library, with 11 branches; the Washington Heights Free Library; the St. Agnes Library; the New York Free Circulating Library for the Blind; the Aguilar Free Library, with four branches; the Harlem Library; the Tottenville Library; the Library of the University Settlement; the Webster Free Library; the Cathedral Free Circulating Library, with five branches; being nearly all of the public libraries exclusively engaged in the circulation of books. In 1902, under the provisions of agreements made with the city of New York and with Mr. Andrew Carnegie, the construction of new branch library buildings was begun, and 32 of these . . . [had] been completed and opened to the public. The number of Carnegie libraries ultimately . . . erected in the boroughs of Manhattan, the Bronx, and Richmond is about 60. In the autumn of 1910, the New York Public Library included in its reference department about 800,000 volumes, 300,000 pamphlets, 100,000 manuscripts, 70,000 prints, two picture-galleries, and a large collection of maps. . . . It includes, in addition, 40 branch libraries [increased to 42, with 6 subbranches in 1922] for the circulation of books, containing about 780,000 volumes, and circulating over 7,000,000 of volumes per year. [The new building which was opened in 1911 is designed for about] 3,000,000 volumes and over 1700 readers. . . . The large reading-rooms on the third floor, seating 768 persons and containing about 30,000 volumes of reference freely accessible on open shelves, the periodical-room, the newspaper-room, and the exhibition-rooms, are open to every one, while the science, technological, sociological, public documents, Oriental, music, and other special collections, are in rooms devoted to these subjects. . . . Each of these rooms will be virtually a special library containing series of periodicals, monographs, textbooks, etc., relating to the special subject, and all freely accessible to the reader. . . . The field in which the New York Public Library is strongest is history, and especially American history, including not only the United States, but all countries in North and South America. No library in the world has a more complete collection of the literature of American history, or even of the history of the state of New York from the colonial period to the present time. . . . The art department is one of the most important sections of the library. . . . The print department is an important one, and contains the collection of the late Samuel P. Avery, which is specially rich in the works of the French etchers of the second half of the 19th century; a valuable collection of Japanese prints, the gift of the late Charles Stewart Smith; and a good collection of the work of American artists. [In 1923 the library received gifts amounting to $3,000,000 from two sources.]

"Virtually within two blocks of the new library building are three important special libraries, namely, the Library of the Academy of Medicine, the Library of the Association of the Bar, both in 43d street, and the Engineering Library in the new building for the engineering societies on 39th street, erected at the cost of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. . . . The library of the Academy of Medicine contains about 80,000 volumes relating to medicine and the allied sciences, being one of the four largest medical libraries in this country, and is open to the public. . . . The Library of the Association of the Bar contains about 50,000 volumes, and is one of the best working libraries of its kind in the country. It is not a public library, but a card of admission may be obtained from any member of the Bar Association. Its collection of statutes, session laws, and law reports is a very complete one, and it is strong in international law. . . . The library of the Union Theological Seminary, now in the new building near Columbia University, is a public library, and has a large collection of books relating to theology. Another important special library is that of Spanish literature, formed by Mr. Archer M. Huntington, and established in a separate building under the auspices of the Hispanic Society of America. Other special collections which are kept in mind in the selection of books for the New York Public Library are the collections on architecture, on botany and zoölogy, and on anarchism, in the Columbia University Library, and those of the New York Historical Society, the American Geographical Society, the Numismatic Society."—J. S. Billings, *New York Public Library* (*Library Journal, May,* 1911, *pp.* 233, 235-236, 237).

Huntington Library.—"The Huntington Library [situated in San Gabriel, California] is a marvel of library history and one of the wonders of the twentieth century. The library world has nothing to be compared with it. All libraries of international renown have been the results of slow growth. . . . Our wonder increases, therefore, when we realize that a library, which in some respects rivals, if indeed it does not surpass, those ancient institutions, has been brought together by a private individual within the short space of fifteen or twenty years. . . . Of entire libraries bought by him the most important was that of the late E. Dwight Church of Brooklyn. This contained one of the finest collections of Americana in [the United States] and the finest collection of Shakespeare folios and quartos outside of England. The library of Mr. Beverly Chew, tho smaller in numbers, contained an unusually fine collection of English poetry. That of the late Frederic R. Halsey was rich in both Americana and English literature. . . . Of English collections purchased outright the earliest, and one of special significance, was that of the Duke of Devonshire. It contained twenty-five books printed by William Caxton, . . . and the famous Kemble-Devonshire collection of plays, . . . consisting of some eight thousand plays in English, . . . collected by John Philip Kemble, the actor. . . . The Bridgewater House Library, bought of the Earl of Ellesmere, was an ancestral library, the foundation of which was laid by Thomas Egerton, . . . Lord Chancellor of King James. . . . From the sales of the Hoe Library . . . the lion's share [was carried off for the Huntington library] and the Huth sales, extending over a period of nine years, were carefully watched and many volumes of the greatest rarity secured. Finally the . . . dispersal of the Christie-Miller Library . . . brought into the book market many of the rarest volumes in the whole range of English literature.

. . . In this library, to which access was difficult and its contents practically unknown, there have lain hidden for decades many books known to be extant but which had completely dropped out of sight. . . . The fields in which the Huntington collections have been made are as follows: (a) English and American Literature. . . . (b) American History, from the discovery of America down to the present time, stress being laid on the period of discovery, exploration, and settlement, especially of the English colonies. . . . [Of California history] the Library probably possesses the best collection of printed books in the State, excepting the Bancroft Library, at Berkeley. (c) Incunabula. A small but representative collection of early printed books, consisting of some five hundred volumes, has been brought together. . . . (d) Miscellaneous. In the library are several small collections on railroads, aeronautics, etc., etc. (e) Manuscripts. A fine collection, of both literary and historical interest has been brought together, some of them being of international importance. . . . Special attention has been paid to collecting books by English authors, printed in English either in England or on the continent prior to . . . 1641. . . . In the Spanish phase of American History the collection contains all procurable editions of the letters of Columbus announcing the discovery of America. Here too are to be found the first Editions, in Spanish and Latin, of the Cortes letters announcing the conquest of Mexico; as well as the original editions of the 'Narratives of the Earliest Circumnavigators.' . . . [The] collection of the Jesuit Relations is as nearly complete as it can be made, most of the volumes being in the original vellum bindings. . . . But it is perhaps in works relating to the exploration and settlement of the original thirteen colonies that the library shows its greatest strength. . . . Works on the American Revolution are to be found in great numbers. . . . Its collection of manuscripts places it in the front rank of manuscript collections in [the United States]. . . . Among documents of great historical importance are the records of the Dutch West India Company, which have never been printed. When they are they will throw an entirely new light on the early history of Manhattan Island."—G. W. Cole, *Huntington Library* (*Library Journal, Sept.* 15, 1922, *pp.* 745-748).

University libraries.—Special collections in libraries.—Technical libraries.—"It is a most serious mistake to believe that the earlier immigration to the American colonies brought only an inferior class—inferior in general culture, in specific education as preparation for the various walks of life, in general appreciation of all those things which appeal to the higher tastes. Our forbears were men of learning, and as a class are to be regarded as far beyond the average immigrant of today. . . . It was this learning and culture on their own part which led these founders of higher education in the new world to reckon libraries as integral and necessary parts of these educational organizations. Until a somewhat recent day, these libraries have continued as they began, growing through the intelligent consideration and large generosity of individuals, graduates and others. . . . The history of the library of any American college or university, even one of somewhat modern date, is almost absolutely identical with the history of every other, because of the similarity in thought and purpose and condition. The smaller libraries of the younger colleges of the west have been built up, and are being built up, through the solicitous care and generous sacrifice of a comparatively few persons, precisely as was true in earlier days of the libraries of the now larger colleges and universities along the eastern coast."—J. H. Canfield, *Library of the American University* (*Public Libraries, Oct.,* 1904, *p.* 385).—"In America . . . it is chiefly the universities whose stock of books is at the service of the scientific world. Besides these, there are special libraries belonging to learned societies, state law libraries, special libraries of government bureaus and of museums [medical libraries, theological libraries], and largest of all the Library of Congress. The collection of such scientific books began at the earliest colonial period, and at first under theological auspices. . . . As early as 1790 the catalog of Harvard College contained 350 pages, of which 150 were taken up by theological works. Harvard has to-day almost a million books, mostly in the department of literature, philology, history, philosophy, and jurisprudence. There are, moreover, in Boston the state library of law, with over a hundred thousand volumes; the Athenaeum, with more than two hundred thousand books; the large scientific library of the Institute of Technology, and many others. Similarly, in other large cities, the university libraries are the nucleus for scientific labors, and are surrounded by admirable special libraries, particularly in New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia. Then, too, the small academic towns, like Princeton, Ithaca, New Haven, and others, have valuable collections of books, which in special subjects are often unique. For many years the American university libraries have been the chief purchasers of the special collections left by deceased European professors. And it often happens, especially through the gift of grateful alumni, that collections of the greatest scientific value, which could not be duplicated, come into the possession even of lesser institutions. In many departments of investigation, Washington takes the lead with the large collection of the various scientific, economic, and technical bureaus of the government. The best known of these is the unique medical library of the War Department."—A. E. Bostwick, *Library and society, pp.* 79-80.—According to Dr. Osler, in 1905, "the greatest medical library in the world . . . is that of the surgeon-general's office in Washington, D. C. It is the great consulting library for the profession throughout the country, and is made particularly accessible through its great liberality in lending books. There is no library in the world so thoroughly well organized as this. Secondly, there is the large and growing group formed by the medical libraries in New York, Boston, Brooklyn, Baltimore and Philadelphia. The library of the College of physicians and surgeons in the last-named city is one of the oldest, if not the oldest, of the medical libraries in the country. The collection contains over 70,000v., and is a very important factor in the medical education of the city. A third group consists of the small medical libraries, containing up to 15,000 and 20,000v., which are to be found in the smaller towns."—*Medical libraries in America* (*Public Libraries, June,* 1905, *p.* 306).—In 1912 the Library of Congress had over 350,000 documents of Nations, States and Municipalities; New York Central Library had 150,000 volumes, and specialized in city documents (40,000 vols.); the John Crerar Library, Chicago, has a nearly complete set of parliamentary papers of Canada, a full set of the Netherlands papers and is especially strong on French economic subjects from the fifteenth to the eighteenth centuries. For the general history of the American

Continents, the Library of Congress and New York Public Library rank highest in the western world; while in the early periods New York ranks with the John Carter Brown Library, Providence, R. I., American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Mass., and the Massachusetts Historical Society, at Boston. The Library of Congress of course leads in many fields. In others, however, it is outranked. For instance, it comes third in incunabula in which the United States is very rich. Harvard University has 900, including a long series of Aldines. Philadelphia has 500, the Library of Congress has 400 volumes. Columbia University library leads in philosophy with 11,149 volumes; Harvard University has 11,058; Cornell University in 1912 had the largest collection of Spinoza literature in existence. In early printed books the Mary Ann Brown Memorial, Providence, R. I., ranks close to the John Ryland Library, Manchester. In theology the Union Theological Seminary, New York, has the Leander Van Ess collection of religion, theology and church history, a very large collection of exegetical theology, the McAlpin collection of British theology, the Gillett collection of American theology, a very large collection of scholastic theology (in which however it is excelled by the Woodstock, Md. College), an unusually fine collection of hymnology and devotional poetry. It also has the Schraeder collection on Assyriology, Semitic language, and allied subjects. The Jewish Theological Seminary has one of the most nearly complete collections of Hebraica in the world, including fifty-seven out of one hundred and one Hebrew incunabula known to exist; the Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati, O., follows it with 25,000 volumes, including the Adler and Kayserling collections, and a large number of oriental prints; New York Public Library contains a special collection relating to the Jewish people, their history and institutions. In collections of Bibles, the University of Chicago leads with the Colwell collection, made for the American Bible Union for use on the American revised version and said to be the finest collection known. New York Public Library, which has an equal number of volumes, is strong in English Bibles before 1700 and Bibles printed on the early presses. The Copinger collection of Latin Bibles in the General Theological Seminary Library, New York, is larger than the collections in either the British Museum or the Bibliothèque Nationale. Harvard University ranks next to New York Public Library in North American history, genealogy, and geography. The New York Public Library collection, however, is important not only because of its extent, but for its easy accessibility to the general student. It has about 50,000 volumes on this subject alone and includes the Lenox, Cogswell, Bancroft, Emmett, Myers, Ford and Tilden and other smaller collections. For special periods in United States history, Johns Hopkins, Baltimore, Md., has a collection of 50,000 pamphlets chiefly on southern history and the Civil War. The Columbus Memorial Library, Washington, D. C., has the most important collection of publications relating to Latin America, followed by Harvard University, and Yale. Harvard leads in the history of France, Germany and Great Britain, especially Germany. Cornell, however, has the finest collection of books on the French Revolution outside of France, while the Columbia University collection for the same period is of almost equal importance, and New York Public Library has a very fine collection of general French history. Harvard and New York are also rich in the history of Italy, and New York in the history of Ireland. The Library of Congress owns the famous Yudin collection of Russica and Siberica—about 80,000 volumes, including literature and history. It is also rich in the possession of a very fine Chinese library, and an important collection of Japanese books. Yale is also strong in the history of Japan, and Harvard owns what is probably the finest collection of works on the Ottoman empire. Harvard also has what is said to be the largest collection of folklore and medieval romances in existence. The Coast and Geodetic Survey has a very important collection of works on American geography in general and boundary and coast survey work in particular. The Library of Congress, however, has the largest collection of maps, charts and atlases in America, and the New York Public Library has a collection of 18,000 volumes, including sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth century voyages. The Interstate Commerce Commission has a fine library relating to transportation, including reports of various kinds, manuals, treatises, laws and decisions all coming under the head of original sources. The Philadelphia Museum Library has an important collection of 20,000 books and 45,000 pamphlets, including Chamber of Commerce and Consular reports tariffs, trade papers and magazines, geographical journals and directories. The Insurance Library Association, Boston, and New York Public Library have the largest number of works on insurance. Harvard University has the greatest law library in the United States, 126,051 volumes and 14,256 pamphlets. In music, and literature on music the Library of Congress, New York Public Library, Boston Public Library, Newberry Public Library, and Yale University are all very important. In art and architecture New York City ranks very high, counting together the New York Public Library, Avery Library of Architecture, Columbia University, and the Metropolitan Museum of Art. In language and literature New York Public Library, Harvard University, Newberry Library, Chicago, Cornell University (Bopp collection of Comparative Philology), and the University of Pennsylvania (Pott collection), have rich collections of philological works. In literature the universities naturally lead. Of special collections Cornell is said to have the finest collection of Dante literature in existence, excepting perhaps the Biblioteca Nazionale at Florence. It also has a fine Petrarch collection, and the richest Rhaeto-Romanic collection in America. The Boston Public Library has one of the best Shakespeare collections in existence. In German literature Pennsylvania, Cornell and Columbia are of great importance.—Based on United States Bureau of Education, *Special collections in libraries in the United States, Bulletin no. 23, whole number,* 495.

Among technical libraries "The library of the American Society of Civil Engineers has [1914] a collection of more than 80,000 books, pamphlets, and maps, and receives regularly 350 periodicals and society publications. It has a large collection of specifications and is especially strong in historical material relating to railways and waterways, municipal reports, and material on the geology of the United States. . . . The library of the engineering societies contains the libraries of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, American Institute of Electrical Engineers, and the American Institute of Mining Engineers. . . . The library of the Chemists' Club [was in 1914] . . . the largest chemical library in America. These three libraries . . . establish New York City as the library headquarters of American engineers. . . . [Boston in addition to the library

of the Institute of Technology has] the library of the Engineers' Club . . . and several valuable private engineering libraries. . . . [See below: Special libraries.] Pittsburgh with its Carnegie Library probably represents the American city that is best serving the community in the field of technology. Its library comprises about 60,000 volumes on technology, of which 39,213 are in the technology reference collection. It receives more than 400 scientific, technical, and trade journals, of which 260 are included in a card index covering the period from 1906 to date; receives about 100 'house organs'; and has a collection of more than 6,000 trade catalogues. . . . In addition to its monthly bulletin it has issued several important bibliographies on engineering subjects. . . . The city of Chicago is rapidly assuming preëminence among the technical libraries of the country by virtue of the John Crerar Library. . . . Philadelphia has the library of the Franklin Institute with its extensive collection of engineering periodicals and patent office reports and the Wm. B. Stephens Memorial Library, Manayunk. . . . New Bedford boasts of a complete collection of literature pertaining to the textile industries. Providence is known as having an excellent college library in engineering. . . . Several are printing bulletins. . . . Franklin Institute, Pratt Institute, and the public libraries of New York, Pittsburgh, and Cleveland issue such pamphlets. . . . Several bibliographies of importance to engineers have been issued by the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, New York Public Library, and the John Crerar Library. . . . In some of the libraries are found the collections made by certain prominent scientists. . . . For instance, the following collections on electricity are found: the Latimer Clark in the Engineering Societies Library, the Dr. Gustav Wiedermann in the John Crerar Library, and the Park Benjamin in the United States Naval Academy."—J. M. Telleen, *Printed engineering resources* (reprinted from the *Bulletin of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, no. 3, pp. 21-24, 26*).

Special libraries.—If we include the learned professions, the arts and sciences, special libraries are no new thing. But as connoted in the phraseology of the day, that is, as meaning libraries which for the most part confine themselves to the literature of one particular branch of industry, trade, or commerce, the special library movement is of comparatively recent growth. The movement is also of rapid growth. "The New York public library itself has found the necessity for a municipal library which is not a branch, as the term is ordinarily understood, but a special collection associated with the city government in the way in which these business libraries are with business firms [and maintained in the municipal building]. . . . There were of course prior to 1909 a considerable number of libraries now characterized as 'special.' Among these might be mentioned those connected with the firm of Harvey Fisk, Arthur D. Little, Inc., Stone & Webster, and the Insurance Library Association of Boston. . . . [Nevertheless] in a paper read in May, 1913, St. Elmo Lewis . . . made this remarkable statement: 'Five years ago if you had proposed to some manufacturers that they establish a library in which would be filed all of the data, experience, and knowledge of all of the organization, they would have probably made some reflections upon the sanity of the gentlemen who had proposed the idea.' . . . But there suddenly loomed up libraries such as those of the American Brass Company, the Studebaker Corporation, the United Gas Improvement Company, and the New York Merchants Association, in the East, and the A. L. Drummond Company, the A. W. Shaw Company, and H. M. Byllesby & Company, in the West, to name but a few, and this sudden accession to the special libraries of Boston and New York led to the discussion . . . at the meeting of the American Library Association at Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, June, 1909, of the project to form a Special Libraries Association. Before the end of that conference John Cotton Dana was able to announce that 45 libraries of sixteen different interests connected with business or commercial houses, boards of trade, and municipal and legislative reference bureaus had conferred and drawn up a tentative form of organization. . . . A large part of the work of the Association is accomplished through committees. Such committees have been appointed for libraries of associated classes such as agricultural libraries, business libraries, commercial associations, insurance libraries, legislative and municipal reference libraries, public utility libraries, sociological libraries, technological libraries. Others have been formed for special subjects of large interest to the members of the Association. . . . One of the best examples of the kind of library engaged in special library work is the legislative reference library. . . . The first work of this kind was initiated at the New York State library when Melvil Dewey in 1890 appointed a legislative reference librarian and secured funds for the digest of the current legislation in all the states of the Union. The work by which this bureau is best known is its *Annual Index and Digest of Legislation*. In 1902 Wisconsin established a similar bureau with an annual appropriation of $1,500. . . . The success of Wisconsin led to the establishment of similar bureaus during 1907 in connection with the legislatures of Indiana, Michigan, North and South Dakota, and in 1909 in Texas, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania, followed in 1910 by Ohio and Kansas, in 1911 by Nebraska, in 1913 by Illinois and California, and in 1914 by Virginia. Alabama in 1907 added to the duties of the Department of Archives and History 'the bringing together and arranging for ready consultation a reference collection of material for the use of members and others on subjects of public interest and importance to the people of the state,' and Massachusetts and Nebraska also have appropriations for legislative reference work. The University of Washington has also established a bureau of legislative reference for the benefit of the legislators which, while similar in purpose to those mentioned above, is only indirectly sustained by the funds of the legislature. The demonstration of the value of these legislative reference bureaus led to the creation in Baltimore in 1906 of a similar library for the use of the city government. There are now similar departments in Philadelphia, St. Louis, Milwaukee, Chicago, Minneapolis, Newark, New Jersey, Oakland, and in 1913 Cincinnati, Portland, Oregon, and New York City were added. . . . Legislative and municipal reference libraries are, of course, the most general libraries within the scope of the Special Libraries Association. . . . Among the libraries more limited in their scope may be mentioned those associated with banking and financial firms. Effective libraries are associated with Harvey Fisk & Sons, F. J. Lisman & Company, Kountze Brothers, National City Bank, American Bankers Association, and the Old Colony Trust Company. Such libraries have demonstrated their value as a business asset. The bank or financial house may never have seen the railroad or industrial under-

taking which it is nevertheless ready to finance. Why? The library associated with the business has furnished it with all the information on which it bases its judgment. . . . Still another important financial interest, that of insurance, has found the value of special libraries, and examples may be cited of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, the Association of Life Insurance Presidents, the Insurance Library Association of Boston, the Insurance Society of New York, the Prudential Life Insurance Company, and the Fidelity Life Insurance Company. In manufacturing, business libraries are maintained by the General Electric Company, the Dodge Manufacturing Company, the B. F. Goodrich Company, the Firestone Tire & Rubber Company, the United Drug Company of Boston, the New Jersey Zinc Company, the New York Ship-Building Company, the Crane Company, and the National Cash Register Company. Among public utilities may be mentioned the American Telephone & Telegraph Company, . . . the United Gas Improvement Company, the Boston Consolidated Gas Company, the Public Service Corporation of New Jersey, the Commonwealth Edison Company, the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company, the Philadelphia Electric Company, and the Detroit United Railways Company. Associated with this class of library must also be mentioned the libraries maintained by the Massachusetts Public Service Commission and the New York Public Service Commission for the First District. Technical and scientific libraries are represented by the Arthur D. Little, Inc., library, the Solvay Process library, the library of the Chemists' Club of New York, the Society of Western Engineers library, the library of the American Society of Civil Engineers, and the library of Engineering Societies. There might also be listed the business libraries of William Filene Sons and Marshall Field & Co., the Social Service library, the Investors Agency library, the Philadelphia Commercial Museum library, the American Institute of Social Service library, and the Bureau of Railway Economics library, but we cannot here do more than suggest the wide range of subjects represented by the membership of the Special Libraries Association."—R. H. Johnston, *Special libraries* (reprint of *Manual of Library Economy, ch.* 8, *pp.* 1, 3-11). —In 1916 there were over 400 special libraries in the United States, and their number was constantly increasing.

Also in: A. E. Bostwick, *American public library, p.* 124.—J. A. Fairlie, *Municipal reference libraries, pp.* 35-36.—*Library Journal, Nov.,* 1916.

State libraries.—"It is the province of the state library to accumulate primarily all the record literature, as Dr. Hodges has termed it, of the state itself. For that area it is the library of archive. Everything in print and in manuscript which records or exhibits the origin, progress and activities of the state as a whole, or of any of the districts which make up the state, or of any of the communities for which the state legislature may have to legislate, must be appropriate to the library of the state. And as it is the primary duty of the state library to assist the state legislature, we may add to this material any that exhibits what legislation is enacted or proposed in any other state, and indeed in any other community having analogous problems with which legislation must deal, or which legislation has found it wisest to let alone. There is thus included all the statute law of the home state, most if not all of the statute law of other states, and some of the statute law of other countries. . . . Finally, the state library must have as complete as possible a representation of the material which exhibits the statute law enacted or proposed for the country as a whole. This is indispensable because of the relation of the state to the federal government."—H. Putnam, *Relation of state libraries and the Library of Congress* (*Library Journal, Dec.,* 1900, *p.* 729).—"The New York State Library is located at Albany, . . . [in] the State House. It owes its origin to an act of the Legislature passed in 1818, and has grown to such dimensions that it is recognised as one of the great collections of the United States, and ranks with the important libraries of the world. As the name implies, it is a Library for the use of the whole State of New York, and supplements and aids in various ways the local libraries throughout the State. The scope of the Library work has been frequently extended, and it is now really one of the State Educational Departments. . . . The departments include a Law Library, numbering [in 1908] 82,000 volumes, which is one of the oldest and most valuable collections in the country. A Medical Library contains [1908] over 17,000 volumes and about 7,500 pamphlets, and a large number of periodicals relating to medical subjects. Registered physicians in the State can have material collected on any subject either to be used in the library or sent to their homes. Although the Library is primarily a reference library, the privilege of borrowing books is extending."—*Report of a visit to libraries in the United States and Canada by representatives of the Manchester Libraries Committee,* 1908, *pp.* 26, 27.

County libraries.—"The county library system is receiving attention from both educators and librarians, who recommend it as the best method of making books available to a rural population. The California county library law, as the most thoroughgoing of the more recent laws, has attracted widespread interest. It makes possible the rural use of libraries already in existence, provides for the establishment of county libraries where they are needed, which will carry on the rural extension work hitherto administered by the state library, and makes the county the unit of taxation. The county librarian, who must be certificated by a state board of examiners, does the work originally undertaken by the state, such as installing new systems in old libraries and cataloguing small libraries. . . . The New York county library law of 1911 . . . [had in 1917] accomplished nothing owing to the fact that under its provisions the property of any city or town now maintaining a library may be taxed again if the library service is extended to the county. Several of the states have one or two county libraries organized under special acts, or endowed, and there are several town libraries which furnish service to the county in which they are situated. . . . The Oregon law of 1915 establishing branches of county libraries, provides that cities in which county branch libraries may be erected shall guarantee to provide a maintenance fund equal to and not less than 10 per cent of the cost of the branch library building and shall also provide the site."—S. H. Powell, *Children's library, pp.* 154-156.

Americanization work. See Americanization: Coöperation by the libraries.

Use as social centers. See Recreation: 1914-1921: Rapid development of municipal recreation.

Traveling libraries.—"Traveling libraries sent out by a state are usually managed by the state library commission, if there is one; by the State Librarian, as in Virginia; or sometimes by a special committee appointed for the purpose, as in Kansas. . . . In some libraries a special stock of

books, with a special force of trained assistants, is set apart for this work alone. Thus in New York the Traveling Library Office of the Public Library uses a stock of 90,000 books and employs seventeen assistants. It circulated 800,000 volumes in the year 1916, through 900 collections, stationed at schools, public and private; at fire-engine houses, factories, stores, Sunday schools, in rural communities, summer camps, settlements, hospitals, and so on."—A. E. Bostwick, *American public library, p.* 108.—See also MINNESOTA: 1849-1899.

Training of librarians. — "The first formal course [for the training of librarians] was organized in the library of Columbia University, New York, by its librarian, Dr. Melvil Dewey, in 1887. Since that time such courses have multiplied greatly, and they may at the present time be divided into three classes: library schools, summer schools, and training classes. (1) Library schools may be affiliated with a university or some other educational institution, or with a library. Thus the Pratt Institute school, in Brooklyn, is a department of Pratt Institute; the University of Illinois school, the Syracuse University school, the Simmons College school, in Boston; the Western Reserve school, in Cleveland, are all parts of the institutions whose names they bear. On the other hand, the Southern Training School is an adjunct of the Carnegie Library at Atlanta, Ga.; the Albany school, of the New York State Library; the Pittsburgh school for children's librarians, of the Carnegie Library in that city, and so on."—A. E. Bostwick, *American public library, pp.* 330-331.—"Six weeks' courses in library methods are given at the summer schools of the state universities of Washington, North Carolina, Iowa, Missouri and Minnesota. The state library commission gives the library course at the three normal schools in Michigan, and a course of about ninety lectures is given at Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana. The library school of the University of Wisconsin is an outgrowth of the library commission's school of instruction."—S. H. Powell, *Children's library, pp.* 221-222.

Libraries for the blind.—"In 1882 Mr. John P. Rhoades of Philadelphia, treasurer of the Pennsylvania Bible Society, formed a Home Teaching Society for the Blind and from the Bible House superintended the library from which the Moon type books were lent to blind readers. In 1898 this library was reorganized and in 1901 incorporated with the Free Library of Philadelphia under the name of the Pennsylvania Home Teaching Society and Free Circulating Library for the Blind, which now has the second largest collection of embossed type books in this country. The Home Teaching Society for the Blind of Chicago was established in 1882 by Dr. and Miss Moon, and in 1894 the books were handed over to the Chicago Public Library. In July 1885, the Circulating Library for the Blind of the State of New York was incorporated through the efforts of several young women of New York City and its vicinity who had recently been graduated from the New York Blind Asylum. . . . This little library and the New York Free Circulating Library for the Blind, which was founded in 1895 by a blind man, Richard Randall Ferry of New York City . . . were the forerunners and the nuclei of the largest collection of embossed type books in this country—that of the Library for the Blind of New York Public Library which was opened in February 1903. Dr. Bernard C. Steiner of the Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore reported in 1894 that his library had bought sixty or seventy books for the blind and that 'they proved useful.' This collection now numbers between 1,700 and 2,000 volumes. The New York State Library for the Blind was founded in March 1896. It was the first of the five state libraries which now have departments for the blind and has the third largest collection of books for the blind in the country. In 1896 the Detroit Public Library placed 110 volumes on its shelves. The reading-room for the blind in the Library of Congress was opened in 1897. . . . There are now between 60 and 70 libraries owning and circulating embossed type books."—M. C. Chamberlain, *Library work with the blind* (reprint of *Manual of Library Economy, ch.* 30, *pp.* 1-3).—By 1904 the public libraries of Cincinnati, O., Cleveland, O., Dayton, O., Detroit, Mich., Hartford, Conn., Lynn, Mass., Minneapolis, Minn., New York, N. Y., Newark, N. J., Philadelphia, Pa., Providence, R. I., St. Joseph, Mo., St. Louis, Mo., San Francisco, Cal., had all made provision, in special reading rooms or otherwise, for the blind.

American Library Association.—Affiliated societies.—"The American Library Association was organized in Philadelphia on October 6, 1876, following a national conference of librarians held in connection with the Centennial Exposition of that year. This was not the earliest convention of the kind in . . . [the United States]. In 1853 a conference of eighty librarians and others interested in bibliography was held in New York, largely as a result of the efforts of Prof. Charles C. Jewett, of the Smithsonian Institution, who was elected president of the conference. . . . A committee was appointed to effect an organization, but there was no subsequent meeting until twenty-three years later, when the Philadelphia conference, mentioned above, met in response to a call signed by prominent librarians and adopted the first constitution of the American Library Association, enrolling 103 members. . . . The organization of the Association attracted attention abroad, and the result was the assemblage of an international librarians' conference in London in 1877 and the founding of the Library Association of the United Kingdom."—A. E. Bostwick, *American public library, pp.* 343, 344.—The Association opened a distinctly new era in the history of American libraries and it may be said of libraries throughout the English-speaking world. It has been the means of bringing large numbers of the librarians of the country together every year, making common property of their experience, their knowledge, their ideas,—animating them with a common spirit, and enlisting them in important undertakings of coöperative work. Almost simultaneously with the Philadelphia meeting, but earlier, there was issued the first number of a "Library Journal," called into being by the sagacious energy of the same small band of pioneers who planned and brought about the conference. The Library Journal became the organ of the American Library Association, and each was stimulated and sustained by the other. Their combined influence has acted powerfully upon those engaged in the work of American libraries, to elevate their aims, to increase their efficiency, and to make their avocation a recognized profession, exacting well-defined qualifications. The general result among the libraries of the country has been an increase of public usefulness beyond measure. To this renaissance in the library world many persons contributed; but its leading spirits were Melvil Dewey, Director of the New York State Library; Justin Winsor, Librarian of Harvard University; William F. Poole, LL.D., Librarian of the Newberry Library and formerly of the Chicago Public Library; Charles A. Cutter,

Librarian of the Boston Athenæum; Frederick Leypoldt, first publisher of the "Library Journal," and his successor, R. R. Bowker. The new library spirit was happily defined by James Russell Lowell, in his address delivered at the opening of a free public library in Chelsea, Mass., and published in the volume of his works entitled "Democracy and Other Addresses": "Formerly," he said, "the duty of a librarian was considered too much that of a watch-dog, to keep people as much as possible away from the books, and to hand these over to his successor as little worn by use as he could. Librarians now, it is pleasant to see, have a different notion of their trust, and are in the habit of preparing, for the direction of the inexperienced, lists of such books as they think best worth reading. Cataloguing has also, thanks in great measure to American librarians, become a science, and catalogues, ceasing to be labyrinths without a clew, are furnished with finger-posts at every turn. Subject catalogues again save the beginner a vast deal of time and trouble by supplying him for nothing with one at least of the results of thorough scholarship, the knowing where to look for what he wants. I do not mean by this that there is or can be any short cut to learning, but that there may be, and is, such a short cut to information that will make learning more easily accessible." The organization of the American Library Association led to the formation, in 1877, of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, which was incident to the meeting of an international conference of Librarians held in London. "Since its organization in 1876 the [American Library] Association has held yearly conferences [written in 1917], with the exception of the years 1878 and 1884. The attendance has varied from 32 in the Catskills, in 1888, to 1,386 at Asbury Park, N. J., in 1916, being largely dependent on locality. . . . [The membership] in 1916 had reached 4,124. . . . Permanent official headquarters for the Association, after a discussion lasting for several years . . . had been opened tentatively in Boston in 1906, in conjunction with the offices of the Publishing Board, and placed in charge of an executive officer. In 1908 they were temporarily discontinued, owing to lack of funds, and in 1909 an offer from the Chicago Public Library to place at the Association's disposal for this purpose space in its library building was accepted. . . . The official headquarters is also the office of the Publishing Board, one of the Association's most active and useful adjuncts. This was organized in 1886 as a section of the Association. . . . The board's work was greatly extended in 1902 by a donation of $100,000 from Andrew Carnegie, the income of which is to be used in preparing and publishing library aids. This and other smaller sums are held and administered by three elected trustees. The publications of the board are sold, like those of any publishing house, largely to librarians. They include lists, guides, indexes, catalogues, 'library tracts,' and several series of printed catalogue cards. It also issues the A. L. A. *Book List* and the A. L. A. *Bulletin*, the Association's organ, established in 1907, one number of which includes the Proceedings and another the Handbook. The policy of organizing sections, begun in 1886, was continued by the establishment of the College and Reference Section in 1889, the Trustees' Section in 1890, the Catalogue Section in 1900, the Children's Section in 1900, the Training Section in 1909, the Agricultural Libraries Section in 1911, and the School Libraries Section in 1915. Affiliated societies, which resemble sections, except that they have an independent organization, are the National Association of State Libraries . . . the League of Library Commissions, the American Association of Law Libraries, and the Special Libraries Association. These meet with the Association, and their proceedings are published together with those of the larger body. State Library Associations are now also admitted to affiliation, and in 1916 nineteen such bodies were represented in the Council. . . . The state library associations have taken a greater or less part in library affairs within their respective states according to the ideas, ability, and energy of those who have organized and administered them. . . . In some states the state associations have entered into active campaigns for the enactment of state library laws, for the creation of library commissions and the appointment of expert and efficient commissioners, for the requirement by law of licenses for librarians as well as for teachers, and so on."—A. E. Bostwick, *American public library, pp.* 344-349.

Effects of the World War.—American Library Association service.—"Very soon after the entrance of the United States into the World War, the American Library Association was entrusted by the Government with the work of furnishing books for the soldiers, who were being trained for service overseas. Dr. Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, became the general director of the war service work and headquarters were established in the Congressional Library of Washington. By the help of generous private subscriptions, plain wooden structures were erected in the autumn of 1917 at each of the cantonments."—American Library in Paris, Inc., *Year Book*, 1921, *p.* 9.—"The president of the American Library Association appointed a War Service Committee which made its first report at the annual conference of the Association at Louisville in June, 1917. . . . The systematic work of the A. L. A. for the American Expeditionary Forces began in January, 1918, when a Dispatch Office was established at Hoboken for the purpose of assembling books and shipping them on transports. The books sent in this way were placed in Y. M. C. A. huts or distributed directly to the men themselves. . . . To further the overseas work additional dispatch offices were established in the United States, at Newport News, Boston, Philadelphia, and New York. Every available means of getting books to France was used. . . . The records show that up to February 1, 1919, libraries had been established in six hundred and thirty-eight Y. M. C. A. centers, in the forty Knights of Columbus centers, in forty-one Salvation Army centers, in twelve Y. W. C. A. centers, and in five Jewish Welfare Board centers, as well as with a number of miscellaneous welfare organizations. . . . Each section of the American Ambulance Service had been given a book collection; similar service had been extended to the Americans in the Polish army and the Mallet Reserve, and two hundred and sixty-four military organizations in the A. E. F. had been provided for libraries. By March, the number of books sent overseas had passed the two million mark. Books were sent . . . also to the American troops in England, Italy, Archangel, and Vladivostock, and to American prisoners in Germany."—T. W. Koch, *Books in the war, pp.* 5-6, 86, 93-94.—By the end of March 1918 "it was found necessary to establish European [library] headquarters at Paris in April. A few months later, permanent quarters were secured at No. 10, rue de l'Elysée, in what was once the residence of the Papal Legate, and a central library was installed there. . . . This Library, which comprised at first some ten thousand volumes, was the nucleus of the present American

Library in Paris. . . . After the signing of the armistice the library became even more useful to the men during the long delay incident to demobilization. . . . Meanwhile the doors of the library had been thrown open to the public as well, and but little time had elapsed before hundreds of American and British residents, and French readers of English also, discovered that here was a model library, containing 25,000 well selected books, to which access was of the easiest, no formalities being required and no further introduction being needed than the mere desire to read. When therefore, it was learned that, as a consequence of the return of the American troops, the library was to be closed and its contents were to be sent back to America, something like consternation ensued among those who had so quickly become dependent upon its privileges. Mr. Stevenson then announced that the American Library Association would be willing to leave the books and library equipment in Paris if sufficient local interest existed to assure its maintenance on a proper scale. Several meetings were held at the Library in October 1919, attended by prominent residents of Paris, of various nationalities, and a Committee on Permanent Organization was appointed. . . . [The result was the organization of the American Library in Paris, Inc., which was incorporated in 1920 under the laws of the State of Delaware with headquarters at Wilmington. The Library 1920] contains approximately 30,000 volumes, all of which are catalogued and classified up to date."—American Library in Paris, Inc., *Year Book,* 1921, *pp.* 9-11, 18.

Administration

Early methods.—Naudé's work.—Monastic libraries.—"For the library of Pergamos, Eumenes the Second tried to secure the services of Aristophanes of Byzantium, librarian to Ptolemy the Fifth. To assure his remaining in Alexandria the librarian was cast in prison, a simple device for keeping an efficient worker when he had a call elsewhere. But . . . [here] we can concern ourselves only with librarians who have come on to the scene since the invention of printing. In 1475 Pope Sixtus the Fourth made Platina librarian of the newly organized Vatican Library. Platina's account-book has been preserved and published, and from this can be seen the varied nature of his duties. The librarian had to attend to the purchase of books, send out copyists, procure skins for binding, and supervise the making of books as well as their use. He had charge of the reading-room in which the books were chained to the desks, and was allowed discretionary power in the lending of books to high officials of the Church, to scholars, and even to strangers sojourning in Rome. . . . Montaigne, in the Journal of his travels in Italy in 1581, says that he inspected the Vatican Library without any difficulty, 'Indeed,' he adds, 'any one may visit it and make what extracts he likes; it is open almost every morning. . . . Gabriel Naudé . . . was destined to build up for Cardinal Mazarin a library which outstripped the one belonging to the King. In 1642 Naudé was invited to return to his native city of Paris and begin the task of laying the foundations of a new public library. Naudé had previously catalogued the library of Descordes, a Canon of Limoges, who had died, leaving his collection of 6,000 volumes to be sold, and Naudé prevailed upon Mazarin to purchase the entire lot. . . . Naudé had been at his task but little more than a year when there was opened in the Mazarin Palace a public library larger than anything that had been seen before in the French capital. The reading-room was opened once a week on Thursdays, from eight until eleven and from two until five. Naudé himself counted as many as from eighty to a hundred readers, among whom were such scholars as Hugo Grotius, Aubrey, the historian, and René Moreau, Professor of Medicine at the University of Paris. . . . The Bishop of Worcester in 1464 stipulated that his librarian be a graduate in theology and a good preacher, and in addition he was expected to explain hard passages in the Bible, make lists of books in his keeping, and take an inventory of the library each year on the Friday after the Feast of Relics."—T. W. Koch, *Some old-time old-world librarians (reprinted from the North American Review for August, 1914, pp. 1-2, 4-5, 7).*—"The monastic libraries were small, . . . the readers few [and administration easy]. Books were loaned from monastery to monastery. They were distributed once a year, at the Lenten season. As each borrower returned his book he was catechised as to its contents. If the examination was satisfactory he was allowed another book for the coming year; if not, he must take his old book again. One not a member of the order of St. Benedict, or an *attaché* of Cluny or Canterbury, could procure the coveted treasure, sometimes, by pledging to return with the manuscript borrowed a full transcription. Library economy in these ages was very simple. Catalogues were little more than inventories. . . . The absolute or fixed system of shelving was in vogue, the books being held in their places by chains. . . . When the Bodleian library was founded it was stipulated by law that under no pretence should any book be lent to any one. . . . The books were there for use, there can be no question; and in the Bodleian, to which we have just referred, a person could have six books at a time to consult, and the library was open for six hours during the day. About 1650 Humphrey Chetham bequeathed £1,000 for a public library in Manchester, England. He was a firm adherent of the fixed location. 'My mind and will is,' he says, 'that care be taken that none of said books be fixed or chained.' "—A. E. Bostwick, *Library and society, pp.* 352-353, 361.

Cataloguing and classification in the nineteenth century.—Dewey system.—Bibliographies.—"The latter half of the nineteenth century witnessed a great improvement in the organization and administration of public libraries, and with this improvement came the development of elaborate codes of catalogue rules. . . . [A draft set of the famous ninety-one Rules of the British Museum], was presented to the trustees in March, 1839, by . . . Anthony Panizzi, keeper of printed books at the time. This code forms the basis for all systems of scientific cataloguing. . . . Besides the Rules of the British Museum, other systems have materially helped the committees in forming the present joint code, viz., Professor Jewitt's Rules, published in 1853, and those of F. B. Perkins, in 1869—both systems being modifications of the British Museum Rules; the extensive 'Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue' of [C. A.] Cutter, issued in 1876—probably the first serious attempt to put forth a set of rules in a systematic manner. . . . [The Dewey system was published in 1876; the rules of the United Kingdom Association in 1878]; the Bodleian Library Rules in 1882; Dziatzko's Instruction . . . in 1886; Linderfelt's adaptation of Dziatzko in 1890."—G. R. Bolton, *Anglo-American joint code of cataloguing rules, 1908 (Library World, Apr.,* 1910).—"The Dewey system [the work of Dr. Melvil Dewey] . . . begun

in 1873, published in 1876, reached its fourth edition in 1891, and its ninth in 1915. . . . The Expansive Classification was not published [except in a preliminary way] until 1891, and the sixth expansion was included in 1893. The seventh, including 10,000 subdivisions, has recently been issued [written in 1917]."—A. E. Bostwick, *American public library, pp.* 163-165.—"In September . . . [1877] the American Library Association appointed a committee . . . to consider the preparation of a set of rules, the full text of which was submitted at the Buffalo Conference in 1883, and afterwards reprinted in Cutter's 'Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue.' The question of co-operative cataloguing . . . [which had come up in 1877, continued to engage, and finally, a committee, was apointed by the American Library Association in December 1900. The cataloguing rules of the United Kingdom Association were revised in 1904. The same year this association made a proposal to the American Library Association for the preparation of an Anglo-American code. In 1906 this cataloguing code was sufficiently advanced] to warrant definite arrangements being made for printing a draft of the Code. . . . The present code is founded on the Rules of Cutter, the Library of Congress and Linderfelt's Rules, with certain modifications in each case. . . . [The aim being] to create uniformity of practice throughout the English-speaking race."—G. R. Bolton, *Anglo-American joint code of cataloguing rules, 1908* (*Library World, Apr.,* 1910).—"In 1915 the A. L. A., with the consent of Dr. Dewey, provided for an advisory committee to aid him in preparing future editions, [of his system]. Probably it is used today [1917] by several thousand libraries—more than ever used a single system before—not only in this country, but in Europe, where its adoption by the Brussels Institute of Bibliography has aided much in giving it vogue. Its Brussels adopters have much enlarged its possibilities by combining the notations of various classes to denote the relationships of the title classified. . . . The classification used in the Library of Congress, which is somewhat familiar to other [libraries follows the Cutter system]. . . . One or another of these is usually adopted in a new library, and some of the older and larger libraries are changing over to them."—A. E. Bostwick, *American public library, pp.* 164, 157.—The Bodleian library is a good instance of a great library which in its present state shows examples of both the old and new systems. In 1882 the library was old-fashioned. Coxe had indeed done much by introducing a scheme of classification, by beginning a new catalogue of printed books, by starting a series of catalogues of MSS. . . . But the place was still run rather on the principle that so long as the librarian or one of the assistants knew where each particular book was, well, what more could you want? . . . Nicholson [who was then appointed] would have liked to use the Dewey system, but he was hampered by the existing scheme. . . . He therefore developed his own system, fitting it on to the old, largely increasing the number of classes and providing for almost infinite subdivision. . . . For MSS. he adopted a different classification, by language, in the case of new acquisitions. The old collections were left as before, under the names of former owners, such as Laud and Pococke. . . . He revised the cataloguing rules, very much in the form in which . . . [they are still used]. He made it a principle to catalogue everything, and to include all printed matter in one general catalogue. . . . It has long been a dream of Librarians to print this in its entirety as the British Museum catalogue is printed, and Nicholson had begun a very thorough revision of it with this end in view. . . . Mr. Madan had continued the work, as far as it was possible to do so under war conditions. But the catalogue [which in 1921 filled nearly 1,200 thick folio volumes] still seemed as far as ever from getting printed."—A. E. Cowley, *Recent history of the Bodleian Library* (*Library Association Record, Oct.* 15, 1921).

"In any library the card catalog is the main bibliographical and reference tool for that particular library. . . . Generally the bibliographic work which a library puts into its card catalog is useful only to its immediate clientèle, but . . . certain [great] libraries have issued printed catalogs which form important and useful bibliographies. The most important of these is the great author catalogue of the British Museum which was for long the most complete and useful general bibliography in existence and is now rivaled only by the growing card catalog of the Library of Congress and the still unfinished book catalog of the Bibliothèque nationale. Other printed library catalogs which represent important contributions to bibliography are the catalogs of the Advocates' library at Edinburgh, the London library, the Peabody Institute at Baltimore, the Boston Athenæum, the New York public library, [John Crerar, Chicago university, and Harvard library], and the great *Index-Catalogue* of the Surgeon-General's library in Washington. . . . Certain libraries possessing important special collections have issued printed catalogs of such collections which form valuable contributions to subject bibliography. . . . Among the best bibliographies of this type are catalogs of the Dante and Icelandic collections at Cornell, of the Shakspere, Spanish, Music, and Architecture collections in the Boston public library; of the collections of Atlases, Maps, Operas, etc., in the Library of Congress; of Romances, Early printed books, and Natural history in the British Museum, and many others. . . . The two American libraries which are now doing most for bibliography by publishing catalogs of their special collections are the Library of Congress and the New York public library. . . . The bibliographical societies whose work is of most general interest to librarians are the Bibliographical society, London; the Bibliographical society of America [1904], the Société française de bibliographie [1906]; the Deutsche bibliographische Gesellschaft [1902]; and the Institut international de bibliographie, at Brussels [1895]. The Bibliographical society, London, founded in 1892, is the oldest and so far the most successful of the bibliographical societies mentioned. It has issued three series of publications of permanent value: (1) Transactions, which contain papers read at the meetings, proceedings, news notes, lists of bibliographies, and occasional bibliographies themselves; (2) an octavo series of separate publications which includes some very valuable bibliographies on subjects in English literature and early English bibliography; and (3) a quarto series of illustrated monographs, mostly on subjects connected with the history of printing. . . . The Bibliographical society of America was founded in 1904 as a continuation on a national scale of the Bibliographical society of Chicago."—I. G. Mudge, *Bibliography* (*Manual of Library Economy, ch.* 24, *pp.* 15-16, 19).—The Institut International de Bibliographie . . . [of Brussels] is located in a vast building devoted to practical bibliography and bibliographical methods, having about 800 libraries, societies, authorities, etc., associated with it as members, and supported not only by their subscriptions, but also by regular subventions from

the Belgian Government. . . . Picture a room about eighty feet long containing four ranks of card cabinets reaching to a height of seven feet. That is the repertory of bibliography. Two of the ranks contain author-entries, two subject-entries. The whole contains twelve million cards. The far-away goal of the founders is to produce a catalogue of all books and literary pieces, of all ages and of all times."—*Proceedings of the forty-fourth annual conference of* [*British*] *Library Association* (*Library Association Record, Nov.* 15, 1921).

Administration of some great libraries.—Library administration is admittedly better in the United States than in any other country. Here "the two systems of classification most in use in . . . public libraries, especially those of medium size and those whose collections have been recently formed, are the Decimal of Melvil Dewey and the Expansive of Charles A. Cutter. . . . In special libraries, where the books are largely in some one class or subclass, further subdivision, with an expanded notation, is often necessary."—A. E. Bostwick, *American public library, p.* 162.—"In American libraries generally there are separate rooms for distinctive collections—*e.g.*, art books, music, technical works, patents, parliamentary and state papers, maps and prints, and also for special collections which have been presented or bequeathed. . . . The tendency in American libraries is to reduce the expenditure on newspapers. In only a limited number of libraries are they taken though local papers are filed for reference. . . . The greater proportion of the volumes in central libraries is available for lending, and in . . . [most libraries] there is much freedom of access to the shelves. . . . In all large libraries it is customary to divide the staff into three or more groups. The main departments are: (1) General administration; (2) public service—*i.e.*, issuing and registering books in the reference and lending divisions, and work connected with travelling libraries; (3) the cataloguing department—this embraces, besides the important bibliographical work of preparing catalogues, special lists, bulletins, etc., many incidental duties, such as ordering books, classifying them, keeping records of additions, making shelf or stock lists, examining catalogues and reviews of books, making lists of desiderata, preparing books for binding, receiving and acknowledging of donations. The form of catalogue in general use for both public and official purposes is the card catalogue, the titles of books being written or printed on separate cards, which are arranged in alphabetical order, including authors and subjects, and placed in suites of drawers. Separate departments requiring considerable space are provided for dealing with travelling libraries. . . . Bookbinding and printing workshops are generally, though not invariably, provided in the larger libraries. A certain number of libraries have adopted a system of apprentice classes, consisting of candidates who, in return for theoretical and practical training in library work, give six months' service as assistants, without pay. At the end of that period the apprentices, if efficient, are qualified for receiving appointments. More advanced training is given in the Library Schools. At the Carnegie Library at Pittsburgh a special school for the training of children's librarians has been established, to which assistants in libraries in other cities come for instruction and experience. . . . [In the Boston public library] there are two principal floors and two mezzanine floors. The book stack occupies the south-west corner of the building, and is six storeys high. The largest public reading room, called 'Bates Hall,' runs the whole length of the front. . . . The principal reference work is done in connection with this Hall, but much special reference work is also done in rooms devoted to special subjects. . . . In the special departments there are about 150,000 volumes, partly on open shelves. The special collections, which are in separate rooms [in 1908], include the following:—Patent Collection, 10,132 volumes; Fine Arts, Technical, etc., 41,829 volumes; Statistical, 14,714 volumes; Parliamentary and Congressional documents, 13,172 volumes; Barton, Ticknor, etc. (Spanish, Historical, Americana, Shakesperean, and rare books in general literature), 50,407 volumes; Children's Library, 9,000 volumes; The Allen A. Brown Music Library, 10,805 volumes. . . . The whole of the 548,000 volumes in the stacks are available for lending, in addition to certain books in the special departments. Books at the Central Library may also be borrowed through any branch. . . . The titles of new books added to the library are posted on a bulletin board, and the more popular of these books are displayed in open cases. . . . All residents of Boston over 10 years old may obtain cards entitling them to borrow books. At the Central Library readers have access to the shelves to a limited extent only. At the Branch and Station Libraries, 28 in number, open shelves are almost entirely used. . . . There is a lecture hall, with chairs for 450 persons, in which free public lectures are given weekly during the winter. . . . There are eleven floors in the book-stack, with a total capacity for 800,000 volumes. An elaborate and ingenious system of mechanical carriers, . . . [enables] the books required in the delivery rooms to be conveyed there with a minimum expenditure of time. . . . The ground floor is partly occupied by rooms devoted to the various activities of the children's department, including the study room of the training school for children's librarians. . . . There are four rooms for the children themselves. One . . . is assigned to older children, . . . [one to] little children, . . . [and another] is used by children after school hours for working out their 'home work.' A trained children's librarian is in charge to teach the use of the catalogue and reference books. . . . The loan department is placed on the first floor. . . . About 12,000 volumes are placed on the open shelves, the remainder being in the stack. A card catalogue is provided for those who do not care to make their own selection from the shelves. . . . On the floor above is the reference department, the walls of which are decorated with copies of early printers' devices. To the books shelved in the reference room, comprising about 4,000 volumes, all visitors have free access, and any book in the building, whether in the reference or loan collections, may be consulted in this room. . . . In connection with the reference department is a card bibliography room, equipped with drawers for six million cards, forming a guide not only to the resources of this library but also to the contents of many other libraries. . . . Besides the Central Library there are six fully equipped branch libraries, six deposit stations, one special children's room, seventy-one school stations, thirty home libraries for children, forty-seven reading clubs for boys and girls. The Buffalo Public Library was organised in 1897, an older library being then incorporated with it. It has [1908] a collection of 250,000 volumes, and an annual circulation of 1,278,000 for home use, besides a large uncounted reference use. . . . A great work is here done with travelling and school libraries, and in connection with this department there are many thousands of prints, arranged by

subjects, which are lent in groups to teachers, clubs, or others interested. . . . Chicago Public Library . . . is finely situated on Michigan Avenue, open to Lake Michigan. The building was begun in 1892, and opened in 1897. . . . It contains three principal storeys, with two intermediate floors and a basement. . . . Its interior is sumptuously adorned with marble, mosaics, frescoes, and mottoes. The reading rooms for patents, public documents, and bound newspapers are on the ground floor, and stacks of shelving for each section are in close proximity. Books for home reading are obtained in the delivery room on the first floor. . . . On this floor the administrative rooms of the Library are located. The floor above is occupied by the reference and reading rooms. The reference room, 138 feet long, 38 feet wide, and 30 feet high, is situated on the east front of the building, and is directly over the book rooms, thus ensuring rapid service. . . . In addition to the Public Library, Chicago possesses the great Newberry Library, rich in historical, genealogical, and rare works, nearly 300,000 in all. In this establishment, which is freely open to the public, there are separate rooms for different classes of books, and the readers find accommodation near the books they require, instead of being gathered together in a general reading room. . . . The city is also fortunate in the possession of the John Crerar Library, . . . a Free Public Reference Library, founded by the late Mr. Crerar, and endowed by him. . . . This extensive and valuable collection, largely devoted to the natural, physical, and social sciences and their applications, was . . . cited by a deputation from the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, when appearing before this Committee, as an example to be followed."—*Report of Manchester Libraries Committee,* 1908, *pp.* 6, 10, 11, 13, 19-21, 25, 15, 18.—"In Chicago . . . an agreement has been made by the Public Library, the John Crerar Library, and the Newberry Library. The Public Library specializes in general literature, the John Crerar in science, the Newberry in history, and so on. Economics is now the only field in which the two last-named libraries conflict. In pursuance of this policy, the Newberry Library has even transferred to the John Crerar its medical collection, which had reached a considerable size."—A. E. Bostwick, *Library and society, p.* 73.—"The St. Louis Public (Free) Library is a development of the Public School Library, established by the Public School Library Society in 1865. In accordance with the original design of its founder it was turned over to the City School Board in 1869, and was supported by that body as an adjunct of the system of public schools. The School Board, however, could never appropriate enough money to make the institution free; and the subscription fee, proved an effectual bar to its use by the general public and by the pupils in the public schools, for whom it was specially intended. . . . At the end of its first year as a free institution, the St. Louis Public Library had more than four times as many cardholders as it had before; . . . [in 1900 and after five years, it has] about ten times as many—in round numbers, fifty thousand to five thousand. . . . The Board of Directors of the St. Louis Public Library consists of nine members, appointed by the Mayor, for a term of three years, three going out of office each year."—F. M. Crunden, *How things are done in one American library* (*Library, v.* 1, 1900, *pp.* 147-148).—An improved method of open access was introduced in English public libraries early in the year 1894, which has demonstrated the value, safety and practicability of the plan in the most complete manner. The open access which is allowed in colleges, subscription and other libraries, differs in many essential points from that which obtains in the safe-guarded public libraries, which was first introduced in 1894."—*Account of the safe-guarded open access system in public lending libraries, London* (*pamphlet*), *p.* 1-2.—"Strictly speaking, the stock of the Manchester lending libraries, as distinguished from that of the Reference Library, is one collection housed in twenty-three buildings, spread all over the city. There is no Central Lending Library, but there are over 250,000 volumes available for loan in the district libraries, and 92,778 individual ticket holders take advantage of this provision. . . . Borrowers' tickets are available at any one of the lending libraries. . . . The collections in different lending libraries are by no means duplicates of each other—while Openshaw is strong in engineering, Rusholme is strong in biography and travel, and so on throughout the system. . . . To obtain the maximum use of the stock as a whole, . . . the Libraries Committee inaugurated the Exchange Service at the beginning of [1921]. . . . This service covers the round of libraries daily, and the whole of the books for lending, including the Music and Foreign libraries, and the Northern branch of the National Library for the Blind, are made available at any point in the city."—*Proceedings of the forty-fourth annual conference of the Library Association held at Manchester, Sept.* 12-17, 1921 (*Library Association Record, Nov.* 15, 1921).

International Libraries

Library of the League of Nations.—International Labor Office Library.—The international library of the League of Nations at Geneva, the first librarian of which is an American, has since 1919 been building up a valuable collection of works of "general works of reference, government documents, law economics and statistics. . . . Current publications from all governments [have been received] since January, 1920, and . . . [many of older date have been secured as well as], complete files of all the important international law journals, collections of treaties and diplomatic papers such as the French 'Yellow Book.' . . . The library has also a good collection of national statutes and official gazettes. When a new Convention is made it is necessary to know what national laws are in force in reference to it and afterwards it is necessary to watch all future legislation affecting it. [The library is also] gradually building up the collections in the other subjects . . . [and has] made considerable progress in history, health, transit, geography and maps and certain special collections. [The Brussels expansion of the Dewey Decimal classification has been adopted.]"—F. Wilson, *League of Nations Library* (*Library Journal, Dec.* 15, 1922).—"The work of the Library . . . [of the International Labour office is] to collect material relating to the conditions of labour in the various countries of the world, to make this collection as complete as possible and to make it as fully as possible available for the use of the Office. . . . [It is then coördinated by the specialists in the different branches, and issued in one or other of the various publications of the Office. The Library is mainly intended for the use of the Office, but permission to make use of it as a reference library only can always be obtained by students of social subjects. . . . It has been necessary as far as possible to limit the scope of the Library to the conditions of the people doing the work rather than to the work done by them and to the places

where they do it. . . . When more general information is required, it can be obtained through the interchange system arranged between . . . [all] four libraries of Geneva, that is to say, the libraries of the League of Nations, the League of Red Cross Societies, the University of Geneva, and the International Labour Office."—*Proceedings of the forty-fourth annual conference of Library Association held at Manchester, Sept.* 12-17, 1921 (*Library Association Record, Nov.* 15, 1921).

Carnegie Library Gifts

International scope.—Of neither the manifold items nor the stupendous total of the gifts made by Mr. Andrew Carnegie for the founding or for the assistance of public libraries in America and Great Britain is there any authentic account; but a tentative record of them, compiled mainly from the news columns of the "Library Journal," and published on the 17th of March, 1901, in the "Buffalo Illustrated Express," was probably not far from correct. It begins in 1881, with the founding of a public library at Dunfermline, Scotland, the birthplace of Mr. Carnegie, who then gave for it $40,000. Two years later, he is said to have given $50,000 to a library at Inverness. In 1885 the New York Free Circulating Libraries were helped by him to the extent of $5,000. In the following year his benefactions were raised to their larger scale by his gift of $250,000 to the Free Public Library of Edinburgh; besides which he gave $28,000 to the Workmen's Library of the Keystone Bridge Works, and smaller donations elsewhere. In 1889 he founded the Carnegie Library at Braddock, Pa., at a cost of $300,000. In 1890 he contributed $325,000 to the founding of the Carnegie Free Public Library at Allegheny, Pa., which the city undertook to support; he replaced the Cambria Library, which the great flood at Johnstown had destroyed, expending $65,000 in that kindly work; gave $40,000 to a library at Fairfield, Iowa, and $9,000 to another at Augusta, Me. Five thousand dollars to a library in Airdrie, $50,000 to one in Ayr, and $2,500 to a third at Jedburgh, all three in Scotland, are the gifts recorded in 1893 and 1894.

In 1895 Carnegie seemed to be crowning his munificence by the creation, at Pittsburg, of the great institution, combining library, art gallery, and museum, on which, between that year and 1899 he is said to have expended no less than $3,860,000. In the same year he founded a small library at Wick, in Scotland. In 1897 the donations appear to have been small. In 1898 Dumfries, in Scotland, received for a public library $50,000 from his open purse, and $250,000 went from it to the creation of the Carnegie Library at Homestead, Pa., the seat of the Carnegie works. Hitherto the stream of Mr. Carnegie's bounty to public libraries had been a rivulet; it now, in 1899, began to pour like the fertilizing flood of the Nile, and that first twelvemonth of the amazing tide was celebrated by American librarians, at the annual meeting of their Association, as "the Carnegie year." In reality, it but opened a series of "Carnegie years." "Mr. Carnegie's benefactions to libraries continued to grow with ever-increasing momentum, and in 1911 Mr. Carnegie made provision for its continuance on a permanent basis [by the] . . . incorporation of the Carnegie Corporation of New York. . . . All business relating to the erection of library buildings, either public or in educational institutions, . . . was transferred to the Corporation as rapidly as possible, and has been administered by that body. . . . The library grants made in the United States and Canada during 1916 amounted to $1,241,888. The total library gifts to December 31, 1916, granted either by Mr. Carnegie personally or by the Carnegie Corporation, amounted to 2749 public library buildings, representing $61,293,485.17, and 116 college library buildings, representing $3,776,199.27, making the amazing record of 2865 buildings and $65,069,-684.44. Of this $61,293,485.17 set aside for public library buildings, the sum of $13,135,354.91 was promised by the Carnegie Corporation."—T. W. Koch, *Book of Carnegie libraries, pp.* 15, 18.

"Few people realize that more than half the towns in the United Kingdom which possess rate-supported libraries have been recipients of Mr. Carnegie's generosity. But such is the fact. Of the 437 towns in England and Wales possessing public libraries, 213 have received grant aid; in Scotland 50 out of 77, and in Ireland 47 out of 58. Prior to the year 1913, Mr. Carnegie had given or promised a sum of £1,946,579 for the erection of public libraries, and to-day not less than 380 separate buildings are associated with his name in the United Kingdom. If the Dominions and Colonies are included as well as the United States, the number of libraries which owe their existence to him lies between fourteen and fifteen hundred."—A. L. Hetherington, *Late Dr. Andrew Carnegie* (*Library Association Record, Sept.*, 1919).—At the time of his death in 1919, the total of Mr. Carnegie's gifts to libraries all over the world reached $60,000,000; the number of library buildings was 2811; to colleges for library buildings the total was over $4,000,000. "On April 20, 1917—in the midst of the war,—the Carnegie Trustees decided to devote $500,000 to the rebuilding of the ruins in the devastated areas in Belgium, France, Serbia, and Russia. On December 16, 1918, they confirmed and gave precise form to this resolution. . . . $100,000 were allotted to Belgium for the restoration of the library of the University of Louvain. . . . In France, $200,000 (nearly 3,000,000 francs) served to endow Rheims, the martyr city, with a municipal library richer and more beautiful than that which fell in ruins in 1917 under the shells of the invaders. In Serbia, the sum of $100,000 voted by the resolution of February 28, 1920, was allocated to the Belgrade University Library, which had also been ruined by the war."—*Carnegie foundation and reconstruction* (*Manchester Guardian Commercial, Reconstruction in Europe, sect.* 10, *Nov.* 16, 1922, *pp.* 628-629).—"Six years ago [written in 1921] the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees . . . decided to institute an experimental scheme of circulating libraries in Lewis, Orkney and Shetland. . . . In 1914, circulars of enquiry were sent out, and comment on the subject invited. The reports received testified to the great boon the Coats' benefaction had been . . . [but] the libraries had become practically derelict, the books having been read and then neglected. From that fact the idea was confirmed that libraries of the kind, to be permanently successful, must be worked on a circulatory system . . . [and] a central bookstore was created at Dunfermline. . . . The experiment proved highly successful. In five years it circulated round about 100,000 volumes. Latterly it supplied collections to military stations at Kinsale (County Cork) and Fort George; to St. Kilda, to the town of Oban, to northern lighthouses, and to a large number of institutes throughout Scotland. The public libraries at Kirkwall, Stromness, Stornoway, and the Public Reading Room at Lerwick received large collections from the start.

. . . On the mainland, the Montrose area was chosen in Scotland, Staffordshire in England, and an experiment on similar lines was set on foot in the south-west of Ireland. . . . By the end of 1918 the number of areas being served in Great Britain was 18. . . . In 1918 the situation was eased in Scotland by the passing of the Education (Scotland) Act, which . . . [allows for the institution and rural library schemes, and coöperation] in the interests of efficient library service with urban libraries. . . . England followed suit in 1919, when the Public Libraries Act, 1919, was passed. . . . The library powers of the authorities under the English and Scottish Acts governing rural libraries are permissive. In order to stimulate the authorities to take advantage of their new powers, it was decided by the trustees to offer to each authority which had not already established a library service a grant to meet the necessary capital outlays in books, shelving, boxes and necessaries. This involved the setting aside of a sum of £192,000 to be disbursed so as to allow of 16 schemes being started each year in the period 1920/25. . . . In order to make it unnecessary for the county authorities to contemplate the purchase of expensive works likely to be required by students, the trustees have made arrangements with the Central Library for Students in London whereby every county library and students connected with the county libraries will be enabled, by payment of postal costs only, to draw upon the resources of that great library . . . [which receives applications from places as far apart as] Listowel in County Kerry, and Lerwick in Shetland."—R. D. Macleod, *Rural libraries and rural education* (reprinted from *Library World, Jan.-Feb.*, 1921).—"The new Public Libraries Act of 1919—in obtaining which the [United Kingdom Library] Association had its part—enables County Councils to become Library Authorities and the Carnegie Trust places at the disposal of each county education authority in Great Britain who will adopt the Act, £2,000 as a bonus, if it establishes and undertakes to carry on a system of travelling libraries."—*Presidential address* (*Library Association Record, Oct.* 15, 1921, *p.* 302).

Also in: E. Edwards, *Free town libraries: Their formation, management, and history.*—United States Bureau of Education, *Special report on public libraries.*—W. I. Fletcher, *Public libraries in America.*—E. A. Savage, *Story of libraries.*—E. C. Richardson, *Some old Egyptian libraries.*—C. K. Bolton, *American library history.*—D. R. Phillips, *Romantic history of monastic libraries of Wales from fifth to sixteenth centuries.*—E. A. Savage, *Old English libraries: The making, collection, and use of books during the Middle Ages.*—E. C. Richardson, *Biblical libraries: Sketch of library history from 3400 B.C. to A.D.* 150.—Idem, *Beginnings of libraries.—La Bibliothèque du congrès à Washington, Bibliographe moderne, v.* 4, *p.* 134-142.—D. R. Phillips, *Library policy and provision in Wales.*—T. Greenwood, *Public libraries.*—T. W. Koch, *Bibliothèque Nationale* (*Library Journal, May-June*, 1914).

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS. See Libraries: Modern: United States: Library of Congress.

LIBURNIANS, inhabitants of ancient Liburnia, corresponding to western Croatia and northern Dalmatia, noted as navigators and pirates. See Illyria; Corcyra.

LIBYA, ancient name for Africa, exclusive of Egypt, or of Egypt and Ethiopia.

LIBYA, or Libya (Libia) Italiana, name adopted in 1912 for Italian colonies of Tripoli and Cyrenaica, in northern Africa. See Africa: Modern European occupation: 1918-1920: Italy's, etc.

1915.—Rights of Italy confirmed by Treaty of London. See London, Treaty or Pact of.

1920.—Turkish claims renounced by Treaty of Sèvres. See Sèvres, Treaty of: 1920: Part III: Political clauses: Libya.

LIBYAN SIBYL. See Sibyls.

LIBYANS.—"The name of Africa was applied by the ancients only to that small portion of country south of Cape Bon; the rest was called Libya. The bulk of the population of the northern coast, between Egypt and the Pillars of Hercules, was of the Hamitic race of Phut, who were connected with the Egyptians and Ethiopians, and to whom the name of Libyans was not applied until a later date, as this name was originally confined to some tribes of Arian or Japhetic race, who had settled among the natives. From these nations sprung from Phut descended the races now called Berbers, who have spread over the north of Africa, from the northernmost valleys of the Atlas to the southern limits of the Sahara, and from Egypt to the Atlantic; perhaps even to the Canaries, where the ancient Guanches seem to have spoken a dialect nearly approaching that of the Berbers of Morocco. These Berbers—now called Amazigh, or Shuluh, in Morocco; Kabyles, in the three provinces of Algeria, Tunis, and Tripoli; Tibboos, between Fezzan and Egypt; and Tuariks in the Sahara—are the descendants of the same great family of nations whose blood, more or less pure, still runs in the veins of the tribes inhabiting the different parts of the vast territory once possessed by their ancestors. The language they still speak, known through the labours of learned officers of the French army in Africa, is nearly related to that of Ancient Egypt. It is that in which the few inscriptions we possess, emanating from the natives of Libya, Numidia, and Mauritania in olden times, are written. The alphabet peculiar to these natives, whilst under the Carthaginian rule, is still used by the Tuariks. Sallust, who was able to consult the archives of Carthage, and who seems more accurate than any other classical writer on African history, was acquainted with the annals of the primitive period, anterior to the arrival of the Arian tribes and the settlement of the Phœnician colonies. The only three races, unequally distributed in a triple zone, were to be met with throughout Northern Africa. Along the shore bordering the Mediterranean were the primitive Libyans, who were Hamites, descendants of Phut; behind them, towards the interior, but on the western half only, were the Getulians; . . . further still in the interior, and beyond the Sahara, were the negroes, originally called by the Greek name 'Ethiopians,' which was afterwards erroneously applied to the Cushites of the Upper Nile. Sallust also learnt, from the Carthaginian traditions, of the great Japhetic invasion of the coast of Africa. . . . The Egyptian monuments have acquainted us with the date of the arrival of these Indo-Europeans in Africa, among whom were the Libyans, properly so called, the Maxyans, and Macæ. It was contemporary with the reigns of Seti I. and Ramses II."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of ancient history of the East, v.* 2, *bk.* 6, *ch.* 5.—See also Numidians; Amorites; Africa: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples.

LICENSE LAWS: England. See Liquor problem: England: 1904.

LICENSE TAXES: United States. See Taxation: Local taxation in the United States.

LICHNOWSKY, Prince Karl Max von (1860-), German diplomat. Ambassador to Great Britain, 1912-1914; wrote his famous "Memo-

randum" on German foreign policy and his London mission, the publication of which in 1918 led to his expulsion from the Prussian house of lords. See World War: Diplomatic background: 3; 71; 71, xxvii; 71, xxviii; 72; Germany: 1919 (June-July).

LICHTENSTEIN, Martin Heinrich Karl (1780-1857), German zoölogist and traveler. Noted for his work on African languages. See Philology: 24.

LICINIAN LAWS. See Rome: Republic: B.C. 376-367.

LICINIUS (Flavius Galerius Valerius Licinianus) (c. 270-324), Roman emperor, 307-324. See Rome: Empire: 305-323; Christianity: 312-337.

LICK OBSERVATORY, Mount Hamilton, California. See Astronomy: Photographic astronomy.

LICTORS, FASCES.—"The fasces were bundles of rods (virgæ) of elm or birchwood, tied together round the handle of an axe (securis) with (most likely red) straps. The iron of the axe, which was the executioner's tool, protruded from the sticks. The fasces were carried on their left shoulders by the lictors, who walked in front of certain magistrates, making room for them, and compelling all people to move out of the way (summovere), barring Vestals and Roman matrons. To about the end of the Republic, when a special executioner was appointed, the lictors inflicted capital punishment. The king was entitled to twelve fasces, the same number being granted to the consuls. . . . The dictator was entitled to twenty-four lictors. . . . Since 42 B.C. the Flamen Dialis and the Vestals also were entitled to one lictor each. In case a higher official met his inferior in the street, he was saluted by the lictors of the latter withdrawing the axe and lowering the fasces." —E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans, sect.* 107, *foot-note.*—See also Rome: Ancient kingdom: Early character and civilization of Romans.

LIDJ YEASSU. See Lij Yasu.

LIDNER, Bengt (1757-1793), Swedish poet and critic. See Scandinavian literature: 1750-1807.

LIDUM, service demanded of German freedman. See Serfdom: 14th-19th centuries.

LIDUS, Leud, or Latt, German freedman. See Serfdom: 14th-19th centuries; Gaul: 5th-10th centuries.

LIEBERMANN, Max (1847-), German painter. See Painting: Europe (19th century).

LIEBIG, Justus, Baron von (1803-1873), German chemist. Appointed professor of chemistry at Giessen, 1824; at Munich, 1852; author of noted books on chemistry.—See also Chemistry: General: Modern: Lavoisier; Organic: Defined; Chemistry, Agricultural.

LIEBKNECHT, Karl (1871-1919), German Socialist. Entered the Reichstag, 1912; openly opposed the government during World War; expelled from the Socialist party for his radical stand, and arrested on a charge of high treason, 1916; released from prison, October, 1918; became one of the leaders of the most radical group of socialists, called the Spartacists; assassinated with Rosa Luxemburg by German militarists, January 15, 1919. See Socialism: 1912-1918; Spartacist Manifesto; Germany: 1919 (January); U.S.A.: 1918 (September-November).

LIEBKNECHT, Wilhelm (1826-1900), German Socialist and journalist. Active in the revolution of 1848; exile in Switzerland and England, 1849-1862; joined the International, 1864; elected to the Reichstag by the Social Democratic party, 1874. See Socialism: 1869-1912.

LIECHTENSTEIN, small European principality, lying on the eastern borders of Switzerland, between the cantons of St. Gall, Graubünden and Vorarlberg. The area is about 65 square miles and the population in 1912 was 10,716, principally of German origin, and Roman Catholic in religion. Vaduz is the capital, which is the residence of an administrator appointed by the reigning prince, who, previous to the World War, held his court in Vienna. Formerly a dependency of Austria, the principality declared its complete independence on Nov. 7, 1918. In 1920 Liechtenstein was united to Switzerland for postal and telegraphic purposes. An application made for admittance to the League of Nations, in December, 1920, met with the objection that the country was too small to be given independent representation; it was therefore proposed that Liechtenstein should be represented by Switzerland in the Assembly of the League.—Based on *Annual Register,* 1920, *p.* 260.—Switzerland agreed to the Customs treaty in 1921.

Also in: J. C. Heer, *Vorarlberg und Liechtenstein.*—P. Kaiser, *Geschichte des Fürstenthums Liechtenstein.*—J. Falke, *Geschichte des Fürstlichen Hauses Liechtenstein.*

LIÉGE, city in Belgium in the province of the same name; situated on the Meuse, a few miles from the German frontier. See Netherlands: Map of the Netherlands and Belgium.

Episcopal principality.—"Liège lies on the borderland of the French and German speaking races. . . . It was the capital of an ecclesiastical principality, whose territory extended some distance up the river and over the wooded ridges and green valleys of the Ardennes. The town had originally sprung up round the tomb of St. Lambert—a shrine much frequented by pilgrims. . . . The Prince Bishop of Liège was the vassal of the emperor, but his subjects had long considered the kings of France their natural protectors. It was in France that they found a market for their manufactures, from France that pilgrims came to the tomb of St. Lambert or to the sylvan shrine of St. Hubert. Difference of language and rivalry in trade separated them from their Dutch-speaking neighbours. We hear, as early as the 10th century, of successful attempts on the part of the people of Liège, supported and directed by their bishops, to subdue the lords of the castles in their neighbourhood. A population of traders, artizans, and miners, were unlikely to submit to the pretensions of a feudal aristocracy. Nor was there a burgher oligarchy, as in many of the Flemish and German towns. Every citizen was eligible to office if he could obtain a majority of the votes of the whole male population. Constitutional limits were imposed on the power of the bishop; but he was the sole fountain of law and justice. By suspending their administration he could paralyse the social life of the State, and by his interdicts annihilate its religious life. Yet the burghers were involved in perpetual disputes with their bishop. When the power of the Dukes of Burgundy was established in the Low Countries, it was to them that the latter naturally applied for assistance against their unruly flock. John the Fearless defeated the citizens with great slaughter in 1408. He himself reckoned the number of slain at 25,000. In 1431 Liège was compelled to pay a fine of 200,000 crowns to the Duke of Burgundy." The Duke—Philip the Good—afterwards forced the reigning bishop to resign in favor of a brother of the Duke of Bourbon, a dissolute boy of eighteen whose government was reckless and intolerable.—P. F. Willert, *Reign of*

Lewis XI., pp. 93-94.—See also BELGIUM: Ancient and medieval history.

ALSO IN: J. F. Kirk, *History of Charles the Bold, bk.* 1, *ch.* 7.

1467-1468.—War with Charles the Bold of Burgundy and destruction of the city. See BURGUNDY: 1467-1468; DINANT; NETHERLANDS: 1466-1468.

1691.—Bombardment by the French.—The Prince-Bishop of Liége having joined the League of Augsburg against Louis XIV, and having received troops of the Grand Alliance into his city, the town was bombarded in May, 1691, by the French General Boufflers. There was no attempt at a siege; the attack was simply one of destructive malice, and the force which made it withdrew speedily.—Based on H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV, v.* 2, *ch.* 2.

1702.—Reduced by Marlborough. See NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704.

1705.—Taken by the French.—Retaken by Marlborough. See NETHERLANDS: 1705.

1793.—Taken by Austrians. See FRANCE: 1793 (February-April).

1815.—Part of kingdom of the Netherlands.—The formation of the new kingdom of the Netherlands under William I of Orange, at the Congress of Vienna, included Liége in that country. See NETHERLANDS: 1813-1830; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1830.—Demands separation of Holland and Belgium. See BELGIUM: 1830-1832.

1914.—International congress on the reform of the calendar. See CHRONOLOGY: Plans for world-wide reform.

1914.—Attacked and occupied by Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: a; b; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities and violations of international law: a, 2; BELGIUM: 1914-1918: German occupation.

1918.—Bombed by the Allies. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VIII. Aviation.

LIEGNITZ, or Lignitz, Battle of: 1241.—On April 9th, 1241, the Mongols, who had already overrun a great part of Russia, defeated the combined forces of Poland, Moravia and Silesia in a battle which filled all Europe with consternation. It was fought near Lignitz (or Liegnitz), on a plain watered by the river Keiss, the site being now occupied by a village called Wahlstadt, i. e., "Field of Battle." "It was a Mongol habit to cut off an ear from each corpse after a battle, so as to have a record of the number slain; and we are told they filled nine sacks with these ghastly trophies [from the field of Lignitz]."—H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols, pt.* 1, *p.* 144.—See also MONGOLIA: 1229-1294; POLAND: 1241.

1760. See GERMANY: 1760.

LIEH YU (fl. 220 B.C.), Chinese painter. See PAINTING: Chinese.

LIFE GUARDS, British army. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 31.

LIFE INSURANCE. See INSURANCE: Life.

LIFE-SAVING. See REVENUE-CUTTER SERVICE: United States.

LIFTS, Canal. See CANALS: Origin.

LIGERIS, ancient name of the river Loire.

LIGGETT, Hunter (1857-), American general. Served in the Spanish-American War; one of Pershing's leading commanders in the World War; successively commanded the 41st Division, the 1st Army Corps, and the 1st and 3d Armies. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 9, ii; m; n, 2; v, 1; v, 3.

LIGHT: Artificial. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Artificial light; 18th century: Artificial light; 19th century: Artificial light.

Electric. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric lighting: 1841-1921.

LIGHT BRIGADE, Charge of the. See RUSSIA: 1854-1856.

LIGHT-HORSE HARRY. See LEE, HENRY.

LIGII. See LYGIANS.

LIGNY, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1815 (June).

LIGNY-THILLOY, town in France, about twelve miles northwest of Peronne. It was recaptured by the Allies in 1916, and attacked by the Germans in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 18.

LIGONIA GRANT. See MAINE: 1629-1631.

LIGUESTE, Pierre Laclède (1724-1778), French founder of St. Louis, 1764. See ST. LOUIS.

LIGURIAN REPUBLIC.—The medieval republic of Genoa is often referred to as the Ligurian Republic; but the name was distinctively given by Napoleon to one of his ephemeral creations in Italy. See FRANCE: 1797 (May-October); 1801-1803; 1802 (June-October); GENOA.

LIGURIANS.—"The whole of Piedmont in its present extent was inhabited by the Ligurians: Pavia, under the name of Ticinum, was founded by a Ligurian tribe, the Lævians. When they pushed forward their frontier among the Apennines into the Casentino on the decline of the Etruscans, they probably only recovered what had before been wrested from them. Among the inhabitants of Corsica there were Ligurians. . . . The Ligurians and Iberians were anciently contiguous; whereas in aftertimes they were parted by the Gauls. We are told by Scylax, that from the borders of Iberia, that is, from the Pyrenees, to the Rhone, the two nations were dwelling intermixed. . . . But it is far more probable that the Iberians came from the south of the Pyrenees into Lower Languedoc, as they did into Aquitaine, and that the Ligurians were driven back by them. When the Celts, long after, moving in an opposite direction, reached the shore of the Mediterranean, they too drove the Ligurians close down to the coast, and dwelt as the ruling people amongst them, in the country about Avignon, as is implied by the name Celto-Ligurians. . . . Of their place in the family of nations we are ignorant: we only know that they were neither Iberians nor Celts."—G. B. Niebuhr, *History of Rome, v.* 1.—"On the coast of Liguria, the land on each side of the city of Genoa, a land which was not reckoned Italian in early times, we find people who seem not to have been Aryan. And these Ligurians seem to have been part of a race which was spread through Italy and Sicily before the Aryan settlements, and to have been akin to the non-Aryan inhabitants of Spain and southern Gaul, of whom the Basques . . . remain as a remnant."—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe, ch.* 3.—See also ROME: Map of ancient Italy; ITALY: Ancient; BELGIUM: Ancient and medieval history; GAUL: Civilization.

ALSO IN: I. Taylor, *Origin of the Aryans, ch.* 2, *sect.* 7.

LIHONS, town in nothern France, about twenty-five miles southeast of Amiens. It was in the region of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: j, 4; j, 6.

LIJ KASA (Theodore) (d. 1868), emperor of Abyssinia, 1855-1868. See ABYSSINIA: 1854-1889.

LIJ YASU, or Lidj Yeassu (b. 1896), emperor of Abyssinia, 1913-1916. See ABYSSINIA: 1913-1920.

LIKIN.—"Chinese tariff rates, where they exist, average about 5 per cent ad valorem. Many articles are admitted free of duty, and on some the rates are higher than 5 per cent, but in general terms this is about the average rate. To this

however, there is a material addition where the goods are intended for interior points. The Chinese Government, while it collects a part of its revenue from customs, relies largely upon the provinces to supply revenue, and arbitrarily names each year the sum which each province must supply, leaving to the officers of that province the methods by which this is obtained. The consequence is that each province is permitted to collect a tax on goods entering it from the adjacent provinces, and this custom has been extended to the subdivision of the provinces, so that goods in transit are frequently compelled to pay taxes every few miles. As a consequence, the interior taxes, known as 'likin,' became not only the terror of importers, but sometimes almost prohibitory. So serious was this system in its effects upon attempts to introduce foreign goods that, upon the insistence of foreign ministers, the Chinese Government announced that an addition of 50 per cent to the rates paid at the custom-houses would insure passage of the goods to any point in the interior without the exaction of likin taxes. This was gladly accepted by foreigners desiring to do business in the interior of China. The additional 50 per cent on duties was paid and 'transit passes' issued for the goods in question, purporting to authorize their free transit to any point in the empire. Actual experience, however, shows that these transit passes do not always accomplish what was expected. . . . Every 8 or 10 miles along the principal waterways or caravan routes a likin station is found, where a tax is levied upon some article or articles carried through by boat, pack animal, or wheelbarrow. At some points every article is taxed. This is the usual rule at the gates of cities. In some cases the tax is as little as 2 per cent ad valorem; in others, such as silk, satin, and native opium, much more, amounting at times to 6, 8, or even 10 per cent. Between Shanghai and Soochow, a distance of 84 miles, there are 8 likin stations. At the first and last stations all goods are dutiable; at the rest all goods must be examined, and there is scarcely a single article that does not in that distance pay at least three taxes. It is easily seen that under such a system foreign goods cannot be carried very far from the coast before their prices become prohibitive for ordinary people."—United States, Bureau of Statistics, *Monthly summary, Mar.*, 1899, *pp.* 2188, 2231.—In the treaty signed by China and other participating powers at the Washington conference (1922), provision was made for calling a "Special Conference" on the Chinese tariff. The question of the abolition of the Likin was to be taken up by this conference.

LILIENTHAL, Otto (1848-1896), German inventor and aëronautical engineer. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1889-1900.

LILIUOKALANI, Lydia Kamekeha (1838-1917), queen of Hawaii, 1891-1893. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Discovery and early history.

LILLE, city of northeastern France, near the Belgian border, on the Deûle. In 1856 the city had 75,000 inhabitants. Since then the old walled-in formation has given way to an open, modern city, with wide boulevards, and in 1921 the population was 200,952. Its leading industry is textile manufacture, which increased greatly in the latter half of the nineteenth century. Lille grew up about the feudal castle of Buc in the eleventh century.

1583.—Submission to Spain. See NETHERLANDS: 1584-1585.

1667.—Taken by the French. See BELGIUM: 1667.

1708.—Siege and capture by Marlborough and Prince Eugene. See NETHERLANDS: 1708-1709.

1713.—Restoration to France. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1914-1918.—Occupation by the Germans.—Forced tribute.—Destruction of buildings.—Taken by the Allies. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: t; w, 3; 1916: X. German rule in northern France and Belgium: a; 1918: II. Western front: i; m; r, 3.

LILLEBONNE, Assembly of.—A general assembly of Norman barons convened by Duke William, 1066, for the considering of his contemplated invasion of England.—Based on E. A. Freeman, *Norman conquest, v.* 3, *ch.* 13, *sect.* 3.

LILLIBULLERO.—"Thomas Wharton, who, in the last Parliament, had represented Buckinghamshire, and who was already conspicuous both as a libertine and as a Whig, had written, 1688, just prior to the Revolution which drove James II. from the English throne] a satirical ballad on the administration of Tyrconnel [Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel, James' Lord Deputy in Ireland (see IRELAND: 1685-1688)]. In this little poem an Irishman congratulates a brother Irishman, in a barbarous jargon, on the approaching triumph of Popery and of the Milesian race. . . . These verses, which were in no respect above the ordinary standard of street poetry, had for burden some gibberish which was said to have been used as a watchword by the insurgents of Ulster in 1641. The verses and the tune caught the fancy of the nation. From one end of England to the other all classes were constantly singing this idle rhyme. It was especially the delight of the English army. More than seventy years after the Revolution, a great writer delineated, with exquisite skill, a veteran who had fought at the Boyne and at Namur. One of the characteristics of the good old soldier is his trick of whistling Lillibullero. Wharton afterwards boasted that he had sung a King out of three kingdoms. But in truth the success of Lillibullero was the effect, and not the cause, of that excited state of public feeling which produced the Revolution. . . . The song of Lillibullero is among the State Poems. In Percy's Relics the first part will be found, but not the second part, which was added after William's landing."—T. B. Macaulay, *History of England, ch.* 9, *with footnote.*

ALSO IN: W. W. Wilkins, *Political ballads of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, v.* 1, *p.* 275.

LILY OF FLORENCE. See FLORENCE: Origin and Name.

LILYBÆUM: B. C. 368.—Siege by Dionisius.—"This town, close to the western cape of Sicily, appears to have arisen as a substitute for the neighbouring town of Motye (of which we hear little more since its capture by Dionysius in 396 B. C.), and to have become the principal Carthaginian station." Lilybæum was first besieged and then blockaded by the Syracuse tyrant, Dionysius, 368 B. C., but he failed to reduce it. It was made a powerful stronghold by the Carthaginians.—G. Grote, *History of Greece, pt.* 2, *ch.* 83.

B. C. 277.—Besieged by Pyrrhus. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 281-272.

B. C. 250-241.—Besieged by Romans. See PUNIC WARS: First.

LILYE, Lily, or Lilly, William (c. 1468-1522), English scholar. Noted as a pioneer Greek scholar and as author of a famous Latin grammar. See EDUCATION: Modern: 16th century: Colet and St. Paul's School.

LIMA, capital of Peru, South America, seven miles east of Callao. (See LATIN AMERICA: Map of South America.) In 1920 the population was 176,467.

1535.—Founded by Pizarro. See PERU: 1533-1548.

1746.—Earthquake. See PERU: 1550-1816.

1821.—Entered by Chileans under San Martin. See PERU: 1820-1826.

1881.—Captured by Chileans. See CHILE: 1833-1884.

LIMAN VON SANDERS, Otto (1855-), Prussian general. Commanded Turkish troops during the World War; successfully defended Gallipoli, 1915; defeated by the British general, Allenby, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: b; 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 1; 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 16.

LIMANTOUR, José Yves, Mexican minister of finance. See RAILROADS: 1906-1920.

LIMBURG, former duchy of lower Lorraine, corresponding to the present provinces of the same name in the Netherlands and Belgium. (See NETHERLANDS: Map of the Netherlands and Belgium.) In 1288 it became a part of Brabant. It was divided between Spain and the Netherlands in 1648, and was taken by Louis XIV of France, in 1672, during the war with Holland. It was ruled by France from 1794 to 1814 and was allotted to the Netherlands again in 1815. During the Revolution of 1830 Limburg joined Belgium.

1678.—Restored to the Spanish Netherlands. See NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

1839.—Partial cession to the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1839-1842.

1919.—Question of division of territory raised following the World War. See NETHERLANDS: 1919.

LIMERICK, city in Ireland, on the estuary of the Shannon. It was founded by the Danes in the 9th century (see IRELAND: 9th-10th centuries) on the Rock of Cashel, where the ancient Dulcassian kings had been inaugurated (see IRELAND: Historical map). Later it became the capital of Thomond, of which it was the key. It frequently changed hands in the petty wars of the chieftains. The population in 1914 was 38,151.

1689.—Siege of. See IRELAND: 1689.

1691.—Treaty of.—Its violation. See IRELAND: 1691; also Maps.

LIMES.—This term was applied to certain Roman frontier-roads. "Limes is not every imperial frontier, but only that which is marked out by human hands, and arranged at the same time for being patrolled and having posts stationed for frontier-defence, such as we find in Germany and in Africa. . . . The Limes is thus the imperial frontier-road, destined for the regulation of frontier-intercourse, inasmuch as the crossing of it was allowed only at certain points corresponding to the bridges of the river boundary, and elsewhere forbidden. This was doubtless effected in the first instance by patrolling the line, and, so long as this was done, the Limes remained a boundary road. It remained so, too, when it was fortified on both sides, as was done in Britain and at the mouth of the Danube; the Britannic wall is also termed Limes."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, bk.* 8, *ch.* 4, *foot-note.*—See also ALEMANNI: 213.

LIMIGANTES.—The Limigantes were a tribe occupying, in the fourth century, a region of country between the Danube and the Theiss, who were said to have been formerly the slaves of a Sarmatian people in the same territory and to have overpowered and expelled their masters. The latter, in exile, became dependents of the warlike nation of the Quadi. At the end of a war with the latter, 357-359, in which they were greatly humbled, the Emperor Constantius commanded the Limigantes to surrender their stolen territory to its former owners. They resisted the mandate and were exterminated.—Based on E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 18-19.—The Limigantes were a branch of the Iazyges or Jazyges, a nomadic Sarmatian or Sclavonic people who were settled in earlier times on the Palus Mæotis.

LIMISSO. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM: 1118-1310.

LIMITATION, Statutes of: England. See COMMON LAW: 1100; EQUITY LAW: 1834.

LIMITATION OF ARMAMENTS, Conference on. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE ON LIMITATION OF ARMAMENTS.

LIMMI, Assyrian writers of chronology. See HISTORY: 14.

LIMOGES, city in France, about 215 miles southwest of Paris, on the Vienne.—See also LEMOVICES.

1370.—Massacre by the Black Prince.—A foul crime which stains the name of "the Black Prince." Taking the city of Limoges, in France, after a short siege, 1370, he ordered a promiscuous massacre of the population, and more than 3,000 men, women and children were slain, while the town was pillaged and burned.—Based on Froissart, *Chronicles* (tr. by Johnes), *bk.* 1, *ch.* 288, 290.—See also FRANCE: 1360-1380.

LIMONADE, town in northern Haiti. It was occupied by American troops in 1915. See U.S.A.: 1915 (August-Steptember).

LIMONUM, early name for Poitiers, France. See POITIERS.

LIMOUSIN, ancient province of France, occupied by the Lemovices, corresponding to the present departments of Creuze, Corrèze and Haute-Vienne. It passed to England with Eleanor of Aquitaine, 1152, and was successively ruled by England and France for the next century. Finally passing to the House of Albret, it was united to France by Henry IV, on his accession in 1589.—See also LEMOVICES; FRANCE: 1337-1360.

LIMPING, or HALTING, STANDARD. See BIMETALISM.

LIMU, or Eponym, Assyrian ruler, for a yearly term, corresponding to the Roman consul. See ASSYRIA, EPONYM CANON OF.

LIN TSE-SÜ, Chinese official. Appointed high commissioner for the restriction of the opium trade, 1839. See CHINA: 1839-1842.

LINACRE, Thomas (c. 1460-1524), English physician and classical scholar. See EDUCATION: Modern: 16th century: Colet and St. Paul's School.

LINCOLN, Abraham (1809-1865), sixteenth president of the United States. Served in Black Hawk War, 1832; member of the Illinois Legislature, 1834-1842; member of Congress, 1847-1849; president of the United States, 1860-1865.—See also AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1830-1890.

1859.—Debate with Douglas. See U.S.A.: 1858.

1860.—Elected president. See U.S.A.: 1860 (April-November).

1861.—Inauguration.—First inaugural address.—His cabinet.—Reply to Seward. See U.S.A.: 1861 (February-March); 1861 (March): President Lincoln and his cabinet.

1861.—Policy after attack on Fort Sumter.—Suspension of writ of habeas corpus. See U.S.A.: 1861 (March-April); 1861-1863; 1861-1864.

1861.—**Call to arms.—Response of disloyal governors.—Proclamation of blockade of southern ports.** See U. S. A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call to arms; 1861 (April-May).

1861.—**Call for additional volunteers.—Modification of Fremont's proclamation freeing the slaves.** See U. S. A.: 1861 (May): Call for additional volunteers; 1861 (August-October: Missouri).

1862.—**Proposal of compensated emancipation approved by Congress.—Rescinds General Hunter's emancipation order.—Call for 300,000 additional volunteers.** See U. S. A.: 1862 (March): President Lincoln's proposal; 1862 (May): General Hunter's emancipation order; 1862 (July): Three hundred thousand more.

1862.—**Interview with McClellan at Harrison's Landing.—Letter to Horace Greeley.—Preliminary proclamation of emancipation.** See U. S. A.: 1862 (July-August: Virginia): End of Peninsular Campaign; 1862 (August): President Lincoln's policy; 1862 (September).

1863.—**Emancipation Proclamation.—Letter to Hooker.** See U. S. A.: 1863 (January); (January-April: Virginia).

1863.—**Letters to New York and Ohio Democrats.—Call for 100,000 six-months' men.** See U. S. A.: 1863 (May-June); (June).

1863.—**Gettysburg address.** See U. S. A.: 1863 (November).

1863.—**Message to Congress.—Amnesty proclamation.—Louisiana reconstruction plan.** See U. S. A.: 1863 (December); 1863-1864 (December-July).

1864.—**Renominated for president at Baltimore Convention.—Reëlected.—Peace missions.** See U. S. A.: 1864 (May-November); (July).

1865.—**At Hampton Roads peace conference.—Second inaugural address.** See U. S. A.: 1865 (February); 1865 (March): President Lincoln's second inaugural address.

1865.—**Last public address.—Proclamations virtually ending the war.** See U. S. A: 1865 (Apr. 11); 1865 (April: Virginia): President Lincoln at Richmond.

1865.—**Assassination.** See U. S. A.: 1865 (Apr. 14).

LINCOLN, Benjamin (1733-1810), American general. Served throughout the American Revolution; directed successful siege of Savannah, 1779; surrendered Charleston to the British, 1780; secretary of war, 1781-1784. See U. S. A.: 1777 (July-October); 1778-1779: War carried into the south; 1779: (September-October); 1780 (February-August).

LINCOLN, Levi (1749-1820), American lawyer. Attorney-general under Jefferson, 1801-1805; acting governor of Massachusetts, 1808-1809. See U. S. A.: 1800-1801.

LINCOLN, Battle of (1217). See LAMBETH, TREATY OF.

LINCOLN, Proposed state of. See IDAHO: 1917-1921.

LINCOLN AND DOUGLAS DEBATE. See U. S. A.: 1858.

LINCOLN HIGHWAY.—The Lincoln Highway is a great automobile road, planned by the Lincoln Highway Association in 1913, as a memorial to Abraham Lincoln. "From Forty-second [Street] and Broadway, New York City, to the Golden Gate, San Francisco, a distance of 3,200 miles, the Lincoln Highway now extends without a gap, the country's greatest artery of motor travel."—*Literary Digest, Sept.* 11, 1920, *p.* 88.—The road is in splendid condition. In 1920, 548 miles, or sixteen per cent of the whole road was improved; in some parts it was entirely rebuilt. The highway is now permanently marked as far west as Omaha; the western part had been marked before. New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and other states built new stretches of concrete during the year 1920. Other types of road used in the construction of the highway are brick, macadam, asphalt, gravel and asphaltic concrete.

LINCOLN REPUBLICAN, or SILVER REPUBLICAN, PARTY. See U. S. A.: 1900 (May-November).

LINCOLN SCHOOL, Columbia University. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Experimental schools.

LINCOLN UNIVERSITY, Pennsylvania, for the higher education of negroes. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Negroes.

LINCOLN'S BIRTHDAY. See HOLIDAYS.

LIND, John (1854-), American legislator and public official. Member of Congress, 1887-1893, 1903-1905; served in Spanish-American War; governor of Minnesota, 1898-1901; special envoy and representative of President Wilson to Mexico, 1913. See U. S. A.: 1913 (August).

LINDAU, Diet at: Relief measures for the poor. See CHARITIES: Germany: 1497-1616.

LINDEN, Cort van der, Dutch statesman. Minister of justice, 1897-1901; formed "extra-parliamentary" cabinet and achieved revision of constitution, 1917. See NETHERLANDS: 1905-1914; 1914-1918.

LINDET, Jean Baptiste Robert (1749-1825), French revolutionist. Member of the Legislative Assembly and the Convention; member of the Committee of Public Safety, in charge of food supply; showed moderation in dealing with revolts in the districts; minister of finance, June-November, 1799; refused to hold office under Napoleon; proscribed as a regicide, 1816; returned to France, February, 1825.

LINDI, town in Northern Rhodesia, Africa. It was occupied by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 17.

LINDISFARAS. See LINDISWARA.

LINDISFARNE, See of, called Holy Island, ancient diocese founded in 635 by Aidan, a Columban monk-bishop from Iona, on an island off the Northumberland coast.

635-664.—**Foundation and early history.—Work of Aidan and Finan.—Council of Whitby and Bishop Colman.**—"This choice of a residence shows that, as a monk of Iona, ambitious of following in every respect the example of the great apostle of his race, founder of the sanctuary whence he issued, Aidan took pleasure in imitating St. Columba even in local particulars. Like him he settled his community in an island near the shore, almost as small, as insignificant, and as barren as Iona was when the holy exile from Ireland landed there. Its position was even in some sort a repetition, in the North Sea, and to the east of Great Britain, of the position of Iona upon the opposite coast, and on the shore of the Atlantic. . . . In this poor islet was erected the first Christian church of the whole district, . . . which extends from Hull to Edinburgh. This was Lindisfarne—that is to say, the Mother Church, the religious capital of the north of England and south of Scotland, the residence of the first sixteen bishops of Northumbria, the sanctuary and monastic citadel of the whole country round—the Iona of the Anglo-Saxons. . . . Nothing is known of the early history of St. Aidan. When he first appears to us he is already a monk

at Iona, and clothed with a certain authority among his brethren. Even when raised to the episcopate, he remained always a monk, not only in heart, but in life. Almost all his Celtic fellow-workers, whether from Ireland or Scotland, were monks like himself, and followed the cenobitical rule of their order and country. . . . The first monk sent from Iona to replace the noble Aidan, is known by the name of St. Finan. . . . Finan . . . had the happiness of introducing to the Church the heads of the two great Saxon kingdoms, who came to seek baptism at the gates of Lindisfarne. In that island-sanctuary. . . . Finan caused a cathedral to be built, not of stone, like that which Paulinus and Edwin had commenced at York, but according to the Celtic custom, and like the churches built by Columba and his Irish monks: it was made entirely of wood. . . . Finan left among the Anglo-Saxons the reputation of a man rough and intractable, and we shall see that his successor was no less difficult than himself. He was succeeded by Colman, a monk of Iona, sent forth by that community, like Aidan and Finan, to govern the Northumbrian Church, and to evangelise the Northern Anglo-Saxons. He is believed to have been born in Ireland, and on this account he is held in honour there. . . . As long as St. Aidan, the first Celtic apostle of Northumbria, lived, the idea of finding fault with his method of celebrating the greatest feast of that religion which he taught and practised so well, had entered into no man's mind. . . . Under his successor, Bishop Finan, the question had been raised, by one of the Lindisfarne monks, Irish by birth, who had travelled and studied in France and Italy. This monk, named Ronan, became involved in a violent quarrel with the Bishop of Northumbria upon the subject. He had led back a few to the Roman observance of Easter, and persuaded others to study the matter; but the bishop, harsh and passionate as Columba himself had sometimes been, far from being convinced, was only embittered by the remonstrances of Ronan. . . . When Finan died, leaving Bishop Colman—like himself, Irish by birth and a monk of Iona—as his successor at Lindisfarne, the dispute became at once open and general. . . . The famous conference of Whitby, [was] convoked by King Oswy, for the purpose of regulating and terminating the dispute which troubled his kingdom and the neighbouring countries. . . . But Colman, Bishop of the Northern Anglo-Saxons, refused to recognise the decision of the council. . . . Accordingly, taking with him all the Lindisfarne monks of Scottish origin, who would neither give up the Celtic Easter nor shave their heads in Roman fashion, he left Northumbria for ever, and went to Iona to consult the fathers of the order, or family of St. Columba. He carried with him the bones of his predecessor St. Aidan, the founder of Lindisfarne, and first Celtic evangelist of Northumbria, as if the ungrateful land had become unworthy to possess these relics of a betrayed saint, and witnesses of a despised apostleship."—Count De Montalembert, *Monks of the west, v.* 3, *pp.* 291, 315, 389-390, 395, 402.

7th-19th centuries.—Saint Cuthbert.—Danish invasions.—Benedictine occupation.—Pilgrimage in nineteenth century.—Lindisfarne gospels.—In 793 the island was invaded and pillaged, and the monks slaughtered by the Danes. The invaders made another descent in 878 when the monks fled at their appearance, bearing with them the Shrine of Saint Cuthbert. After this date the monks returned, but the see was never re-established and the island was placed under the bishop of Durham. In 1082 it became a Benedictine priory, and the ruins now standing on the island date from this period. In the sixteenth century the priory was suppressed, and since that date the island has been a possession of the crown. "A pilgrimage, consisting of 3000 persons, crossed the Sands to Holy Island in 1887—the twelfth century of St. Cuthbert's death. . . . The book called the 'Lindisfarne Gospels' ('St. Cuthbert's Gospels' or the 'Durham Book') is still preserved in the British Museum Library. . . . The book remained at Lindasfarne till the flight of the monks, about 878 when it was carried away together with the relics. During the attempted passage to Ireland, it fell into the sea, but was . . . rescued after four days. In 995 it was brought to Durham and afterwards replaced in Lindisfarne, when the church there was rebuilt. There it remained till the Dissolution in 1536. For the space of 100 years it was lost sight of. In 1623 it was in the possession of Robert Bowyer, clerk to the House of Commons. He disposed of it to Sir Robert Cotton, whence it passed to the British Museum."—C. Edmonds, *Lindisfarne* (*Catholic encyclopedia, v.* 9, *pp.* 269-270).—See also Books: Books in medieval times.

LINDISWARA, or Lindesfaras.—"Dwellers about Lindum," or Lincoln; a name given for a time to the Angles who seized and settled in that English district. See also England: 547-633.

LINDSEY, Benjamin Barr (1869-), American jurist and reformer. Judge of juvenile court, Denver, since 1901; author of Colorado juvenile court laws, and of various books on the subject of child welfare. See also Child welfare legislation: 1899-1921.

LINDSEY, Kingdom of, one of the small kingdoms of the Angles in early England.

LINDUM, Roman city from which sprang the English city of Lincoln.

LINEAGE TABLES. See Genealogical tables.

LINEN, Ancient Egyptian. See Ægean civilization: Neolithic Age.

LING, Pehr Henrik (1776-1839), Swedish poet and dramatist. See Scandinavian literature: 1813-1877.

LINGONES, Celtic tribe in ancient Gaul.

LINGUA FRANCA. See International language: Natural development of artificial languages.

LINGUISTICS: Difference from philology. See Philology: 2.

LINIERS, Jacques de, French officer. Captured Buenos Aires from the English, 1807. See Buenos Aires: 1806.

LINKÖPING, Battle of (1598). See Sweden: 1523-1604.

LINLITHGOW, John Adrian Louis Hope, 7th Earl of Hopetoun, 1st Marquess of (1860-1908), British administrator. Governor-general of the Australian Commonwealth, 1900-1902. See Australia: 1900 (September-December).

LINNAEUS (Carl von Linné) (1707-1778), Swedish naturalist and botanist. Founder of the "Linnean system" in botany. See Evolution: Historical development of the idea; Medical science: Modern: 17th-18th centuries: Introduction of microscope in medicine.

LINNEAN SOCIETY. See International organization of scientific research.

LINSINGEN, Alexander von (1850-), Prussian general. Placed in command of German-Austrian army in the southeast, 1915; repelled attack of Russians, 1915, 1916-1917; led advance into the Ukraine, 1918; appointed commander-in-chief in the Mark (province of Brandenburg, including Berlin), 1918. See World War: 1915: III.

Eastern front: c; f, 4; f, 6; g, 3; g, 4; and 1916: III. Eastern front: a, 4; a, 6; a, 9.

LION AND THE SUN, Order of the, Persian order, instituted in 1808.

LION OF ST. MARK, Winged.—The Standard of the Venetian republic. See VENICE: 829.

LIONEL OF ANTWERP, Duke of Clarence (1338-1368), third son of Edward III of England. Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, 1361-1366. See IRELAND: 1327-1367.

LIPAN, Battle of (1434). See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434; TABORITES.

LIPANES, tribe of North American Indians. See APACHE INDIANS.

LIPPERSHEY, or Lipperhey, Johann (Hans) (d. 1619), Dutch optician. One of the early experimenters with the telescope, credited by some authorities with its invention. See INVENTIONS: 16th-17th centuries: Instruments.

LIPPE-SCHAUMBURG. See SCHAUMBURG-LIPPE.

LIPPMANN, Gabriel (1845-1921), French physicist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1908.

LIQUEFACTION OF GASES. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Liquefaction of gases; CHEMISTRY: Physical.

LIQUID FIRE: Medieval and modern use in war.—"Marshall gives an interesting account relating to 'sea-fire' of A. D. 668, as follows: 'Some forty-six years after the flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina, the Arabs, still at the height of their conquering enthusiasm, commenced to beleaguer Constantinople by land and sea, when an architect named Kallinikos fled from Heliopolis in Syria to the Imperial City, and imparted the secret of sea-fire. This repeatedly spread such terror and destruction among the Moslem fleet that it was the principal cause of the siege being eventually raised after seven years. In A. D. 716 to 718, the Arabs again appeared before Constantinople with eighteen-hundred ships, but again were defeated by the fire; so effectually, that after a stormy passage only five galleys re-entered the port of of Alexandria to relate the tale of their various and almost incredible disasters.' Russian naval forces were similarly defeated in 941 and 1043, and the Pisans at the end of the eleventh century. What was the nature of this 'sea-fire'? It was discharged from tubes or siphons in the bows of the ships, but its mode of preparation was kept a close secret, and it was never used successfully by anyone but the rulers of the Eastern Roman Empire. Colonel Hime concludes that it was composed of naphtha, quicklime, and sulphur. The Moors made continual usage of incendiary missiles about the years 1240 and 1260. At the siege of Weissenburg, in the year 1469, stone balls were in vogue, covered with an incendiary composition. The English used, in the early days of wooden ships, balls of pitch, mixed with sulphur and naphtha, the missiles being termed 'wildfire.' Our [British] 'State Papers' show that incendiary devices were favoured about 1588. In 1599 the Government ordered '184 Slurbowe arrowes with firewoorkes.' Fire-lances or pikes were long employed until about 1660. According to Hime, they were last in use at the first siege of the city of Bristol in 1643. He refers to Prince Rupert's Diary wherein occurs the following passage: 'Running in upon the Royalists with *fire-pikes*, neither men or horses were able to endure it. The fire-pikes did the feat.' Berthelot refers to an experiment made at Havre in 1758 with a *naphtha pump*, the jet of which was inflamed,—'par une mèche allumée on brula même une chaloupe.' In 1860 the Chinese employed 'fire arrows' against the French. In 1863 the enemy was sprayed with fire, by means of naphtha pumps, at the battle of Charleston. In 1870, during the siege of Paris, it was proposed to utilize 'petrole fire-pumps' against the enemy, but records seem to show that such means of incendiarism was not eventually resorted to."—A. A. Roberts, *Poison war, pp.* 103, 105-106.

Incendiary bombs.—"In A. D. 1250, at the period of the sixth Crusade, Joinville thus described an incendiary missile: 'It came flying through the air like a winged, long-tailed dragon, about the thickness of a hogshead, with the report of thunder and the velocity of lightning; and the darkness of the night was dispelled by this deadly illumination.' . . . The Arabs were acquainted with saltpetre, and it is quite likely that they mixed some with the incendiary, causing it to burn far more fiercely. Incendiary compositions, thrown by hand, and from machines, appear to have been recognized weapons of warfare prior to the introduction of shells, the casting of the latter in metal being then an art unknown. . . . The evolution of a satisfactory incendiary shell was still an object of study by the German and other ordnance departments at the outbreak of hostilities."—A. A. Roberts, *Poison war, pp.* 111-112.

1914-1918.—Use in the World War.—"Somewhat associated with gas warfare was another form of offensive which was introduced with the purpose of breaking up the deadlock of trench warfare. . . . It looked as if trench defenders would have to give up if attacked with fire, and so, early in the war, the Germans devised apparatus for shooting forth streams of liquid fire, and the Allies were not slow to copy the idea."—A. R. Bond, *Inventions of the great war, pp.* 102-103.—"After a bombardment of several days, a mine was exploded under the front line [of the Allies] and then immediately afterward, at 3:20 A. M. on the morning of the 29th of July 1915 and without the slightest warning, the front line troops were enveloped in flames. . . . The local retirement became a local rout. Then the flames stopped and machine guns began to take toll of the fugitives. Only one man from the front trenches is known to have returned. . . . The flame projectors taken by the 14th Division in the counter attack were simple but very interesting in construction. The main part was a cylindrical vessel of steel about two feet in height and fifteen inches in diameter provided with straps so that it could be carried on a man's back. At one side about two-thirds of the way up was a filling hole for oil, closed by a screw cap. Near the top was a pressure gauge attachment and toward the base was a lock closed by a lever handle and to which could be attached a long length of flexible hose ending in a peculiar shaped nozzle. . . . The nitrogen required for the flame projectors is carried into the field in large cylinders about 4 feet 6 inches in length and 6 inches in diameter. . . . These cylinders are actually taken into the trenches and the flame projectors charged from them there. . . . The official name for this instrument was the *'Flammenwerfer'* (flame thrower) and it is now never known in the British army by anything else than its German name. . . . When the German Army entered on its policy of frightfulness there was none of its new and unprincipled methods which had more immediate and striking success than the use of liquid fire. And there is now none of all its methods of frightfulness which has fallen more into disrepute, and which has had less success when once the first surprise was over."—S. J. M. Auld, *Gas and flame in modern warfare, pp.* 185, 187-188, 190-192.—"There were cer-

tain situations, however, in which liquid fire played a very important part. After a line of trenches had been captured it was difficult to clear out the enemy who lurked in dugouts and underground passages. They would not surrender, and from their hidden recesses they could pour out a deadly machine-gun fire. The only way of dislodging them was to use the *'fire broom.'* In other words, a stream of liquid fire was poured into the dugout, burning out the men trapped in it. If there were a second exit, they would come tumbling out in a hurry. If not, they would be burned to death. After the first sweep of the 'broom,' if there were any survivors, there would not be any fight left in them, and they would be quick to surrender before being subjected to a second dose of fire."—A. R. Bond, *Inventions of the great war, pp.* 105-106.—See also World War: 1916: II. Western front: b, 7.

LIQUID FUEL. See Inventions: 19th century: Artificial light.

LIQUOR PROBLEM.—"Among the problems demanding consideration and insisting upon solution, none perhaps, aside from the problem of world peace, is so international in its scope, so vitally related to the economic, social, moral and religious life of the world, and so imperative in its requirements, as the beverage liquor problem. . . . Twenty-five years ago, the enthusiast who advocated state or national prohibition of the beverage liquor traffic was a 'fanatic.' . . . The prohibition movement in the United States of America has been a practical demonstration of the age-old truth that great reforms are evolutions rather than revolutions. The development of the temperance reform in America covers a period of more than a century and a half. . . . Permanent reforms can come only by means of orderly procedure through popular government, where public opinion rules. In this connection it is worthy of thoughtful consideration that twenty-five years ago, only about one seventeenth of the area and about one sixteenth of the population of the United States of America was under state prohibition of the beverage liquor traffic, while today about one seventeenth of the area and one sixteenth of the population of the world is under national prohibition of the beverage liquor traffic."—E. H. Cherrington, *America and the world liquor problem, pp.* 40-41, 44.

Africa: 1890-1919.—Conventions of powers regarding restriction in Africa. See Africa: Modern European occupation: 1890-1906; 1918-1920.

Australia: 1907-1920.—Recent growth in prohibition sentiment.—"During the last five years Australia spent $650,000,000 on liquor. In 1907 the State of New South Wales had its first vote and succeeded in closing the bars at an early hour. Victoria had its first local option poll in 1920. Queensland adopted in 1920 a provision for a vote every three years automatically. Prohibition was carried in the capital city and in fourteen of the largest places in Queensland. Western Australia had a vote which resulted in 38,000 in favor and 39,000 against Prohibition."—R. B. S. Hammond (*International Convention,* 1922, *World League against Alcoholism, pamphlet*).

Austria: 1903.—Resolution of the national convention of the Social Democratic party against alcoholic drinks.—At a convention of the Social Democracy of the Austrian Empire, held at Vienna, in November, 1903, Dr. Richard Fröhlich read an elaborate report against the use of intoxicating liquors, concluding with an earnest appeal: "We want to create a new social order: to give the world a new face! To lay the foundations for the new society is the task of political and industrial organization—and there is no greater deterrent to the accomplishment of that task than alcohol." In response, the convention adopted the following resolution: "The convention of the party recognizes in alcohol a serious detriment to the physical and mental power of the working man, and a great hindrance to all efforts of organization in the social democracy. . . . Members of the party who are converted to total abstinence are recommended to form total abstinence clubs, to continue the propaganda and to see to it that their members are true to the political and economic duties of the party organization."

Austria: 1914.—Liquor regulation during the World War.—"Austria-Hungary in the first year of the war limited the hours of sale on ordinary days from 9 a. m. to 5 p. m. and on Sundays and holidays shops in which liquors were sold were closed."—T. N. Carver, *Government control of the liquor business in Great Britain and the United States, p.* 7.

Belgium: 1922.—Movement in universities.—Prohibition has been taken up as a study in the universities of Belgium. "Study groups" have been created at the "university of Brussels, among the students in medicine and among the students in law. The first group studied the question from the physiological point of view. The second is studying now two problems: the laws upon alcohol in Belgium, and the means, ways and results of American Prohibition. . . . In the University of Louvain there is a movement among the Flemish students; and they have founded an anti-alcoholic club devoted to individual propaganda rather than the scientific study of the problem."—A. Ley (*International Convention,* 1922, *World League against Alcoholism, pamphlet, p.* 93).

Canada: 1898.—Submits prohibition to popular vote. See Canada: 1898 (September).

Canada: 1906-1908.—Scott Act.—Canada Temperance Act.—Under what was known as the Scott Act, of 1878, the privilege of local option had been given to counties and cities in Canada, and had been brought into exercise by nine cities and seventy-three counties, which prohibited the sale of intoxicating liquors within their limits; but in most of these the supporters of the law were gradually overcome and the prohibition removed. In all the provinces except Quebec, a referendum vote taken in 1898 showed majorities in favor of a dominion prohibition law; but the vote cast was so light and the adverse majorities in cities were so large that the government did not feel warranted in bringing forward a bill. In 1906, however, the demand for local option in the matter of permitting alcoholic liquors to be sold had become strong enough to extort from Parliament the desired legislation. As amended in 1908, Part II of this Canada Temperance Act (Part I having prescribed the proceedings for bringing Part II into force) provides that "from the day on which this Part comes into force and takes effect in any county or city, and for so long thereafter as, and while the same continues or is in force therein, no person shall, except as in this Part specially provided, by himself, his clerk, servant or agent,—(a) expose or keep for sale, within such county or city, any intoxicating liquor; or, (b) directly or indirectly on any pretense or upon any device, within any such county or city, sell or barter, or, in consideration of the purchase of any other property, give to any other person any intoxicating liquor; or, (c) send, ship, bring or carry or cause to be sent, shipped, brought, or carried to or into any such county or city, any intoxicating liquor;

or, (d) deliver to any consignee or other person, or store, warehouse, or keep for delivery, any intoxicating liquor so sent, shipped, brought or carried."

Canada: 1909.—Prohibition in Ontario.—On May 2, 1909, the following announcement of the operation of the law in the province of Ontario was made: "May Day, 1909, will long be remembered by the advocates of local option in Ontario. One hundred and forty-two bars passed out of existence yesterday, and of the 807 municipalities in the province 334 are now without a single license in force. The Toronto commissioners have cut off 40 licenses, leaving only 110 in a city of nearly 400,000 people."

Canada: 1914-1918.—Wartime prohibition. See CANADA: 1914-1918: Wartime prohibition.

Canada: 1921.—Liquor problem in Quebec.—Government ownership.—During the World War, Canada became practically dry. In 1921, the province of Quebec passed a law, regulating the liquor traffic. A commission of three men supervised the enforcement of the law. After May 1 liquor was sold, one bottle at a time, by government *dépots*—one *dépot* for every 50,000 inhabitants in Montreal and one for every 40,000 inhabitants in Quebec. Special provisions were made for large hotels and for mining districts. People who had licenses from the commission could buy beer from the brewers, but the latter were taxed $1,000 for each brewery and five per cent. of their sales every month. The commission established a blacklist of drunkards who could not purchase liquor from the government *dépots*. The number of bottles which any citizen could buy during the year was fixed by the commission.

Canada: 1922-1923.—Prohibition in Manitoba.—After fifteen years of long and bitter fighting against the liquor traffic, Manitoba has become (1922) a prohibition province.—C. W. Gordon (*International Convention, 1922, World League against Alcoholism, pamphlet, p. 84*).—At the election in June, 1923, prohibition was defeated by a majority of 2,200, and the voters adopted a system by which intoxicating liquors will be sold by the government.

England, United States, France, Germany: 1900.—Comparative statement of the consumption of alcoholic drink.—"The consumption of alcoholic drink in the above countries, per ten of population, was in the year 1900 as follows:—

Drink-consumption per 10 of population.

Country.	Beer, spirits, and wine Gallons.	Beer. Gallons.	Spirits. Gallons.	Wine. Gallons.
France	336	62	20	254
United Kingdom	332	317	11	4
Germany	309	275	19	15
United States	147	133	11	3

"Some years agone, the late P. G. Hamerton in his book *French and English* mentioned the increase of drinking in France, and we see that French drink-consumption per head is now greater than British consumption. The French drink more spirits, more wine, and have a larger total consumption per head than any of these three other nations.

"The most striking fact in the above statement is the low drink-consumption per head in the United States. The American total per head is less than one-half of the total consumption per head in any of the three other countries. The superior sobriety of the American workman as compared with the Englishman has often been noticed, and observation in social grades higher than that of the artizan tends to show that American superiority in this respect is a general superiority not confined to workmen only. The developed alertness and prompt energy of the American may, it is quite likely, be due in some part to this relative abstinence from alcoholic drink which is now illustrated.

"Looking back over the fifteen years 1886-1900, for the purpose of observing the increase or the decrease in drink-consumption per head of population, the following results have been obtained:—

Country.	Average yearly drink-consumption, per head of population, during 1886-1890. Gallons.	1891-1895. Gallons.	1896-1900. Gallons.
France	26.5	31.5	32.3
United Kingdom	29.4	31.1	33.1
Germany	24.4	26.6	29.9
United States	11.8	14.3	14.2

	The drink-consumption per head during 1886-1890 being taken at 100 per cent.	The drink-consumption per head during 1896-1900 was per cent.
France	100	122
United Kingdom	100	113
Germany	100	123
United States	100	120

"In each country the drink-consumption per head of population has increased since 1886-1890, and, with the exception of the United States, there has been an increase during each five-yearly period observed. Comparing the period 1896-1900 with the period 1886-1890, we see that the percentage of increase per head of population in drink-consumption was smaller in the United Kingdom than in any of the three other countries. Germany and France have had the largest relative increases per head of population. In the United States, the increases of 20 per cent in the drink-consumption per head of population is due to an increase in beer-drinking—the consumption per head of wine and of spirits had declined."—J. H. Schooling, *Drink: In England, the United States, France, and Germany* (*Fortnightly Review, Jan.*, 1902).

England: 1902.—Passage of an amended licensing law.—Moderate reform.—A licensing bill, moderately in the interest of temperance reform, was discussed and passed in Parliament during the summer of 1902. It made publicans more strictly responsible for drunkenness incurred on their premises; strengthened the prohibition of liquor-selling to habitual drunkards; improved measures for the suppression of public drunkenness; subjected licenses to tradesmen for the sale of liquors off their premises to the unqualified discretion of justices, and facilitated the separation of husbands and wives from a drunken mate.

England: 1904.—Passing of new licensing bill, providing compensation for the withdrawal of licenses on grounds of public policy.—An agitation in Great Britain was stirred up by a new licensing bill, introduced as a government measure on April 20, 1904. The bill provided for compensation to be made, at the expense of the liquor trade, for the taking of a license away from any public house, on grounds of public policy, no matter how briefly the license had been held. The bill was advocated in the interest of temperance, as being calculated to reduce the number of public houses, and to raise their character. Balfour upheld it as "a great temperance measure." Repeated attempts to introduce a limit of years after which

the awarding of compensation for the withdrawal of license would cease were defeated, and the bill passed both Houses in August, substantially as it came into Parliament four months before.

England: 1907.—Drink in its relation to crime.—Testimony of judges.—"The following is from a newspaper report of a speech by Judge Rentoul, delivered in the Guildhall, Cambridge, on the 15th of October, 1907. He happened to be one of the judges of the chief criminal courts of this country, and he said to them on that platform that 90 per cent. of the cases that came to the Central Criminal Court of England came directly through drink. The late Lord Brampton, formerly Sir Henry Hawkins, perhaps the greatest criminal judge during the past century, had also put the figures at 90 per cent. Lord Coleridge, speaking at one Assizes, said, 'Every single case in my present list comes from the use of strong drink.' 'If it were not,' said his Honour, 'for alcohol, three fourths of our criminal courts would be closed in this country and closed forever.' "—H. A. Giles, *Opium and alcohol in China* (*Nineteenth Century, Dec.,* 1907).

England: 1908.—Passage of new licensing bill by the Commons and its rejection by the Lords.—Nothing contributed more to the defeat of the Conservative ministry in the British parliamentary elections of 1905 than the moral repugnance of the country to the Licensing Bill of 1904 (described above); and the Liberal government came to power with no commission from the people more positive than was in the demand for an amendment of that law. In 1908 it brought into Parliament and passed through the House of Commons a bill which answered the demand, asserting the right and the need and the power in government to put limitations on the granting of licenses for the sale of intoxicating liquors, without treating them as vested interests under a sacred guard. The bill provided further for local option in the matter of granting new licenses, permitting a majority of voters in any licensing district to prohibit further grants; and introduced other changes of law in the interest of temperance, but not going to any extreme. When the measure went to the House of Lords it suffered there the same fate that had been meted out to the Education Bill of 1906. The seriousness of the issue was shown in a speech made by the Liberal prime minister, Asquith, in July, 1909. He called attention to the fact that the bill had been debated for months in the House of Commons and claimed its provisions largely his own handiwork. Its rejection he said ruined the prospects of any really effective temperance reform. The requirement of the Act of 1904 that compensation should be paid to every license-holder whose license was withdrawn for public reasons, put so narrow a limit on the reductions made, that the 138,611 licensed houses in England and Wales in 1904 had only been diminished by about 3,000 in 1908; whereas the country demanded a great cutting down of the excessive number.

England: 1908.—Provisions of the Children Act. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1903-1920.

England: 1909.—Taxation of liquor trade proposed in budget. See ENGLAND: 1909 (April-December).

England: 1909.—Decreased consumption of whiskey caused by increased tax.—Speaking in Parliament of the increased whiskey tax in his budget, on October 29, some months after it had gone into effect and its yield was being shown, the chancellor of the exchequer, Lloyd George, acknowledged that he had greatly overestimated the revenue it would produce.

England: 1909.—Organization of "The True Temperance Association."—Aim and appeal.—Under the name of "The True Temperance Association," a London organization headed by Lord Halsbury made the following appeal to the English public, in May, 1909: "Let us take what is to hand—the publichouse; the regulated refreshment house of the people. Let us transform that out of its present condition of a mere drink-shop into a house of general, reasonable, and reputable entertainment—a place where there will be other things to consume besides beer and whisky, and other forms of recreation besides mere drink."

England: 1914-1918.—Government control of liquor business during the World War.—"No one could seriously consider the question of drink in Great Britain without concluding that there was a great source of waste both of materials and of man power. . . . *The Alliance News,* . . . the official publication of the United Kingdom Alliance, the largest temperance body in England, was . . . active in temperance propaganda and made large use of the necessities of war as an argument. Lord Kitchener's personal advocacy of abstinence and the King's voluntary adoption of total abstinence were kept before the people as examples to be copied. . . . One of the most significant movements, however, came relatively late. It was known as the Strength of Britain Movement. It 'was formed at a meeting of business men and others at the Hotel Cecil in June, 1916, when a resolution to proceed with the campaign for prohibition during the war was proposed by Sir Alfred Booth, Bart., Chairman of the Cunard Line, seconded by Mr. Angus Watson, supported by Mr. Thomas Burberry, and carried.' . . . One of the first acts of this organization was the publication of what was known as the Strength of Britain Memorial, a petition signed by more than 2,000,000 adult persons in England and Wales, more than 400,000 women in Scotland, and more than 150,000 adult persons in the single province of Ulster in Ireland. . . . [On] August 8, Parliament passed the first of a series of Defense of the Realm Acts conferring upon the King in Council power to issue regulations for securing public safety and the defense of the realm. The first of the regulations authorized by this act which were directed toward the control of the drink trade was issued August 12. Section 7 reads: 'The competent naval or military authority may by order require all premises licensed for the sale of intoxicating liquor within or in the neighborhood of any defended harbor to be closed except during such hours as may be specified in the order.' This was extended on November 28, 1914. . . . The next stage in the development of legislative control was the enactment on August 31, 1914, of what is known as the Intoxicating Liquor (Temporary Control) Act, giving the licensing justices power to suspend the license of any retailer, and to stop the consumption of liquor in any club, whenever it was deemed necessary for the maintenance of order and the suppression of drunkenness. . . . The third stage in the government control of the liquor trade was reached when Parliament gave the Council, that is, in effect, the Cabinet, a free hand to deal with the question as it saw fit. The various Defense of the Realm Acts had been consolidated on November 27, 1914. On May 19, 1915, that act was extended so as to give the Council power specifically to issue regulations for the control of the trade in intoxicating liquor. . . . The regulations issued from time to time by this Board were the effective means of control From this time on, the matter was virtually in the hands of the Board, though it always acted under the

authority of the Council, and in some cases merely made recommendations to the Council,' which then issued an Order in Council giving effect to the recommendations. By July 6, 1915, the Board had satisfied itself that action was called for in ten areas in England and Wales. On that date an Order in Council was issued defining these areas and bringing them under the regulations of the Board. These regulations are known as 'Liquor Control Regulations.' Two Scotch areas were added on July 28, a third on September 14 and the London area on September 24. . . . The restriction of the hours of sale and the elimination of treating were followed later by the establishment of canteens and also by direct control of drinking places. . . . On August 3, 1916, almost exactly two years after war was declared, Parliament passed the first of a series of acts restricting the production of alcoholic liquor in the United Kingdom. It reduced the annual output of the breweries to 26,000,000 barrels. The annual production before this had been approximately 36,000,000 barrels. . . . In order to handle the food question in a more efficient manner, Lord Devonport was appointed Food Controller on December 9, 1916. This was an emergency measure, apparently without parliamentary authorization. On December 22, however, an act of Parliament known as the New Ministries and Secretaries Act, specifically authorized the appointment of a Minister of Food to be known as Food Controller. . . . An Order in Council of March 30, 1917, transferred to the Food Controller the powers which had been conferred upon the Board of Trade by the Output of Beer (Restriction) Act of 1916. . . . Subsequent restrictions upon the use of food materials in the manufacture of alcoholic liquors were in the form of orders issued by the Food Controller. First came a series of orders forbidding the making or shipping of malt, except under license by the Food Controller. . . . Considerable quantities of immature spirits were, of course, stored up in warehouses. It became necessary to regulate their sale, otherwise there would be no necessary diminution in the consumption of spirits until these accumulated stocks were exhausted. Accordingly, the Intoxicating Liquor (Output and Delivery) Order, was issued by the Food Controller on March 29, 1917, reducing by 50 per cent the quantity of wine and spirits which could be delivered."—T. N. Carver, *Government control of the liquor business in Great Britain and the United States, pp.* 18, 52-54, 64-67, 77, 85, 92, 96-97, 104.

England: 1922.—Statistics of drink.—The "average annual consumption of beer in the decade of 1891-1900 was 33½ million standard barrels—in 1921 it was only 24½ million, and taken per head . . . consumption fell from 30.6 gallons to 18.5 in 1921—or 40 per cent, and beer is our staple intoxicant. We are not drinking as much spirits. Our gross consumption has fallen from 40½ million proof gallons to 18½; and our per head consumption from just over 1 gallon to .39 gallon in 1921, or 65 per cent. Our per head consumption of wine is small—but it has fallen from .38 to .24, or 37 per cent. Our drunkenness is not so great. In the earlier decade we, in England and Wales, averaged 188,000 proceedings; in 1921, just over 85,000, a drop of over 50 per cent—on a much larger population. Our recorded deaths from alcoholism and cirrhosis—a mere indication of our total alcoholic mortality—have fallen from an average of 6,076 in the decade to 2,175 in 1921—or 64 per cent on a larger population."—G. B. Wilson (*International Convention,* 1922, *World League against Alcoholism, pamphlet, p.* 29).

Finland: 1907-1919.—Russian opposition to prohibition.—"Finland is the first Prohibition country on the European Continent. When universal suffrage was granted in Finland one of the very first acts of our new parliament was to pass the Prohibition law. It was passed in 1907. It was passed and not a single voice was heard against it. At that time Finland was still united with Russia and the sanction of the Russian Emperor was needed before the law could be enforced. The Emperor did not sanction our Prohibition law. Again in 1909 the Finnish Parliament voted for a new Prohibition law. It was not sanctioned before 1917. The Russian Empire had to collapse first. Our Prohibition law was passed on the first of June, 1919, 12 years after the Finnish Parliament had voted for Prohibition."—A. Ruanheimo (*International Convention,* 1922, *World League against alcoholism, pamphlet, p.* 93).

Germany: 1902-1907.—Resolution of Socialist congress.—Subject in Prussian schools.—Essen congress.—The German Socialist congress, sitting at Munich in September, 1902, adopted a resolution which warned the working classes against the dangers from immoderate indulgence in alcoholic drinks, but declined to make total abstinence a condition of party membership. In the previous March the Prussian minister of education had given instructions to the school authorities of the kingdom which aimed at the enlightening of the people as to the deleterious effects, both physical and economical, of an excessive use of alcoholic liquors. The same subject had been agitated in the Prussian parliament, and there was discussion of measures of more strict regulation of public houses. "Hence it came about that when the great Westphalian miners' dispute broke out at the beginning of 1905, the first advice given by the men's famous 'Committee of Seven' to the strikers was 'Avoid alcohol.' . . . The final victory came at the Essen congress of 1907, when a formal blessing was bestowed on the movement, which may now be regarded as bearing the official stamp of the Socialist party."—W. H. Dawson, *Evolution of modern Germany, p.* 168.

Germany: 1915-1918.—Restrictions on alcoholic drinks during the World War.—"In Germany various restrictions and prohibitions were placed upon the sale of spirituous liquors to soldiers in special localities. . . . 'It is forbidden for keepers of licensed houses to serve alcohol in the form of spirits, liqueurs, rum, arrak, cognac or drinks prepared from them to soldiers of all ranks in uniform, either in person or through the medium of others. This ordinance shall enter into force on Friday, February 19, 1915.' . . . On March 26, 1915, the Federal Council empowered the local authorities to restrict or prohibit the sale of spirits. . . . On March 31 the Federal Council placed very drastic restrictions upon the production of spirituous liquors, forbidding any one to produce brandy who was not in the business during the financial year 1913-14, and even the latter were forbidden to put on the market in any month more than 2 per cent of the quantity for which they paid duty during the year 1913-14. . . . This law was supplemented on April 16 by a decree specifying the persons to whom, and the purposes for which, spirits could be sold."—T. N. Carver, *Government control of the liquor business in Great Britain and the United States, pp.* 7, 9-10.

Iceland: 1908-1915.—Prohibition. See ICELAND. 1908-1915.

Japan: 1922.—Effect of the Crown Prince's

example.—"It is impossible to imagine what tremendous influence the action of the Crown Prince Regent of Japan has had on the people. He and his wife are total abstainers. The foundation for total Prohibition has been laid in Japan by the enactment of the 'Junior Prohibition Law.' No juniors are allowed to drink. The temperance movement has many advocates in the Diet."—U. Hayashi (*International Convention,* 1922, *World League against Alcoholism, pamphlet, p.* 6).

New Zealand: 1896-1908.—Twelve years of local option.—Under the operation of a local option law since 1896, New Zealand has been steadily narrowing the liquor traffic, with what seems to be a fair prospect of extinguishing it entirely. The law provides for the taking of a vote in each parliamentary electoral district once in three years. The local option vote in December, 1908, had the following effect on the liquor dealers as reported in a press despatch from Wellington, January 18, 1909: "As a result of the large 'moderate' vote cast at the recent poll on the question of total prohibition or reduction of facilities for obtaining drink, it was unanimously resolved to-day, at a meeting of the Auckland Brewers and Licensed Victuallers' Association, representing all the wholesale and nearly every member of the retail trade, to abolish barmaids, to abolish private bars, and to raise the age-limit of youths who may be supplied with liquor from 18 to 20. No woman will be supplied with liquor for consumption on the premises unless she is boarding in the house."

New Zealand: 1911-1919.—Growth in prohibition sentiment.—In 1911 New Zealand "won Prohibition by a majority of 55,000, but the will of the people was defeated by the undemocratic requirement of a three-fifths majority. In 1919 they won Prohibition by a majority of 29,000. Again the will of the people was defeated by the infusion of a third issue, that of state control, which polled 32,000 votes, it being necessary for Prohibition to defeat continuance and state control put together. So we lost again by 3,000 votes, though the Prohibition sentiment exceeded that for continuance of the liquor traffic."—R. B. S. Hammond (*International Convention,* 1922, *World League against Alcoholism, pamphlet, p.* 85).

Norway: 1871-1905.—Restrictions on liquor selling.—"In 1871 the Gottenburg system was introduced in Norway. In 1894 the rules for the organization of companies for selling liquors under this system were made more rigid, and in 1904 a law was passed which reduced the sale and use of intoxicants to a minimum, and placed Norway next to Finland at the very top of the list in regard to temperance. According to this law the beverages which are subject to control are divided into two groups: (1) Distilled liquors, including all beverages containing above fifteen per cent of spirit, and all wines containing above twenty-one per cent of spirit. (2) Fermented liquors, including wine, beer, mead, and cider containing a less per cent of spirit than the first class. Denatured alcohol is not included in either group. Regarding the right to prepare distilled liquors, strict rules are found in the law of 1887. They must be manufactured in distilleries controlled by the state through its inspectors, and the internal revenue amounts to 1.68 kroner per liter, figured on the basis of a purity of 100 per cent. The distillers may sell to any one in quantities not less than 250 liters (a little over fifty-nine gallons). They may also sell in small quantities of not less than 0.35 liters on sealed bottles, which must not be opened at the place of purchase: (a) to those who have a concession to retail liquor, (b) for export, (c) for medical and scientific use. Concession to organize a company for selling intoxicating beverages is granted in a community only when a majority of all the voters of the district, both men and women, vote in favor of it and only one such company can be organized in each community. The concession is granted for the period of six years, after which time the question must again be submitted to the vote of the people. The persons receiving the concession organize as a stock company, and choose a manager, who must be acceptable to the local authorities. Liquor may then be sold by the company in as many places in the community or city as the local authorities, or city council, may designate. The stock company doing business under the concession receives a profit of not more than five per cent a year on the capital invested. Of the surplus the community receives fifteen per cent, the stock company ten per cent, the *amt* ten per cent, and the government sixty-five per cent. The thirty-five per cent received by the company, the community, and the *amt* are used for public purposes for which funds have not otherwise been provided, but the money is so expended as not to reduce the burdens of taxation. The right to sell fermented liquors is granted by the local district authorities or the council to companies or private persons. The places of sale and the number of such concessions are also determined by the same authorities. The right of sale may be limited so that these beverages can be sold only to guests and travelers, as in hotels, or it may be a right to sell to all persons, except to children below the age of fifteen years. . . . The temperance movement has spread so rapidly in Norway that 237,000, or about ten per cent of the entire population, now [1914] belong to the various temperance organizations."—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people, v.* 2, *pp.* 591-593.

Norway: 1904-1917.—Results of the law of 1904.—"The incidental drinking of spirits, the worst of many evils under our system, is abolished. One must make a deliberate business of it, and it is a laborious task, and few find it worth while. At the same time the plan is fair; if one wants spirits, one may get them legally and aboveboard by going to the necessary trouble. There is no coarse and indiscriminate paternalism about it. Furthermore, while it actively and continuously discourages the drinker, this plan does not, like prohibition, encourage private distilling and illicit distribution. It carries the suppression of spirits to what may be called the margin of moonshining, and holds it there relentlessly, but goes no further. On the other hand, the lighter alcoholic drinks are sold everywhere and are very cheap and good. The consumption of beer per capita has remained nearly stationary from year to year for a period of forty years, while showing a slight actual decrease over the whole period. Thus, in 1875, Norway drank 23.3 liters of beer per capita, 20 in 1901, and 17.8 in 1902, while for the five-year period between 1906-1910 the average was 18.4 liters. Meanwhile the total consumption of all intoxicants, measured in terms of pure alcohol, has fallen to 2.37 liters, which is the least of any European country. The corresponding figures for Canada are 3.31, for the United States 6.89, and for the Argentine 10.21."—A. J. Nock, *Should we fight for prohibition?* (*Century Magazine, Mar.,* 1917).

Norway: 1919-1923.—Effects of trade rela-

tions on prohibition.—Law of 1919.—"The law in Norway prohibits alcoholic drinks of more than 14 per cent., but the French, Spanish and Portuguese, who buy Norway's codfish and have general trade relations with her, have demanded that she allow the importation of strong wines for 'legal use' that is, for scientific, sacramental and medicinal purposes. In order to meet this demand, Norway will now be obliged to import yearly from each of these countries half a million litres of strong alcoholic liquors—a total of a million and a half litres, roughly speaking, 400,000 gallons. . . . The drys are determined to make a fight against the treaties which permit wine-producing countries to force intoxicating drinks on nations which wish to be sober, that the people are really for prohibition and are not in sympathy with a movement to undermine it is shown by the fact that in 1919, after two years' trial, as a war measure, they voted for the law by a majority of 184,000."—*New York Times, Mar.* 28, 1923.—See also NORWAY: 1919.

Poland: 1922.—Vote of Polish diet.—The Polish diet voted to define the percentage of alcoholic content of beer manufactured in Poland; to abolish saloons; to restrict the sale of intoxicants in eating-places; and finally to restrict the number of such places to a proportion of one to 2,500 inhabitants.

Russia: 1914-1921.—Prohibition of vodka.—War-time regulations.—Prohibition under the Soviets.—"In Russia, immediately following the order for the mobilization of the land and sea forces of the Empire, all wine, beer and vodka shops were closed and the sale of all intoxicants was forbidden except in first class restaurants and hotels, by order of the Grand Duke Nicholas, commander in chief of the army. This order was to continue until the completion of mobilization, but subsequent orders continued its operation. On August 25, 1914, the Council of Ministers decided to continue the prohibition of the sale of beer and porter until October 1. On August 27 the Admiralty Council abolished the custom of treating sailors to a cup of vodka on various occasions. Vodka, however, presented the most serious problem. It is not only atrociously strong, and therefore productive of drunkenness, but it had been a government monopoly. This monopoly was originally established as a measure of control in order to curtail excessive consumption, but it had become a source of considerable revenue to the government. . . . [Nevertheless] on September 3/16, 1914, the Council of Ministers announced that His Imperial Majesty had decided to prohibit the sale of spirits and vodka until the end of the war. About the first of October, in response to numerous appeals, it was decided to prohibit forever the sale of spirituous liquors. [See also RUSSIA: 1914-1915.] These rules, of course, did not apply to malt liquor and wines. In October the Council of Ministers empowered local governing bodies to petition for a complete prohibition of the sale of all alcoholic beverages within the limits of their jurisdiction. When such a petition is presented the local excise officials and the representatives of the central government must, within three months, stop the sale of all intoxicants in the district in question. This privilege was made use of by many local governments. Petrograd restricted the sale of beer and wine to 49 first class hotels and restaurants, and even in these places only permitted these liquors to be served with meals. On December 22 the City Council of Moscow adopted complete prohibition of all intoxicants."—T. N. Carver, *Government control of the liquor business in Great Britain and the United States, pp.* 12-13.

Scotland: 1922.—Local option.—"Scotland, in a test vote, after fighting for 60 years to get a local option poll finally got a vote. . . . Thirty-one of the areas in Scotland have gone dry and 30 are under reduction."—H. Barton (*International Convention, 1922, World League against Alcoholism, pamphlet, p.* 88).

Sweden: 1819-1922.—Temperance work.—Anti-Saloon League.—"For several decades temperance work has been carried on in all Scandinavian countries. . . . One country, Finland, has total Prohibition already and was even 30 days ahead of the United States in that respect. Norway has a half way Prohibition, inasmuch making and selling of all drinks stronger than 14 per centum of alcohol is banned. . . . Sweden with its population of 6,000,000 has had organized temperance work more than one century, or since 1819, when Peter Wieselgren, later district pastor in the state church, organized the first temperance society. From 1879 the International Order of Good Templars had worked in Sweden. . . . The total membership of all such organizations at the beginning of this century exceeded 400,000. . . . [There was a] great petition of more than 1,800,000 men and women in 1909-1910, asking for permanent total Prohibition."—D. Ostlund (*International Convention, 1922, World League against Alcoholism, pamphlet, p.* 59).

Turkey: 1923.—Prohibition in Constantinople.—"Prohibition has gone into effect in Constantinople under instructions issued by the Nationalist Government from Angora. . . . Any person found drinking alcoholic beverages will receive thirty strokes from the bastinado, a long, pliable stick. Foreigners and traders selling liquor are liable to a fine of 50 Turkish pounds. Exportation of liquor stocks now on hand is permitted, but all private sales are forbidden. Arrangements have been made to supply the foreign soldiers here, but foreign civilians are prohibited from buying or receiving intoxicants."—*New York Times, Apr.* 4, 1923.

United States: 1607-1775.—Colonial laws, fines and prohibition.—Oglethorpe experiment.—First temperance meeting.—"The earliest settlers appear to have given particular attention to the kind and quantity of intoxicating liquors which accompanied them on their voyages across the Atlantic to their new homes amid the forests of the Western world. English, Dutch, Spanish and French pioneers each made a distinct contribution to the beginnings of American civilization, but each also bears responsibility in the matter of the introduction of liquor-drinking customs different from any which the Indian had known and which promptly became the deadly enemy of the American savage, the cause of many of the internal difficulties of the colonists, and the principal factor in the numerous early misunderstandings between the whites and the Red Men. . . . All that could be designated as temperance reform work in the 168 years from the founding of Jamestown in 1607 to the outbreak of the Revolutionary War in 1775 was the activity which contented itself in agitation and legislation against the evil of drunkenness. . . . The Church of colonial days did not recognize the liquor traffic as a great evil. On the other hand, even the immoderate use of liquors was common at church functions and especially at weddings, church councils and funerals. This condition existed until about the middle of the eighteenth century, when the colonies one by one either by law or by action of the church bodies them-

selves began to insist upon the elimination of liquor consumption in connection with funeral ceremonies. The first recorded action of this character was taken by the General Court of Massachusetts in 1742, the decree of the court forbidding the use of wine and rum at funeral services. The most outstanding movement against the sale and use of intoxicating liquors during the colonial period was the so-called Oglethorpe Experiment in the colony of Georgia. Upon the arrival of Governor Oglethorpe in Georgia in 1733 he declared the importation of ardent spirits illegal. The following year the Councilors of Georgia acted upon the advice of Oglethorpe and prohibited the importation of rum. In 1735, the English Parliament, at the request of Oglethorpe, enacted a law prohibiting the importation of ardent spirits into the colony of Georgia. At first this provision was rigidly enforced but through the influence of Europeans who later came to the colony and those who visited Georgia from other colonies, the enforcement became lax and the law finally drifted into disrepute. Probably the first distinctive temperance meeting on American soil is held at Sillery (Canada) under the auspices of Father Jerome Lalemant. The meeting is addressed by an Algonquin chief, who in his own name and the name of the other chiefs proclaims the Governor's edict against drunkenness, and exhorts the Indians to total abstinence, declaring that all drunken Indians will be handed over to the French for punishment."—E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, pp.* 9-11, 13-15, 21.—In 1619 the Colony of Virginia enacted a law against dice, cards, drunkenness, idleness and extravagance in apparel, also that drunkards should be publicly reproved by ministers. In 1623 the Dutch Reformed Church on the Island of Manhattan denounced "excessive use of strong drinks." In 1633 the Massachusetts Bay Colony required the Governor's permit to sell liquor, for many were "distempering themselves with drinke" and Plymouth Colony passed a law against drunkenness in private homes. In 1642 Maryland passed a law against drunkenness with heavy fines. In 1643 Connecticut passed a law prohibiting the sale of liquor without a license and in 1650 passed other laws with penalties. In 1655 the Colony of New Haven passed a liquor regulation law. In 1658 Plymouth Colony passed a law disfranchising drunkards and Maryland and Virginia passed laws against drunkenness with penalties. In 1686 South Carolina prohibited the sale of liquor without a license from the governor. In 1710 New York imposed an excise tax on liquor sold at retail and in 1719 and 1720 passed laws against drunkenness and regulating duty on imported wine. In 1760 the Friends of Pennsylvania made an effort to abolish liquor at funerals. In 1766 Methodism, beginning its career in the United States, declared against using, buying and selling distilled liquors.

United States: 1775-1810. — Dr. Benjamin Rush.—Federal restrictions for colonial army.—General Washington's orders.—Rations fixed by Continental Congress.—Activities of John Wesley and Society of Friends.—Dr. Rush's famous pamphlet.—Thomas Jefferson.—"Doctor Benjamin Rush, a noted physician of his day, who was also a very public-spirited man and one of the principal figures in the drafting and signing of the Declaration of Independence, is generally recognized as the pioneer in the movement against the use of distilled liquors. When the war was at its height in 1777, Doctor Rush prepared a strong document against the use of ardent spirits, which document was approved and adopted by the War Board of the Continental Congress and was printed and circulated among all the troops in the United States Army. The object of this document was to urge all the soldiers to abstain from the use of distilled liquors while in the service of their country. This was the first appeal against the use of distilled liquors which was recognized in any official way by the government. . . . Before the appearance of Doctor Rush's document which was circulated by the War Department, the Federal Government had already taken measures to restrict the sale and use of distilled spirits in the army. General George Washington on March 25, 1776, issued orders at Cambridge, Mass., enjoining upon all officers of the Continental Army the obligation to prevent, so far as possible, the frequenting of tippling houses by American soldiers. Prior to these orders, Maryland had already fixed the ration for Maryland troops in the Continental Army at one-half pint of rum per man daily. When the Pennsylvania Colonial Assembly, however, fixed the ration for Pennsylvania troops on April 4 of that same year the ration included one quart of small beer per man per day. Other colonies followed the example set by Pennsylvania in fixing the ration in beer instead of distilled liquors. The Continental Congress on September 20 prohibited the sale of all kinds of liquors to soldiers by sutlers, thus limiting the alcoholic drinks of the members of the American Army to the ration as prescribed by the several Colonial Legislatures and the Continental Congress. . . . The Continental Congress in session at Philadelphia by strong resolutions appealed to the several Colonial Legislatures immediately to pass effective laws to stop the practice of distilling. The colony of Pennsylvania took steps against the distilling of grain in 1779. This action, together with the action taken in other colonies as well as the expressed attitude of the Continental Congress, compelled the attention of the moral and religious forces throughout the colonies. While John Wesley had already in 1773 declared against the practice of distilling, the Methodist Church in America officially condemned the practice in 1780. The Brethren took the same action in 1783, while the New England Society of Friends made a similar declaration in 1784. Doctor Rush in 1785 published his famous pamphlet entitled 'An Enquiry Into the Effects of Ardent Spirits Upon the Human Body and Mind.' This pamphlet proved to be the greatest and most effective arraignment of distilled liquors that had ever been presented and its effect upon the public mind was soon evident."—E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, pp.* 40, 42-43.—The first organized temperance movement on record was that created in 1789 by two hundred farmers of the county of Litchfield, Connecticut, who formed an association to discourage the use of spirituous liquors. In the same year the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church voted "to do all in its power to make men sober" and John Wesley urged total abstinence. In 1793 the Whisky Rebellion broke out in western Pennsylvania, occasioned by the Federal Congress placing an excise tax of eleven cents a gallon on spirits distilled from foreign materials.—See also PENNSYLVANIA: 1794.—"Following the suppression by the Federal Government of the Whisky Rebellion in Western Pennsylvania, practically every Congress for the next eight years amended the Federal revenue act, increasing or decreasing the various tax provisions until the election and inauguration of Thomas Jefferson as President of the United

States. . . . President Jefferson in 1802 urged Congress to prohibit the sale of liquor among the Indians."—E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, pp.* 45-46. —In 1804 a Total Abstinence Society was formed in Virginia by Micah Pendleton and a large number of people in the Shenandoah Valley signed the pledge. In 1805 a remarkable total abstinence campaign was carried on by the Shawnee chief, "the Prophet"; and for a number of years among the western tribes intoxication was unknown. Other early temperance organizations were the Sober Society, Allentown, Pa., 1805; Union Temperance Society of Moreau and Northumberland, Saratoga, N. Y., 1808, and a total abstinence at Greenfield, Saratoga Co., N. Y., 1809.

United States: 1810-1826.—Activity in the Presbyterian church and other congregations.—John C. Calhoun's prohibition of liquor in the United States army.—In 1810 Dr. Lyman Beecher moved to Litchfield, Connecticut, and became active in temperance work. In the same year the Presbyterian General Assembly appointed a committee to consider and report on conditions regarding the liquor traffic and in 1811 Dr. Benjamin Rush appeared before this assembly to urge the necessity of arousing public sentiment on the liquor question. The General Association of the Congregational church in Connecticut, held in Litchfield, Connecticut, June 1, 1811, appointed a committee to coöperate with the Presbyterian church. The General Association of the Congregational church of Massachusetts, of the Congregational churches in New Hampshire, the General Convention of Vermont, the Synods of New Jersey and New York and the Presbytery of Suffolk took active part in this crusade for temperance. Temperance societies were formed in Portland, Bath and Saco, Maine, in 1812; in 1813 the Massachusetts Society for the Suppression of Intemperance was organized in Boston, its president, the Hon. Samuel Dexter, formerly secretary of war and of the Treasury. In 1818 John C. Calhoun, secretary of war, prohibited the use of liquor altogether in the U. S. Army. In 1820 a temperance society was formed in Charlotte, North Carolina, under Presbyterian auspices. In 1824 the Russian-American Treaty prohibited the sale of intoxicants to the natives of Alaska Territory. The Cherokees passed several stringent laws against selling liquor in their territory.

United States: 1826-1851.—Organized temperance movement.—Early societies.—"The year 1826 marks the beginning of the period of organized temperance effort of a general character in the United States. . . . There had indeed been one or two attempts to inaugurate temperance movements which would have more than a local or state significance, but no such effort proved successful until the organization of the American Temperance Society, later known as the American Society for the Promotion of Temperance, which was born at Boston, Massachusetts, on February 13, 1826. . . . Almost immediately state and local auxiliaries by the hundreds sprang into existence bound together by a common purpose and a common program. Within a year after the organization of the American Temperance Society there had been formed 222 local auxiliaries in the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Kentucky, Ohio and Indiana. By 1829 the number of auxiliary locals had increased to about 1,000, eleven of which were state organizations. By 1831 state organizations had been created in all but five states, and 2,200 local societies had been formed with a membership aggregating 170,000. The number of local organizations had increased to 3,000 by 1832, and in 1833 the number was estimated at 5,000 with a total membership of 1,250,000. Two years later there had been formed 8,000 local temperance societies throughout the United States. . . . By the year 1839 it was estimated that more than 350,000 had signed the total abstinence pledge. . . . The Washingtonian movement was organized in the city of Baltimore in 1840. The Martha Washington movement followed in 1841. The first local society of the Sons of Temperance came into existence in 1842, in which year also the order of Rechabites was first introduced into the United States, and the Congressional Temperance Society of 1833 was reorganized on a basis of total abstinence. The first state division of the Sons of Temperance was organized in New York state in 1843, and the national division came into existence the following year. The Order of Templars of Honor and Temperance was created and became operative in 1845, while the National Temple of Honor and Temperance and the Cadets of Temperance organized under the direction of the Sons of Temperance came into existence in 1846. The following year witnessed the organization of the Society of Good Samaritans. The Order of Templars of Honor and Temperance was reorganized on a life pledge basis in 1848, and the important Father Mathew movement had its beginning in 1849. By 1850 the order of the Sons of Temperance had extended its organization work throughout the country to such a degree that there were recorded in that year 36 grand chapters, 5,894 subordinate divisions, with a total membership of 245,233."—E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, pp.* 89, 94-95.

United States: 1851-1865.—Prohibition movement.—Leaders in temperance movement.—Between 1851 and 1856 prohibition was a question of importance in all the states. Maine passed the Dow prohibition law in 1851 (see MAINE: 1851-1858) and Illinois adopted state-wide prohibition; Rhode Island, Massachusetts and Vermont (see VERMONT: 1852) and the territorial legislature of Minnesota passed prohibition laws in 1852; Connecticut passed a prohibition law in 1854; New Hampshire enacted a law similar to that of Maine in 1855, and Delaware and the territorial legislature of Nebraska passed prohibition laws also in that year. Kansas enacted a prohibition law in 1859; Alabama, several laws in 1861. "The educational value of the Prohibition campaigns for the decade preceding the war of 1861-1865 was tremendous. Prohibition became the burning question of the day—a subject of conversation everywhere. . . . Among those whose names stand out with peculiar luster in connection with the temperance movement of this period are: Abraham Lincoln, who as a member of the Sons of Temperance strongly advocated abstinence and Prohibition; Major J. B. Merwin, who as a representative of President Lincoln preached the gospel of temperance to the soldiers in the camps during the Civil War; Wendell Phillips and Henry Ward Beecher, who had been so prominent in the anti-slavery movement and who when the success of that cause was assured became aggressively active in the temperance reform; Doctor Justin Edwards, who preached the gospel of temperance in most of the states; and Horace Greeley, whose paper, both in editorial and news columns, helped to promote the movement for temperance reform."—

E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, pp.* 140, 144-145.

United States: 1869-1893.—Prohibition party. —W. C. T. U.—State-wide prohibition.—On July 24, 1869, at Mansfield, Ohio, a state prohibition party was formed which nominated a ticket. In 1871 a temperance wave began to sweep over the country. Many laws were enacted and repealed in all the states. In 1873 the Woman's Crusade was organized in Hillsboro, Ohio, headed by Mother Thompson, out of which sprung in the following year, 1874, the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, organized in Cleveland, Ohio. This was one of the most remarkable organizations of the century and also pioneered the movement for equal suffrage. "While the Prohibition party and the Woman's Christian Temperance Union held the center of the stage during most of this period, other temperance organizations rendered valuable assistance in connection with the campaign of education which characterized the years between 1869 and 1893. The National Temperance Society and Publication House, established in New York in 1865, was a non-partisan organization. Its efforts, however, were not along political lines so much as they were along lines of education through the distribution of literature, . . . Miss Lucy Webb Hayes, moreover, as the 'First Lady of the Land' during part of this period, made an important contribution to the temperance movement by banishing intoxicating liquors from the White House in 1878 and keeping them from the White House table during the four years of the Hayes administration. . . . The state-wide Prohibition movement of the eighties started in the state of Kansas, the legislature submitting the question in 1879 and the people adopting the amendment in the fall election of 1880."—E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, pp.* 182, 183, 176.—See also KANSAS: 1876-1890.

United States: 1882.—Liquor laws in Iowa. See IOWA: 1873-1898.

United States: 1885.—Dow law in Ohio. See OHIO: 1866-1908.

United States: 1886-1887.—Passage and repeal of prohibition law in Rhode Island. See RHODE ISLAND: 1867-1887.

United States: 1887.—Four mile law in Tennessee. See TENNESSEE: 1887-1908.

United States: 1892.—Dispensary law in South Carolina. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1892-1899.

United States: 1893-1904.—Anti-Saloon League.—Carrie Nation raids.—An important event in the history of the temperance cause was the organization of the Anti-Saloon League by Dr. Howard H. Russell in Oberlin, Ohio, in 1893, for extermination of liquor traffic. Two years later this was developed into the national Anti-Saloon League in Washington, D. C., by the coalition of the Anti-Saloon League of the District of Columbia, the Anti-Saloon League of Ohio and five other state national and local temperance organizations, with *The American Issue* as its official organ. By 1901 the Anti-Saloon League had societies in thirty-six states and territories. At the beginning of the twentieth century Carrie Nation began her famous raids in Kansas. In certain places the prohibition laws had become lax and Carrie Nation endeavored by violent measures to secure their enforcement.

United States: 1896-1900.—Question in American politics. See U. S. A.: 1896: Party platforms, etc.; 1900 (May-November).

United States: 1896-1897.—Raines liquor law. See NEW YORK: 1896-1897.

United States: 1899.—Alabama and South Dakota dispensary systems for regulating sale of liquor. See ALABAMA: 1899; SOUTH DAKOTA: 1899.

United States: 1901.—Abolition of the so-called "army canteen." See U. S. A.: 1901 (February).

United States: 1906-1913.—Increase in prohibition.—National C. O. D. Liquor Shipment Bill. —Jones-Works law.—"At the beginning of the period, three states were under state-wide Prohibition. Before the end of the period seven additional states had been added to the Prohibition column. One, however, repealed the law in 1911, thus leaving nine states under state-wide prohibitory laws at the end of the period. Campaigns for state-wide Prohibition, moreover, had already been inaugurated in approximately half of the remaining states, and 15 state capitals were under no-license. Considerable progress was also made during this period toward advanced temperance legislation in the United States Congress. Several additional appropriations for recreation buildings at army posts were granted by Congress. The National C. O. D. Liquor Shipment bill was passed in 1909 and the Jones-Works law providing for numerous restrictions on the sale of intoxicating liquors in the District of Columbia was enacted in 1912. As state after state was added to the Prohibition column the problem of enforcement within the borders of each State became serious. . . . While the C. O. D. law passed by Congress in 1909 helped to relieve the situation to some extent, the flagrant violations of state laws and state constitutional amendments continued until after a long, hard fight on the part of the Prohibition forces before Congress, the interstate liquor shipment bill known as the Webb-Kenyon law was enacted by Congress in 1913."—E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, pp.* 284-285.

United States: 1907.—Pendleton law in Tennessee. See TENNESSEE: 1887-1908.

United States: 1913.—Webb-Kenyon law.—The text of this law reads as follows: "An Act Divesting intoxicating liquors of their interstate character in certain cases. *'Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That the shipment or transportation, in any manner or by any means whatsoever, of any spirituous, vinous, malted, fermented, or other intoxicating liquor of any kind, from one State, Territory, or District of the United States, or place noncontiguous to but subject to the jurisdiction thereof, into any other State, Territory, or District of the United States, or place noncontiguous to but subject to the jurisdiction thereof, or from any foreign country into any State, Territory, or District of the United States, or place noncontiguous to but subject to the jurisdiction thereof, which said spirituous, vinous, malted, fermented, or other intoxicating liquor is intended, by any person interested therein, to be received, possessed, sold, or in any manner used, either in the original package or otherwise, in violation of any law of such State, Territory, or District of the United States, or place noncontiguous to but subject to the jurisdiction thereof, is hereby prohibited.' The United States Congress passed the Webb-Kenyon law over the veto of President William H. Taft, thus prohibiting shipment in interstate commerce of intoxicating liquors. . . . This law, which was later upheld by the Supreme Court of the United States, eliminated from the protection of interstate commerce regulations all shipments of intoxicating liquors in-

tended for use in the violation of state laws. This was the crowning victory of the period, not only because of the direct results of the operations of this Federal law, but also because of the fact that the passage of the law under all the circumstances had committed the Congress of the United States to a policy which in reality recognized the liquor traffic as an outlaw trade and which indicated a special desire on the part of Congress to assist the states in the complete enforcement of all prohibitory legislation against the traffic."—E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, pp.* 285-286.

United States: 1913-1917.—Minnesota's legislation to aid prohibition. See MINNESOTA: 1911-1918.

United States: 1913-1919.—Movement for national constitutional prohibition.—Prohibition states.—Committee of One Thousand, and national constitutional prohibition.—Hobson Joint Resolution.—Reed Amendment.—Selective Draft Act.—Josephus Daniels and dry zones.—Food Conservation Act.—War-time Prohibition Bill.—Eighteenth Amendment.—"In 1913 not only were nine states under state-wide prohibitory legislation, but the fight for prohibitory laws had already been inaugurated in more than a score of other states in most of which a majority of the population was living in territory made dry by vote of the people under local option laws. The nine Prohibition states in 1913 had an aggregate population of 14,685,961. In the 31 other states operating under local option laws the population living in dry territory at that time was 26,446,810. There were three other States having an aggregate population of 3,693,201 in which the Legislatures had provided for state-wide Prohibition in all sections except those localities where a majority of the voters agreed to waive the prohibitory provisions. Two other states were under state-wide Prohibition for all territory outside of incorporated villages and cities. Congress, moreover, had prohibited the liquor traffic in military forts and reservations, in the United States Navy, in the National Capitol building at Washington, in national and state Soldier's Homes, and in other specified areas under Federal Government control. By reason of the operation of all these prohibitory provisions more than 46,000,000 people (more than half the population of the United States) in all the states were living under prohibitory legislation. . . . The national convention of the Anti-Saloon League at Columbus in November, 1913, had authorized the selection of a Committee of One Thousand Men to meet in the city of Washington, march to the Capitol of the United States, and present to the members of both Houses of Congress the League's proposed resolution providing for the submission of National Constitutional Prohibition. The national Woman's Christian Temperance Union also organized a Committee of One Thousand Women for a similar purpose. When these committees met and formed on Pennsylvania Avenue in the nation's capital city, the Committee of One Thousand Men had been increased to a committee of more than two thousand, while the Committee of Women had also increased beyond the thousand mark, so that as the two committees joined forces they represented a human petition of more than three thousand American citizens, representing practically every state in the Union appealing to Congress to submit National Prohibition to the Legislatures of the several states. . . . The Committee of One Thousand appealed to Congress in harmony with the spirit of Article One of the amendments to the Federal Constitution, guaranteeing 'the right of the people peaceably to assemble and petition the government for a redress of grievances.' The committee reminded the Congress that a majority of the population of the United States lived under Prohibition; that local and state Prohibition had been thoroughly tried and had fully demonstrated the benefits of such a policy in the diminution of crime, pauperism and insanity and in the increase of wealth, happiness and the general prosperity of the people."—E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, pp.* 320-322.—"The Hobson Joint Resolution was taken up by the House of Representatives by the adoption of a special roll on December 22, 1914, and on final vote received 197 votes in its favor with 189 votes against it, thus failing for lack of a two-thirds majority. . . . Similar resolutions were presented in both Houses early in the first session of the Sixty-Fifth Congress and were passed, in the Senate on August 1, 1917 and in the House on December 17, 1917."—E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, p.* 326.—"The Reed amendment to the Post office appropriation act of March 3, 1917, forbade under penalty the sending through interstate commerce intoxicating liquors except for 'scientific, sacramental, medicinal, and mechanical purposes,' into any state or territory the laws of which prohibit the manufacture and sale of such liquors."—R. E. Cushman, *Judicial decisions on public law* (*American Political Science Review, May,* 1919).—"Congress promptly passed a rather sweeping prohibition of the keeping or the sale of liquor by private agencies in any military camp and specifically forbade the sale of intoxicating liquor, including beer, ale and wine, to any officer or soldier in uniform. This prohibition was embodied as Section 12 of the act approved May 18, 1917, commonly called the Selective Draft Act, but officially entitled 'An Act to Authorize the President to Increase Temporarily the Military Establishment of the United States.' Section 12 reads as follows: 'That the President of the United States, as commander in chief of the army, is authorized to make such regulations governing the prohibition of alcoholic liquors in or near military camps and to the officers and enlisted men of the army as he may from time to time deem necessary or advisable: *Provided,* That no person, corporation, partnership, or association shall sell, supply, or have in his or its possession, any intoxicating or spirituous liquors at any military station, cantonment, camp, fort, post, officers' or enlisted men's club, which is being used at the time for military purposes under this act, but the Secretary of War may make regulations permitting the sale and use of intoxicating liquors for medicinal purposes. It shall be unlawful to sell any intoxicating liquor, including beer, ale, or wine, to any officer or member of the military forces while in uniform, except as herein provided. Any person, corporation, partnership, or association violating the provisions of this section of the regulations made thereunder shall, unless otherwise punishable under the Articles of War, be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and be punished by a fine of not more than $1,000 or imprisonment for not more than twelve months, or both.' . . . On June 9, 1917, the *Official Bulletin* published the following: 'The Navy Department authorizes the following: Secretary Daniels has sent the following telegram to all naval stations: The Department requested opinion Attorney General as to whether Section 12, Selective Draft Act, approved May 18, 1917, containing prohibition provisions, applies to naval

forces. Attorney General replied, in part, as follows: "This Department has administratively construed the provision in question as covering the entire military establishment of the United States, including the navy and marine corps." Please give this matter widest publicity.' (Followed by prohibition provisions.) The matter was settled, however, by a special act of Congress, approved October 6, 1917, extending the provisions of Section 12 of the Selective Draft Act, to the navy as well as to the army. This act is entitled, 'An Act to Promote the Efficiency of the United States Navy,' and reads as follows: *'Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled,* That in construing the provisions of Sections 12 and 13 of the Selective Draft Act, approved May 18, 1917, the word "army" shall extend to and include "navy"; the word "military" shall include "naval"; "Articles of War" shall include "Articles for the Government of the Navy"; the words "military station, cantonment, camp, fort, post, officers' or enlisted men's club," in Section 12, and "camp, station, fort, post, cantonment, training or mobilization place," in Section 13, shall include such places under naval jurisdiction as the President may prescribe, and the powers therein conferred upon the Secretary of War with regard to the military service are hereby conferred upon the Secretary of the Navy with regard to the naval service.' The Secretary of the Navy [Josephus Daniels] had meanwhile been active in controlling the situation so far as his authority would permit him to go, and also in urging upon the State authorities in those States where navy yards and naval stations were located the necessity of cleaning up the neighborhoods surrounding such stations. . . . Acting on the authority given by the Selective Draft Act as amended, the Secretary of the Navy established dry zones in the following order:

"1. Section 12 of the Selective Draft Act, approved May 18, 1917.

"2. This section is amended by the act approved October 6, 1917.

"3. Under the authority of Section 12 above, as amended, the following regulations are established by the President, to continue during the present emergency:

"(1) There is hereby established a zone five miles wide, circumjacent to the boundaries of every place under naval jurisdiction specified below. Alcoholic liquor, including beer, ale, and wine, either alone or with any other article, shall not, directly or indirectly, be sold, bartered, given, served, or knowingly delivered by one person to another within any such zone, or sent, shipped, transmitted, carried, or transported to any place within any such zone; *Provided,* That this regulation shall not apply to the giving or serving of such liquor in a private home to members of the family or *bona fide* guests, other than officers or members of the naval forces; *Provided also,* That this regulation shall not apply to the sale or gift of such liquor by registered pharmacists to licensed physicians or medical officers of the United States for medical purposes, or to the administering of such liquor by or under the direction of such physicians or medical officers of the United States for medical purposes, or to the sending, shipping, transmitting, carrying, or transporting of such liquor to registered pharmacists, licensed physicians, or medical officers of the United States for use as aforesaid.

"(2) Until otherwise ordered the places under naval jurisdiction referred to above are specified as follows:

Naval Academy, Annapolis, Md.
Naval Training Station, Newport, R. I.
Naval Training Station, Norfolk, Va.
Naval Training Station, Great Lakes, Ill.
Naval Training Station, Naval Operating Base, Hampton Roads, Va.
Training Camp, Navy Yard, Mare Island, Cal.
Marine Barracks, Paris Island, S. C.
Marine Barracks, Quantico, Va.

"(3) Outside of said zones, alcoholic liquor, including beer, ale, and wine, either alone or with any other article, shall not directly or indirectly, be sold, bartered, given, served, or knowingly delivered to any officer or member of the naval forces, except when administered for medical purposes by or under the direction of a regularly licensed physician or medical officer of the United States; *Provided,* That this regulation shall not apply to the giving or serving of such liquor in a private home to members of the family or *bona fide* guests. . . .

"Opinion was divided as to the best policy to pursue with respect to 'malt and vinous liquors.' Congress promptly prohibited the use of food materials for the manufacture of distilled spirits for beverage purposes, but threw upon the President the responsibility of deciding what to do with the question of beer and wine. In an act, commonly called the Food Conservation Act, but officially entitled 'an act to provide further for the national security and defense by encouraging the production, conserving the supply, and controlling the distribution of food products and fuel,' approved August 10, 1917, it was provided as follows:

"Section 15. That from and after 30 days from the date of the approval of this act no foods, fruits, food materials, or feeds shall be used in the production of distilled spirits for beverage purposes; *Provided,* That under such rules, regulations, and bonds as the President may prescribe, such materials may be used in the production of distilled spirits exclusively for other than beverage purposes, or for the fortification of pure sweet wines as defined by the act entitled "An act to increase the revenue, and for other purposes," approved September 8, 1916. Nor shall there be imported into the United States any distilled spirits. Whenever the President shall find that limitation, regulation, or prohibition of the use of foods, fruits, food materials, or feeds in the production of malt or vinous liquors for beverage purposes, or that reduction of the alcoholic content of any such malt or vinous liquor, is essential, in order to assure an adequate and continuous supply of food, or that the national security and defense will be subserved thereby, he is authorized, from time to time, to prescribe and give public notice of the extent of the limitation, regulation, prohibition, or reduction so necessitated. Whenever such notice shall have been given and shall remain unrevoked no person shall, after a reasonable time prescribed in such notice, use any foods, fruits, food materials, or feeds in the production of malt or vinous liquors, or import any such liquors except under license issued by the President and in compliance with rules and regulations determined by him governing the production and importation of such liquors and the alcoholic content thereof. Any person who wilfully violates the provisions of this section, or who shall use any foods, fruits,

food materials, or feeds in the production of malt or vinous liquors, or who shall import any such liquors, without first obtaining a license so to do when a license is required under this section, shall be punished by a fine not exceeding $5,000, or by imprisonment for not more than two years, or both; *Provided further,* That nothing in this section shall be construed to authorize the licensing of the manufacture of vinous or malt liquors in any State, Territory, or the District of Columbia, or any civil subdivision thereof, where the manufacture of such vinous or malt liquor is prohibited.

"Section 16. That the President is authorized and directed to commandeer any or all distilled spirits in bond or in stock at the date of the approval of this act for redistillation, in so far as such redistillation may be necessary to meet the requirements of the government in the manufacture of munitions and other military and hospital supplies, or in so far as such redistillation would dispense with the necessity of utilizing products and materials suitable for foods and feeds in the future manufacture of distilled spirits for the purposes herein enumerated. The President shall determine and pay a just compensation for the distilled spirits so commandeered; and if the compensation so determined be not satisfactory to the person entitled to receive the same such person shall be paid 75 per centum of the amount so determined by the President and shall be entitled to sue the United States to recover such further sum as, added to said 75 per centum, will make up such amount as will be just compensation for such spirits, in the manner provided by Section 24, Paragraph 20, and Section 145 of the Judicial Code. . . .

"Various efforts were made from time to time to get Congress to act in the matter and prohibit the use of food materials in the production of all alcoholic beverages, as it had already done in the case of distilled spirits. One of the most significant of these was a provision attached as a rider to the Food Production Act for 1919. This act was introduced as H. R. 11945 and is entitled: An Act to Enable the Secretary of Agriculture to Carry Out, during the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1919, the Purposes of the Act Entitled 'An Act to Provide Further for the National Security and Defense by Stimulating Agriculture and Facilitating, the Distribution of Agricultural Products.' . . . Such proclamation being 'the prohibition of the use of foods, fruits, food materials, or feeds in the production of malt or vinous liquors for beverage purposes.' Discussion over the proviso raged fiercely, though the opposition of the Administration tended to throw cold water upon it. The fear seemed to be that it would interfere too drastically with the habits of large numbers of people. It was also urged that, under the rule reducing the alcoholic content of beer to 2.75 per cent, the evil of drunkenness would be greatly reduced, and that some saving of food materials had already been effected by the rule limiting the brewers to 70 per cent of the food materials formerly used up in the manufacture of their product. On the other hand, it was argued that while undoubtedly both rules were good enough as far as they went, they did not go far enough. Why, it was asked, should we waste any food in the production of a non-essential, and why should we allow an intoxicating beverage to be manufactured at all, even though it is less strong and less intoxicating than that which was previously manufactured? The question is hard to answer. Various substitutes for the above amendment were offered, but finally a vote was obtained on November 18, 1918, upon the following, which has come to be known as the War Time Prohibition Bill:

"Be it enacted that after June 30, 1919, until the conclusion of the present war, and thereafter until the termination of demobilization, the date of which shall be determined and proclaimed by the President of the United States, for the purpose of conserving the man-power of the nation, and to increase efficiency in the production of arms, munitions, ships, food and clothing for the army and navy, it shall be unlawful to sell for beverage purposes any distilled spirits, and during said time no distilled spirits held in bond shall be removed therefrom for beverage purposes except for export.

"After May 1, 1919, until the conclusion of the present war, and thereafter until the termination of demobilization, the date of which shall be determined and proclaimed by the President of the United States, no grains, cereals, fruit or other food products shall be used in the manufacture or production of beer, wine or other intoxicating malt or vinous liquor for beverage purposes.

"After June 30, 1919, until the conclusion of the present war and thereafter until the termination of demobilization, the date of which shall be determined and proclaimed by the President of the United States, no beer, wine or other intoxicating malt or vinous liquor shall be sold for beverage purposes, except for export. The Commissioner of Internal Revenue is hereby authorized and directed to prescribe rules and regulations, subject to the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, in regard to the manufacture and sale of distilled liquors and the removal of distilled spirits held in bond after June 30, 1919, until this act shall cease to operate, for other than beverage purposes; also in regard to the manufacture, sale and distribution of wine for sacramental, medicinal or other beverage uses.

"After the approval of this act no distilled malt, vinous or other intoxicating liquors shall be imported into the United States during the continuance of the present war and period of demobilization.

"Any person who violates any of the foregoing provisions shall be punished by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by fine not exceeding $1,000, or by both such imprisonment and fine.

"Provided, that the President of the United States be and hereby is authorized and empowered, at any time after the passage of this act, to establish zones of such size as he may deem advisable about coal mines, munition factories, ship building plants and such other plants for war material as may seem to him to require such action whenever in his opinion the creation of such zones is necessary to or advisable in the proper prosecution of the war, and that he is hereby authorized and empowered to prohibit the sale, manufacture or distribution of intoxicating liquors in such zones, and that any violation of the President's regulations in this regard shall be punished by imprisonment for not more than one year, or by a fine of not more than $1,000, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

"Provided further, that nothing in this act shall be construed to interfere with the power conferred upon the President by Section 15, of the food control act, approved August 10, 1917.

"This act received the President's signature on November 21, 1918, and became a law. . . .

"Most significant of all, however, was the pro-

posed prohibition amendment to the Constitution of the United States. This was introduced as a joint resolution in August, 1917, at the first session of the Sixty-fifth Congress, and reintroduced, with minor changes, in December, at the second session of the same Congress, and rather promptly adopted on December 28, somewhat to the surprise, probably, of some of its supporters. . . . By February 25, 1919, forty-five States had ratified the . . . [eighteenth] amendment [see U. S. A.: Constitution], the only States failing to ratify being Rhode Island, New Jersey and Connecticut. . . . The following is a list of the States that have adopted prohibition as a State law, with the dates of its going into effect:

Maine (Constitutional)	1851
Kansas (Constitutional)	1880
North Dakota (Constitutional)	1880
Oklahoma (Constitutional)	1907
Georgia (Statutory)	1908
North Carolina (Statutory)	1909
Mississippi (Statutory)	1909
Tennessee (Statutory)	1909
West Virginia (Constitutional)	1914
Alabama (Statutory)	1915
Arizona (Constitutional)	1915
Virginia (Statutory)	1916
Colorado (Constitutional)	1916
Oregon (Constitutional)	1916
Washington (Statutory)	1916
Arkansas (Statutory)	1916
Iowa (Statutory)	1916
Idaho (Constitutional)	1916
South Carolina (Statutory)	1916
Nebraska (Constitutional)	1917
South Dakota (Constitutional)	1917
District of Columbia (Statutory)	1917
Alaska (Statutory)	1918
Indiana (Statutory)	1918
Michigan (Constitutional)	1918
New Hampshire (Statutory)	1918
Montana (Constitutional)	1918
New Mexico (Constitutional)	1918
Texas (Statutory)	1918
Florida (Constitutional)	1919
Utah (Constitutional)	1919
Ohio (Constitutional)	1919
Nevada (Statutory)	1919
Wyoming (Constitutional)	1920
Delaware (Statutory)	1920."—

T. N. Carver, *Government control of the liquor business, pp.* 152-153, 155-158, 168-169, 174-175, 178-180.

United States: 1916.—Controversy in Idaho of personal vs. state rights. See IDAHO: 1916.

United States: 1919-1920.—Volstead Act.—Supreme Court of the United States.—States Rights vs. Eighteenth Amendment.—Walker Bill.—Calvin Coolidge.—The Volstead Act, also known as the Volstead Prohibition Enforcement Code, providing for the enforcement of prohibition was passed by the United States House of Representatives on July 22, 1919, by a vote of 287 to 100, and by the Senate on September 4, without roll call. The measure then goes to conference. The Senate concurred in the conference decision on October 8, and the House by a vote of 321 to 70, on October 10. The measure was vetoed by President Wilson on October 27, and passed over the President's veto, by a vote of 176 to 55 in the House of Representatives and by a vote of 65 to 20 in the United States Senate. The Eighteenth Amendment to the Constitution, providing for national prohibition of the sale, manufacture, transportation, importation and exportation of intoxicating liquors, went into effect at midnight, January 16, 1920. The Supreme Court of the United States on January 5 rendered a decision holding that Congress has power to define intoxicating liquors, and to fix the standard of alcohol at one-half of 1 per cent by volume. The Supreme Court of the United States on June 7, 1920, unanimously rendered a decision upholding the validity of the Eighteenth Amendment to the Constitution, and the Volstead Enforcement Act. "The decision amounted to a decree of nation-wide 'bone-dry' prohibition, at least until Congress should decide to enact a less stringent enforcement law. The ability of any State to override the Federal Government and to maintain any degree of 'wetness' beyond that fixed by Congress was denied. The petitions of Rhode Island and New Jersey, as well as other State appeals from Massachusetts, Kentucky, Wisconsin and Missouri to prohibit enforcement; the action brought by Christian Feigenspan of Newark, and all pending injunctions, were dismissed. Petitions for a rehearing were immediately filed by three of the principal opponents. The decision of the Supreme Court was unanimous; four of the Judges, though sustaining the Volstead act, disagreed regarding some of its interpretations. By this sweeping dismissal of all attacks upon the constitutionality of the prohibition laws, the long battle between the 'drys' and the 'wets' reached its culmination and resulted in a triumph for the prohibitionists. Two attempts, made on Feb. 25 and March 4, to have Congress repeal the Volstead law had failed of success. Four States lost suits to have the Eighteenth Amendment declared unconstitutional on the ground of infringement of State rights. The first of these actions was brought by Rhode Island on Jan. 25, and immediately gave rise to a countersuit brought on March 1 by twenty-one States leagued together, to ask the Supreme Court to dismiss Rhode Island's suit. Having heard arguments in the Rhode Island, Kentucky and Massachusetts cases on March 8, the Supreme Court on March 15 granted New Jersey permission to bring original proceedings against the amendment. Previous to this decision (on March 2) Governor Edwards of New Jersey signed a bill permitting the manufacture and sale of beer containing 3.50 per cent. alcohol. Governor Edwards assailed the Anti-Saloon League and the Prohibition activities of W. J. Bryan and declared that there could be 'no greater work of God than the defense of ancient American liberty.' Besides the presentation of the State cases, an attack upon the constitutionality of the amendment and law was made in briefs filed in the Supreme Court on March 27 and argued by Elihu Root and William G. Guthrie on behalf of Christian Feigenspan, a brewer of Newark, N. J. The first hearing occurred on March 29. By the final decision of the Supreme Court this test case, as well as all State appeals and test injunctions, was dismissed. Pending the decision of the Supreme Court, other States besides New Jersey passed bills providing for the State sale of 2.75 per cent. beer. Massachusetts had declared for such a bill by legislative action, but Governor [Calvin] Coolidge vetoed the bill passed on the ground that it would be hypocrisy, since it could bring the people no beer, and to act under it would be an infraction of national law. New York State, however, on May 24, followed the example of New Jersey by passing, with Governor Smith's approval, the Walker bill for 2.75 per cent. beer. In approving this bill, the New York Governor said that it represented

the majority sentiment of New York and of its Legislature. In signing the measure he stated that he accepted the Legislature's decision that 2.75 per cent. beer was non-intoxicating. The New York law, like the rest of its kind, became void after the Supreme Court's decision."—*New York Times, July,* 1920, *p.* 563.—"A decision by Attorney General Palmer, in which he held that the authority of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue to issue permits for the sale in wholesale quantities of intoxicating liquors was limited to manufacturers and wholesale druggists, was made public at Washington on Feb. 2. The decision was said to mean that wholesalers or brokers, other than wholesale druggists, would not be permitted in future to obtain the release of liquor from bond or dispose of it to customers. The Internal Revenue Bureau had 3,888 listed who would be affected by the order. The druggists themselves were limited still further, when orders were issued on Jan. 29 to the prohibition directors of the 'wet belt,' including Connecticut, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania and Rhode Island, to withhold all permits for withdrawal of liquor from warehouses with the exception of users of industrial alcohol, users of sacramental wines and five cases of whisky on each permit for each druggist licensed to sell liquors for medicinal purposes."—*New York Times Current History, Mar.,* 1921, *p.* 393.

United States: 1923.—Seizure of ship liquor.—One of the great issues developing from prohibition is the right of foreign ships to bring liquor into the United States across the three-mile limit. On June 16, Secretary Mellon sent the following instruction to the Surgeon-general of the United States Public Health Service: "You will advise the officers of the United States Public Health Service at the various ports that when the officers or authorities of any foreign merchant vessel within the territorial waters of the United States shall make application for the privilege of using liquors for medicinal purposes under the provision of T. D. 3484 (Form 1539) and the laws of the country of the home port of such vessels shall prescribe a given quantity of liquor for medicinal purposes, such quantity shall be allowed by the United States Public Health Officer in charge." On June 21, 1923, the United States government ordered the seizure of all beverage liquors brought into American territorial waters even under seal, the question at issue being whether foreign ships may bring inside the American three-mile limit stocks of liquor intended for the use of passengers on eastbound voyages. Representatives of foreign governments were notified of the step to be taken under instruction from the Treasury. The great British shipping companies agreed to make a test case of the Cunarder *Baltic* which arrived in New York harbor, June 22. Seals bearing the imprint of the British Crown on the door of the wine room in the White Star liner were broken (June 24) and 6,198 bottles of liquor were technically seized by United States Treasury officials. A similar action occurred on the Cunard liner *Berengaria* later in the same day and 3,193 bottles of spirits and beer were seized by the surveyor of the Port of New York. After consultation with the surveyor and collector of the port, Dr. E. K. Sprague of the Marine hospital left on board a liberal allowance of wine, spirits and beer as medical stores for passengers and crew. The captain of both the *Baltic* and the *Berengaria* filed protests, for use when the matter comes up for diplomatic action through the British embassy in Washington.

International movements.—International congresses on alcoholism.—For twenty-four years an International congress on alcoholism has held biennial meetings in different European cities, beginning at Antwerp in 1885. The meeting of 1905 was at Budapest; that of 1907 at Stockholm; that of 1909 at London. The delegates to the latter numbered about 1300, from nearly every European country, and from the United States, Canada, and South Africa. Judge William J. Pollard, of St. Louis, representative of the United States government, was known widely as the originator of the pledge instead of prison method of dealing with drunkards. When he spoke on that subject he was given a double allowance of time, a declaration in favor of the plan was signed by practically every delegate in the hall. One of the results of the congress was the organization of a "World's Prohibition Confederation," "to better amalgamate the forces in various countries working along their respective lines towards the one common aim of the total suppression of the liquor traffic." In 1893 the World's Temperance Congress was held in Chicago at the World's Fair. A committee from the Anti-Saloon League of America attended the Paris peace conference in 1918 and in connection with other national temperance organizations urged that the "peace treaty contain some provision for the protection of native races against the ravages of alcohol as that which had been put into effect by the nations of Europe and America in the Brussels Conference of 1898. [See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1890-1906.] It is of interest to note in this connection that the provision for excluding distilled liquors from the native race countries of Africa, which was finally agreed upon by the Paris Peace Conference, was far more comprehensive and enforceable, even, than the original agreement of the Brussels Conference. By joint action of the Anti-Saloon League of America and the Dominion Temperance Alliance of Canada, arrangements were made for a World-wide Prohibition Conference to be held on the American continent during the latter part of May and the first week of June, 1919. This conference was opened in Toronto, Canada, on May 22, 1919, and was adjourned to meet in the city of Washington, D. C., U. S. A., on June 4, 1919. This conference was attended by representatives from more than fifty different countries of the world. Official representatives from leading temperance organizations from fifteen different nations were present and took part in the deliberations, as a result of which there was organized on June 7, 1919, at Washington, D. C., the World League Against Alcoholism."—E. H. Cherrington, *Evolution of prohibition in the United States of America, pp.* 369-370.—The Fifteenth International Congress against alcoholism was held in Washington, D. C., September 21-27, 1920, conducted by the direction of the United States Department of State under the authority and appropriations of the United States Congress. The World League Against Alcoholism held a meeting at Toronto, Canada, November 24-29, 1922, with over 1100 registered delegates from sixty-six countries besides the United States and Canada. The Toronto convention was of great significance in the progress of temperance reform. Definite plans were made for a world-wide campaign against the organized liquor traffic, the ultimate object of which is the complete abolition of the traffic from every nation of the earth. Three countries were represented which are already dry—the United States, Finland and Iceland, although in the latter prohibition law has been suspended for one year

because of economic pressure forced by Spain. See also TEMPERANCE MOVEMENTS.

ALSO IN: F. Franklin, *What prohibition has done to America.—A. Newsholme, Prohibition in America, and its relation to the problem of public control of personal conduct.*

LIQUOR SHIPMENT BILL (1909). See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1906-1913.

LISBON, capital of Portugal, on the Tagus river near the Atlantic ocean. The part near the citadel that escaped the earthquakes of 1755, is still known by its Moorish name, Alfama. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries Lisbon was the greatest port for oriental goods. The harbor is one of the finest in the world, the docks extending for miles. In 1921, the population numbered 435,359.

Origin and early history. See PORTUGAL: Early history.

1147.—Capture from the Moors.—Made capital of Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1095-1325.

1588.—Sailing of Spanish Armada. See ENGLAND: 1588: Spanish Armada.

1755.—Great earthquake.—"On the morning of the 1st of November in this year, at the same period, though in less or greater degree, a far-spreading earthquake ran through great part both of Europe and Barbary. In the north its effects, as usual with earthquakes in that region, were happily slight and few. Some gentle vibrations were felt as far as Dantzick. . . . In Madrid a violent shock was felt, but no buildings, and only two human beings, perished. In Fez and in Morocco, on the contrary, great numbers of houses fell down, and great multitudes of people were buried beneath the ruins. But the widest and most fearful destruction was reserved for Lisbon. Already, in the year 1531, that city had been laid half in ruins by an earthquake. The 1st of November 1755 was All Saints' Day, a festival of great solemnity; and at nine in the morning all the churches of Lisbon were crowded with kneeling worshippers of each sex, all classes, and all ages, when a sudden and most violent shock made every church reel to its foundations. Within the intervals of a few minutes two other shocks no less violent ensued, and every church in Lisbon —tall column and towering spire—was hurled to the ground. Thousands and thousands of people were crushed to death, and thousands more grievously maimed, unable to crawl away, and left to expire in lingering agony. The more stately and magnificent had been the fabric, the wider and more grievous was the havoc made by its ruin. About one fourth, as was vaguely computed, of all the houses in the city toppled down. The encumbered streets could scarce afford an outlet to the fugitives; 'friends,' says an eye-witness, 'running from their friends, fathers from their children, husbands from their wives, because every one fled away from their habitations full of terror, confusion, and distraction.' The earth seemed to heave and quiver like an animated being. The sun was darkened with the clouds of lurid dust that arose. Frantic with fear a headlong multitude rushed for refuge to a large and newly built stone pier which jutted out into the Tagus, when a sudden convulsion of the stream turned this pier bottom uppermost, like a ship on its keel in the tempest, and then engulphed it. And of all the living creatures who had lately thronged it,—full 3,000, it is said, not one, even as a corpse, ever rose again. From the banks of the river other crowds were looking on in speechless affright, when the river itself came rushing in upon them like a torrent, though against wind and tide. It rose at least fifteen feet above the highest spring tides, and then again subsided, drawing in, or dashing to pieces, every thing within its reach, while the very ships in the harbour were violently whirled around. Earth and water alike seemed let loose as scourges on this devoted city. 'Indeed every element,' says a person present, 'seemed to conspire to our destruction . . . for in about two hours after the shock fires broke out in three different parts of the city, occasioned from the goods and the kitchen fires being all jumbled together.' At this time also the wind grew into a fresh gale, which made the fires spread in extent and rage with fury during three days, until there remained but little for them to devour. Many of the maimed and wounded are believed to have perished unseen and unheeded in the flames; some few were almost miraculously rescued after being for whole days buried where they fell, without light or food or hope. The total number of deaths was computed at the time as not less than 30,000." —Lord Mahon, *History of England, v. 4, ch. 32.*

1807.—Occupied by the French.—Departure of royal family for Brazil. See PORTUGAL: 1807.

1820-1824.—Uprising to oust the British.—Council of regency. See PORTUGAL: 1820-1824.

1908.—Assassination of King Carlos and the crown prince. See PORTUGAL: 1906-1909.

1909.—Earthquake. See PORTUGAL: 1909 (April).

1910.—Overthrow of monarchy.—Proclamation of the republic. See PORTUGAL: 1910.

1911-1912.—Labor difficulties.—Revolutionary strike.—Its suppression.—"In 1911, the difficult first year of the Republic, Lisbon was threatened with a general strike, and local strikes were epidemic everywhere. This phase passed of itself; but later the movement took on a more organized and dangerous form, and about the time that the Royalist movement became negligible, the Republicans were seriously menaced by a revolution in favour of a 'Radical Republic.' In January, 1912, a revolutionary strike in Lisbon was only quelled by the declaration of martial law and arrest of over a thousand Syndicalists. The 'Reds' could at any movement by their control of the railways prevent the conveyance of troops, and the center of their organization in Lisbon was a regular citadel, well supplied with bombs and small arms."—G. Young, *Portugal old and young, p. 286.*—The strike was quelled, the "Reds" of Lisbon disarmed and their organization broken up by the efficient action of Dr. Affonza Costa, the premier.

1919 (January).—Monarchist uprising.—Quelled by the people. See PORTUGAL: 1919.

LISIEUX, town in the department of Calvados, France, twenty-six miles east of Caen. See LEXOVII.

LISLE, Leconte de. See LECONTE DE LISLE.

LISLE, Rouget de. See ROUGET DE LISLE.

LISSA, Battle of (1866). See ITALY: 1862-1866.

LISSA, island in the northeastern part of the Adriatic sea, off the coast of Dalmatia. It was promised to Italy by the Treaty of London, 1915, but was given to Jugo-Slavia by the Treaty of Rapallo, 1920. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

LIST, Friedrich (1789-1846), German economist. See EUROPE: Modern: Conflicting currents before World War.

LISTENERS. See CLIENTES.

LISTENING POSTS, World War. See TRENCH WARFARE: Beginnings.

LISTER, Joseph, 1st Baron (1827-1912), English surgeon. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: In-

struments; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Antiseptic surgery and obstetrics.

LISZT, Franz, or Ference (1811-1886), Hungarian pianist and composer. Studied with Czerny and Salieri; kapellmeister to the grand duke of Weimar, 1849-1861; took minor orders in the Catholic Church, 1865; originated the musical form known as "Symphonic Poem"; became champion of new works of merit; president of the Hungarian Academy of Music, Pest, 1875. As a pianist he has never been excelled; foremost among his compositions are his thirteen "Symphonic Poems" and the "Hungarian Rhapsodies." It was largely owing to Liszt's artistic sympathy and pecuniary aid that Wagner was able to develop his great genius. See MUSIC: Modern: 1830-1921; 1843-1897; 1847-1921.

LIT DE JUSTICE. See BED OF JUSTICE.

LITERACY TESTS: For immigrants. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1835-1915; 1917.

LITERARY CLUB. See CLUBS.

LITERATURE, American, English, French, German, Scandinavian, etc. See AMERICAN LITERATURE; ENGLISH LITERATURE; FRENCH LITERATURE; GERMAN LITERATURE; SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE; etc.

Copyright laws. See COPYRIGHT.

LITHUANIA, republic on the Baltic sea, bounded on the north by Latvia; west and south by Germany; south by Poland; east by Russia. (See also RUSSIA: Map.) The capital is Vilna (Vilnius).

Territory and population.—Race and language.—"According to the Russo-Lithuanian Peace Treaty, concluded on July 12, 1920, Lithuania comprises an area of approximately 82,000 square kilometres (approximately 32,000 square miles), and the three governments of the former Russian Empire, Suvalki (Suvalkai), Kovno (Kaunas), and Vilna (Vilnius), which is the ethnographical territory of the original Lithuanian Grand Duchy, and in past centuries was always recognized by both Poles and Russians as ethnographical Lithuania, or Lithuania Proper. The population of this area numbers over 4,200,000, of which about 75 per cent. are Lithuanians by race and tongue, the rest being Jews, White Russians, Poles and others. Owing, however, to the loss of the Vilnius region through the *force majeure* of Polish filibustering, the population actually under the jurisdiction of the Lithuanian Government at the time of writing [1922] is not probably much in excess of two millions, of which fewer than 3 per cent. are Poles. This, then, in brief, is the State which ever since the election of a Constituent Assembly, or Seim, in April 1920, by universal, direct, and secret suffrage, according to the system of proportional representation, has vainly sought for *de jure* recognition from the Allies, though this recognition has been granted by almost every other neutral country and former enemy state, large and small. . . . In any description of Lithuania we must distinguish carefully between the historic and ethnographic Lithuanias. What is called historic Lithuania, or the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, comprises the territories of the former Russian governments of Vilna, Kovno, Grodno, Suvalki, Kurland, Minsk, Mohilev, and Vitebsk. During several centuries they formed, under the style of Lithuania, a political unit. When, therefore, we speak of old Lithuania up to the end of the eighteenth century we mean this group of governments, which were not inhabited exclusively by Lithuanians, but included various foreign ethnic elements which had been wholly absorbed in the energetic expansion of the Lithuanian State and passed under its dominion. Ethnographic Lithuania, on the other hand, includes the old Russian governments of Vilna, Kovno, Suvalki, part of Grodno, and a small portion of the government of Minsk (Novogrodek). It embraces also the northern part of East Prussia with the districts of Memel, Tilsit, Heydekrug, Niederung, Ragnit, Pillkallen, Labiau, certain parts of Insterberg, Gumbinnen, Stallupönen, and Goldapp. The former Lithuanian territory is called Lithuania Major and the German territory, Lithuania Minor. . . . The rural population constitutes 86.2 per cent. of the whole, indicating that Lithuania is essentially an agricultural country."—E. J. Harrison, *Lithuania past and present, pp.* 17-18, 20-21.—In its wider meaning the word "Lithuanians" included the Letts and the ancient Prussians; in its narrower meaning the name is limited to the inhabitants between the Memel, and the Finnish Esthonians. "The Lithuanians, or Letuvininkai, are divided into two distinct national groups—the Lithuanians properly so called, in the eastern districts of Vilna and Kovno, and the Zemailey Samogitians, or Jmudes, mainly on the German frontier. The two branches differ in speech as well as in national customs, though the two dialects are essentially one in their fundamental features. Of all European tongues the Lithuanian comes nearest to Sanskrit, still retaining many words less removed from the primitive Aryan than the corresponding Slavonic, Latin, or German terms. . . . [See also PHILOLOGY: 9; 12; 21.] The very antiquity of this Aryan dialect, older than Greek, Latin, Celtic, German, or Slavonic, has suggested the idea that the Lithuanians reached Europe before the other members of the Aryan family. It is easy to see that they may have preceded the Russians, since they occupy a region west of the Muscovite plains. . . . Protected by extensive marshes and almost impenetrable forests, the Lithuanians may have thus remained unaffected by the other migrating tribes, and to this isolation may also be attributed the persistence of their primitive culture and religious organization."—E. Reclus, *Universal geography, v.* 5, *pp.* 261-262.

1240-1377.—Successful union against Teutonic Knights.—Rise of the kingdom under Mendvog and Gedymin.—Conversion to Christianity.—Treaty with Poland.—Extent under Olgierd.—"The rise of Lithuania is one of the most remarkable of historical phenomena. The Lithuanians, a people of the same race as the Prussians, had dwelt for centuries among the swamps and forests of the upper Niemen, secure in their independence and their paganism. They had lived a separate, loosely organized tribal existence. The coming of the Teutonic Knights, their conquest of the Prussians, and especially their absorption of the Knights of the Sword and the resulting annexation of almost the whole Baltic coast, had roused the Lithuanians to a sense of their own danger. [See also PRUSSIA: 13th century.] Under able leaders the scattered tribes threw off the habits of centuries and united to form a vigorous and warlike nation and created a state which during the next hundred years became by its conquests a vast empire and the greatest political force in central Europe. Mendovg, the first of the great Lithuanian princes, ruled from 1240 to 1263, just when the Tartar invasions were weakening Poland and Russia. As Lithuania was not invaded by the Tartars, she was able to derive advantage from the misfortunes of her neighbors and to conquer from Russia great slices of her western territories. A century later, at the death of Gedymin (1315-1341), another of

her great rulers, the Grand Duchy of Lithuania extended from Courland to the Carpathians and from the Bug to the river Desna, comprising Black, White, and Little Russia, including the great Dnieper Valley and Kiev. The great West Russian provinces, weak and disorganized by the Tartar invasions, offered little resistance to the Lithuanians, who occupied the territories gradually, and generally without violence, restored order, and appointed princes of great Lithuanian families as their governors. The Lithuanians, pagans and barbarians, were thus brought into close contact with Christianity and with a civilization far older and more advanced than their own. Many of the princes were converted to Christianity by the Russians, some of them married Russian princesses of former reigning houses, and very generally they adopted the habits of life and in general the civilization of the Russians. The dialect of White Russia became the language of the court and remained so until the seventeenth century. Gedymin never became a Christian. He could never bring himself to accept a religion in whose name the Teutonic Knights, the bitterest enemies of his country, fought and killed his people. But his sons and most of his people adopted the Christianity of the Russians, which was that of the Eastern or Greek Orthodox Church. Olgierd, his successor, was baptized into the Greek Church on his marriage with a princess of Vitebsk, but his Christianity was more political than spiritual, as is seen by the fact that though in the Russian Christian parts of his kingdom he was a Christian, in Lithuania proper he sacrificed to the old pagan gods of his forefathers and by his own wish was buried with full pagan rites. Though at first hostile to Lithuania, the Poles soon recognized her value as an ally, and Wladislaus Lokietek in 1325 made a treaty with her against their common enemy, the Teutonic Order. This alliance was of great value to Poland, still far from strong or really united, and is interesting also as the beginning of the far closer union of the two states sixty years later."—J. S. Orvis, *Brief history of Poland, pp.* 43-45.—Under Olgierd (who died in 1377) the Lithuanian power, which had been built up by Gedymin, grew great. During his reign he conquered all of Lithuania, Volhina, Smolensk, Kiev and even Taurida. His devastating conquests were checked by the Russian prince, Dmitri Donskoi.

1386-1410.—Union of Lithuania and Poland.—Marriage of prince of Lithuania and queen of Poland.—Wladislaus II. See POLAND: 1333-1572; RUSSIA: 1350-1480.

1391-1411. — Teutonic knights. — Peace of Thorn. See POLAND: 1333-1572.

1569.—Diet of Lublin.—Formal incorporation into Poland. See POLAND: 1333-1572.

1772-1795.—Lithuania's rôle in partitions of Poland.—"In the early eighteenth century there was little centralized government or power left and the country was practically helpless when an unkind destiny made Frederick ruler of Prussia, Maria Theresa of Austria and Catherine of Russia. Hunger for territory on the part of these rulers constituted the motive and the helpless Lithuanian-Polish state furnished the spoils. Consequently we have the three greatest crimes of history, the partitions of Poland and Lithuania in 1772, 1792 and 1795."—J. S. Lopatto, *Lithuania: Its desires and claims* (*Journal of Race Development, Oct.,* 1917).—See also POLAND: 1763-1790; 1793-1796.

19th century.—Serfdom. See SERFDOM: 18th-19th centuries: Russian.

1830-1863. — Insurrections. — Russification. —"Not content, however, with the destruction of Lithuania as a political entity, the usurping governments inaugurated the policy of stifling all national life therein. The Prussianization of German Lithuania and the Russification of Russian-Lithuania marched hand in hand. The use of the language was forbidden, Lithuanian laws repealed, the native people were deprived of all participation in governmental affairs. These inexorable policies were common to both governments. In Russia additional oppressive measures were enforced. The University of Vilna was removed to Kiev, persecutions were directed against the Lithuanians, insurrections due to harsh treatment of the people arose in 1830 and in 1863, and were suppressed in an unjust, bloody and cruel manner; the people were exiled and the press crushed; Lithuanian type forbidden and Russian characters substituted; and then, 'the most unkindest cut of all' in 1849, when a *ukase* replaced the name 'Lithuania' by the lifeless appellation of the 'Northwestern Country.' By the exercise of brutal and insulting power Lithuania, like a convict, was to lose its identity and to be characterized by a symbol. Oppression however, does not always obliterate, nor does force suppress the nationality of a vital people. During the time of these oppressive measures Lithuanian papers printed in Germany and the United States were secretly distributed to the people of the 'Northwestern Country.'"—J. S. Lopatto, *Lithuania: Its desires and claims* (*Journal of Race Development, Oct.,* 1917).—See also POLAND: 1863-1869.

1904-1914.—Emigration.—Growth of national spirit.—"In 1904 a great revolution broke out in Russia. Fearing that the Lithuanians might join the revolution, Russia, in order to gain their good will, granted them the freedom of the Press. . . . Their sturdy sons left their birthplace for all corners of the globe; about a million coming to the United States of America. During the short period of ten years, (1904-1914), there was a remarkable growth of Lithuanian literature of permanent value. . . . Besides there were organized many societies of education, as well as a scientific society to conduct searches of ancient tombs and burial-places for the purpose of discovering the nature of ancient Lithuanian culture. Mention must be made of the Society of Fine Arts and the Prohibition Society, the former for developing the Lithuanian national style and the latter for saving the poor people from squandering their possessions to obtain vodka. The Lithuanians in America are keeping abreast of the intellectual movement, since at the present there are thirty-two Lithuanian publications published in the States, not to mention those in England, Canada, and South America."—T. Shamis, *Lithuanians* (*Journal of Race Development, Oct.,* 1918).

1905-1914.—Revolutionary movement against Russia. See POLAND: 1905-1914.

1914-1917.—Activities during World War.—Operations at Kovno and Vilna. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i; i, 4; i, 6.

1914-1918.—Effects of World War.—"Villages and farms were given to the flames, machinery and implements were carried off, and unspeakable miseries began for the inhabitants of these desolated areas. This mania for destruction did not spare the churches, twenty-five of which were badly damaged. In many places these edifices were bombarded during divine service, and old men, women and children who had sought refuge therein were buried beneath the ruins. Unlike Belgium, Lithuania did not benefit from the liberal aid extended by the United States and Spain. When, in

accordance with the inhuman Russian policy, thousands of Lithuanian adults had to leave the country, entire families were broken up. The peasants first sought refuge in the towns, but were moved on farther by the Russian soldiery. Parents had thus to abandon their children, and were themselves transported into Russia in cattle trucks. At Vilnius [Vilna], for example, thousands of children ran about the streets vainly seeking their parents. . . . More than 30,000 Lithuanian soldiers were made prisoners in Germany and Austria, besides which the Germans seized 5,000 civilians as hostages as a reprisal for the behaviour of the Russians who, when evacuating East Prussia, had driven out 15,000 of the inhabitants, of whom quite half were also Lithuanians. The majority of these prisoners consisted of old men, women and children. . . . With the German military occupation of Lithuania it became necessary to give the country a new organization, the old one having disappeared with the retreating Russian armies. The new administration was formed by Marshal Hindenburg in August 1915; its headquarters were at Tilze (Tilsit), and it embraced a portion of the Kaunas and Suvalkai governments. At the head of this administration was placed Prince Isenburg. After the conquest of new parts of Lithuania by the Germans, the military government transferred its seat to Kaunas in April 1916, and there assumed the name of the Vilnius-Suvalkai Military Administration. The limits of this administration were again extended by a decree of Marshal Prince Leopold of Bavaria, who, as Governor-General of the East, in April, 1917, removed his headquarters to Vilnius. This enlarged jurisdiction was styled the Military Administration of Lithuania. It formed merely part of an administration which extended from the Gulf of Riga to the line Brest-Litovsk—Warsaw comprising a territory of 212,000 square kilometres known as Ober-Ost. The authorities assigned to Lithuania constituted a central and district administration. . . . These efforts at Germanization were the natural outcome of the German policy as a whole, which insisted upon the necessity, from military, political and economic considerations, of annexing Lithuania to Germany. In the light of these aims one can understand why the German Government did not abolish the Oder-Ost administration even after the peace of Brest-Litovsk, when a state of war with Russia ceased to exist. On this subject responsible Lithuanians addressed petitions and energetic protests to the German Government. The Eastern front fell in February 1918, but the military command continued, and the free and independent Lithuanian State was still subjected to military control. In January, 1918, Prince Isenburg retired from his post as Administrator of Lithuania."—E. J. Harrison, *Lithuania past and present, pp.* 77-78, 80-81, 83-84.—See also POLAND: 1915-1918; 1918.

1914-1918.—Congress in Chicago.—National council in America.—Diet of Vilna.—German intrigues.—"The Lithuanians in the United States have always displayed considerable activity in everything concerning their native land. So in this case they were the first to make themselves heard when from October 21 to 23, 1914, in Chicago, they convened a national congress which was attended by three hundred delegates. The gathering declared itself in favour of the reorganization of the Lithuanian State in conformity with the principle of self-determination. Further, this State was to be independent of Poland, and, besides, the Lithuanian territory of Russia was to embrace the Lithuanian region of East Prussia and the Suvalkai government. The Lithuanian Bureau of Information in Paris was entrusted with the task of diffusing knowledge of Lithuania among the general public. Moreover, J. Gabrys was commissioned to treat with the belligerents in behalf of Lithuania. A national fund was created to cover all expenses in this connexion. In America a national council was established for the protection of Lithuanian interests. This council represented all Lithuanian organizations, those of the latter numbering more than a thousand members nominating one delegate and those with over five thousand members two delegates each. . . . The next really epochal event in the history of the struggle for independence was the Diet of Vilnius [Vilna] which sat from September 18 to 22, 1917, attended by two hundred and twenty delegates. Owing to the German occupation of the country it proved impossible to choose the delegates through a general vote, but they were all prominent and well-known men, representatives of the various parties, classes and professions. This Diet was therefore a faithful organ of the Lithuanian people. The most important work of this Diet was the election of a National Council (Taryba) and the adoption of an historic resolution. . . . The Lithuanian Taryba on December 11, 1917, first proclaimed the liberty and independence of Lithuania, but a more authoritative proclamation was that of February 16, 1918, which is now regarded as the official date. Inspired by very obvious ulterior motives Germany was the first foreign State to recognize Lithuanian independence *de jure* on March 24, 1918. In spite of this recognition, signed by the then Kaiser himself, the powerful pan-Germanic Party subsequently made desperate efforts to effect the annexation of Lithuania to Germany, and failing that, some sort of 'personal' union first between Lithuania and Prussia and then between Lithuania and Saxony. All these efforts, however, were sternly resisted by the Lithuanians themselves who, with dearly bought knowledge of the disastrous consequences of the union with Poland, were in no hurry to repeat the experience with Germany. In the course of this remarkable struggle the Taryba, which meanwhile had assumed the title of State Council on July 11, 1918, with a view to checkmating German intrigues, actually proclaimed Lithuania a democratic monarchy and offered the crown to the Duke of Urach, a descendant of the ancient Lithuanian dynasty of Mindaugas. Fortunately for the future of the country this verbal pronouncement was never implemented in fact, and Lithuania has remained a republic."—E. J. Harrison, *Lithuania past and present, pp.* 85-87, 90, 92-93.

1918-1922.—Relief work of A. R. A. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: American relief administration.

1919.—Desire to possess Memel. See MEMEL.

1919.—Answer to invitation to proposed peace conference at Prince's islands. See RUSSIA: 1919.

1919-1920.—Bolsheviki in Vilna.—Capture of Vilna by Poles under Pilsudski.—Constituent assembly.—Recognition of the state.—"The two pressing problems here, as in Esthonia and Latvia, were keeping out the Bolsheviks and doing something to divide up the large estates. The Lithuanians organized an army, with the aid of German money and arms, and later with assistance from England, and with some backing from the German troops left in the country after the Armistice, and the active coöperation of the Poles, succeeded in keeping the Bolsheviks at bay. Vilna, their theoretical capital, on the eastern edge of their territory, changed hands several times. The Bol-

sheviks took it in January 1919, and a few months later were driven out by the Poles under Pilsudski. [See also POLAND: 1919; 1919-1920: War with Russia.] They took it again in 1920 during their drive on Warsaw, and when they made peace with the Lithuanians, retired and turned it over to them. . . . The elections to the Constituent Assembly were held in April, 1920, and Dr. Smetona resigned and turned over his powers to the Constituent itself. A new Cabinet, on which several of the old Cabinet served, was chosen, with Alexander Stulginskas as President of the Assembly and Dr. Kazimir Grenius as Prime Minister. It was decided that the Supreme Power should rest in one-chamber Assembly, that the President of the Assembly should also act as President of the Republic, and that the Ministry, chosen by the Assembly, should be responsible to it. A Constitution embodying these provisions, and an agrarian law, somewhat less radical than those in Esthonia and Latvia, were gradually elaborated during 1920 and it was expected that the elections to the first regular Parliament would take place in the autumn of 1921. Lithuania had meanwhile received *de jure* recognition from Esthonia, Latvia, Germany, Soviet Russia, Argentina and Spain, while Italy had given what the Lithuanians regarded as its equivalent by sending a consular representative. *De facto* recognition had been given by Britain, France, Sweden, Finland, Denmark, Switzerland and Poland."—A. B. Ruhl, *New masters of the Baltic, pp.* 201-203.

1920-1922.—Treaty with Russia.—Capture of Vilna by Zeligowski.—Dispute over Vilna.—Pilsudski's plan for Central Lithuania.—Vilna made Polish territory.—"Lithuania passed through a troublesome year. On July 12 [1920] she entered into a peaceful agreement with Moscow by which the latter agreed to pay 3,000,000 rubles in gold, to release Lithuania from all share in the old Russian debts and to define her boundaries so as to include Vilna, Lida and Grodno. This treaty was supplemented in August by one relative to Bolshevist evacuation of Vilna [see also RUSSIA: 1920]; hardly had the arrangement been concluded when the Lithuanians came into conflict with the Poles, who insisted not only on certain boundary rectifications but on occupying Vilna and using Lithuania's railroad in their offensive against the Bolsheviki. Hostilities ceased for the time being when, through the mediation of the League of Nations, a commission was appointed to study the respective claims to the disputed territories. This pacific proposal was rendered futile by the seizure of Vilna on October 9 by the Polish adventurer, General Zeligowski. [See also POLAND: 1920: Zeligowsky, etc.] Lithuania in protesting against this action to the world at large and to the League of Nations, staunchly asserted that she had evidence that Zeligowski's move had been supported by the Polish government. This accusation the Polish authorities at first vigorously denied. At this juncture the League of Nations suggested that the dispute be settled by plebiscite."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carmen, *Political Science Quarterly,* 1921, *Supplement, pp.* 98-99.—"The final chapter in the long dispute between Poland and Lithuania regarding Vilna was practically terminated when on March 24 (1921) the Polish Diet voted formally to annex the territory over Litnuania's protest. The Lithuanians insisted upon the immediate withdrawal of general Zeligowski, who for many months had illegally held the territory. They further proposed that Vilna be made an autonomous community, which proposal the Poles energetically refused to accept. By resolution of September 24 the Assembly of the League of Nations urged the two countries to open new parleys with a view to reaching a satisfactory settlement. Finally President Pilsudki elaborated a plan for the erection of Vilna into an independent state to be known as Central or Middle Lithuania. The plan also provided for the resignation and withdrawal of Zeligowski and the holding of new elections in the disputed area. The Pilsudki scheme, bitterly opposed by the Polish annexationists, was accepted by the Polish Diet, but only after President Pilsudki had threatened resignation. Toward the end of November (1921) Zeligowski withdrew, turning over the administration of the district to M. Meysztowics, a native of Vilna. Plebiscite elections to determine the future of the territory, held January 8 (1922) resulted in favor of Poland, but the Council of the League of Nations refused to accept the result on the ground that the elections had not been held under its supervision. The Lithuanian Government on its part declared that irregularities had occurred and that the election had been stage-managed by Poland. Despite the League's ruling and the Lithuanian charge the Vilna Diet on February 20 (1922) unanimously voted for union with Poland. On March 2 (1922), Great Britain warned Poland that serious consequences to the peace of Europe might follow any attempt at annexation. Accordingly on March 3 the demand of the Vilna delegates, that Vilna be fully and immediately incorporated, was rejected by the Polish cabinet, with the result that the cabinet fell from power, an evidence of the strong sentiment in favor of complete and immediate union. The formal incorporation of Vilna as Polish territory on April 18 (1922) was followed by an endeavor on the part of the Poles to settle the status of the neutral zone between Poland and Lithuania."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carmen, *Political Science Quarterly,* 1922, *Supplement, pp.* 112-113.

1922.—Jewish relief work. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: Jewish.

1922-1923.—Recognized by United States.—Boundary disputes.—On July 22, 1922, Lithuania was formally recognized by the United States of America. In February, 1923, skirmishes between the Lithuanians and Poles occurred in the neutral zone regarding boundary disputes. There were casualties on both sides. Lithuania appealed to the Council of the League; but the Poles replied there was no occasion for this demand, they having done no more than to occupy the portion of Vilna district awarded to them by the decision of the League of Nations on February 2, 1923.

See also COÖPERATION: Lithuania.

ALSO IN: J. Ehret, *La Lithuanie, passé, présent, avenir.*—J. Szlupas, *Lithuania in retrospect and prospect (pamphlet).*—J. Gabrys, *Sketch of the Lithuanian nation (pamphlet).*—Idem, *Lithuania and the autonomy of Poland (pamphlet).*—Idem, *Memorandum on the Lithuanian nation presented by J. Gabrys at the First Races Congress, London, July 26-29, 1911 (pamphlet).*—C. W. Coulter, *Lithuanians of Cleveland.*—J. J. Bielskis, *Lithuania: Facts supporting her claims for re-establishn ent as an independent nation.*—C. F. Lees, *Claims of Lithuania (Contemporary Review, v.* 112, *pp.* 178-185).—*Publications of the Lithuanian National Council.*—*Constitution of Lithuania* (full text, *New York Times Current History, Dec.,* 1922).

LITTLE BIG HORN, Battle of (1876). See U. S. A.: 1866-1876.

LITTLE BRETHREN, name for Fratricelli. See BEGUINES.

LITTLE CORPORAL, nickname given to Napoleon I by his soldiers.

LITTLE ENGLAND PARTY, name given by its opponents to the section of the Liberal party in Great Britain which condemns the boundless enlargement of British annexations, protectorates and spheres of influence in all parts of the world, and is critical of imperialistic wars.

LITTLE ENTENTE.—"In 1919, when Hungary had become the center of a reactionary monarchistic movement, having the restoration of the Hapsburgs as its aim, Czechoslovakia had protested to the Peace Conference, and the Supreme Council had announced Allied opposition to a Hapsburg government in Hungary. This action checked but did not put an end to the propaganda, and in 1920 Czechoslovakia and Jugoslavia concluded a defensive convention, providing that the two states should mutually help each other in case of an unprovoked attack by Hungary. [See also CZECHO-SLOVAKIA: 1920.] In the following year Rumania joined in the obligation. Defense against Hungary, however, was only a part of the real meaning of the alliance. During the negotiations leading up to the defensive agreement there emerged the question of establishing a Central European group, which while carrying out the work of its own consolidation should aid the general task of reconstruction."—*Why the Little Entente?* (*American Review of Reviews, Dec.,* 1922, *p.* 651).—"The task was conceived in a very real and practical sense and in the clear consciousness that it could not be accomplished at a stroke, but only step by step. The evolution of the Little Entente itself is a proof of this fact. In its first stage it was composed of Czechoslovakia and Jugoslavia alone and its aims were summed up in the defensive treaty against Hungary. [See also HUNGARY: 1920-1921.] Rumania was joined up with these two only by means of negotiations which took place among the statesmen of the three countries, and through a verbal acknowledgment that in the event of a fight against Magyar aggression there would be a strong community of interest. It was not until April 23, 1921, that a treaty was concluded between the three. . . . The significance of the Little Entente for peace and consolidation would not, of course, have been fully grasped if that group had confined itself solely to its political program and had not demonstrated its no less important economic aspect. The consultations which preceded and which accompanied the negotiations for political agreement among the states of the Little Entente and the states associated with them, contributed substantially to facilitating and accelerating agreement on economic matters as well. They went hand in hand with them, supplemented, extended and indeed practically evoked them."—E. Benes, *Little Entente* (*Foreign Affairs, Dec.,* 1922).—"After the alliance had been formed several of the neighboring states adjusted their relations with its members and thus were in a measure drawn into the inner circle. Thus an agreement was reached between Italy and Jugoslavia in the Treaty of Rapallo. Czechoslovakia and Italy joined in a similar understanding in the matter of common defense against attempts at Hapsburg restoration. A treaty concluded a year ago between Poland and Czechoslovakia recognized the territories of the two states, as defined in the peace treaties, and provided for mutual neutrality and the settlement of disputes by arbitration. A little later a similar treaty was concluded with Austria."—*Why the Little Entente?* (*American Review of Reviews, Dec.,* 1922, *p.* 651).—"Here Czechoslovakia must be given the chief credit. It was M. [Edouard] Benes who founded the 'Little Entente,' uniting the two Slavic lands and Rumania. Three years later an understanding was reached with Great Poland and Little Austria."—*Jugoslavia and the Little Entente* (*American Review of Reviews, Sept.,* 1922, *p.* 322).

LITTLE GIANT, nickname of Stephen A. Douglas, dating from his first political speech in Illinois.

LITTLE MAC, nickname given General George B. McClellan by his soldiers.

LITTLE MAGICIAN, nickname of Martin Van Buren suggested by his political adroitness.

LITTLE PARLIAMENT. See ENGLAND: 1653 (April-December).

LITTLE ROCK, capital and largest city of Arkansas, on the Arkansas river, 128 miles southwest of Memphis, Tennessee. It was occupied by Federal troops during the Civil War. See U. S. A.: 1863 (August-October: Arkansas-Missouri).

LITTLE RUSSIA, name for southern part of Russia. See UKRAINE; RUSSIA: Great, Little, etc. Language. See PHILOLOGY.

LITTLE ST. BERNARD PASS.—The Little St. Bernard, known to the Romans as Alpis Graia, was the chief pass across the Alps into Gallia Comata, until Pompey opened the Mont Genèvre pass in 75 B. C. The pass lies southwest of Mont Blanc and connects the valleys of the Dora Baltea and Isère.—See also ALPS: As barriers.

LITTLE YAHNI, Battle of (1877). See TURKEY: 1877-1878.

LITTORAL PROPRIETORS. See RIPARIAN RIGHTS: Definition.

LITURGIES.—"It was not only by taxation of its members that the [Athenian] State met its financial needs, but also by many other kinds of services which it demanded from them, and which, though not, like the former, producing an income, yet nevertheless saved an expense. Such services are called Liturgies ['i. e., properly, services for the people.'—Foot-note]. They are partly ordinary or 'encyclic'—such, that is, as occurred annually, even in times of peace, according to a certain order, and which all bore some relation to worship and to the celebration of festivals—and partly extraordinary, for the needs of war. Among the former class the most important is the so-called Choregia, i. e., the furnishing of a chorus for musical contests and for festivals. . . . A similar though less burdensome Liturgy was the Gymnasiarchy for those feasts which were celebrated with gymnastic contests. The gymnasiarch, as it seems, was compelled to have all who wished to come forward as competitors trained in the gymnasia, to furnish them with board during the time of training, and at the games themselves to furnish the necessary fittings and ornaments of the place of contest. . . . More important and more costly than all these ordinary or encyclic Liturgies was the extraordinary Liturgy of trierarchy, i. e., the equipment of a ship of war."—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The State, pt.* 3, *ch.* 3.—"The Liturgiæ, which are sometimes considered as peculiar to the Athenians, . . . were common to all democracies at least [in the Greek states], and even to certain aristocracies or oligarchies. . . . The Liturgiæ of the Greeks were distinguished by a much more generous and noble characteristic than the corresponding services and contributions of the present day. They were considered honorable services. . . . Niggardliness in the performance of them was considered disgraceful. The state needed no paid officer, or contractors to superintend or undertake their execution. . . . The ordinary Liturgiæ . . . are principally the choregia, the gymnasiarchia, and the feasting of the tribes [or hestiasis]. . . . The lampadarchy, if not the only kind,

was certainly the most important and expensive kind of gymnasiarchy. The race on foot with a torch in the hand was a common game. The same kind of race was run with horses for the first time at Athens in the time of Socrates. The art consisted, besides other particulars, in running the fastest, and at the same time not extinguishing the torch. . . . Since the festivity was celebrated at night, the illumination of the place which was the scene of the contest was necessary. Games of this kind were celebrated specially in honor of the gods of light and fire. . . . The expenses of the feasting of the tribes were borne by a person selected for this purpose from the tribe. . . . The entertainments, the expenses of which were defrayed by means of this liturgia, were different from the great feastings of the people, the expenses of which were paid from the treasury of the theorica. They were merely entertainments at the festivals of the tribes."—A. Boeckh, *Public economy of the Athenians* (tr. by Lamb), *bk.* 3, *ch.* 1, 21-23.

ALSO IN: E. G. Bulwer-Lytton, *Athens, bk.* 5, *ch.* 2.

LITUS.—In the Salic law of the Franks, the litus appears as representing a class in that Germanic nation. He "was no doubt identical with the serf whom Tacitus represents as cultivating the soil, and paying a rent in kind to his lord. That the litus was not free is evident from the mention of his master and the fact that he could be sold; though we find a weregild set upon his life equal to that of a free Roman."—W. C. Perry, *Franks, ch.* 10.

LIVADIA, Treaty of (1879). See ASIA: 1500-1900.

LIVENS PROJECTOR FOR THROWING GAS. See POISON GAS: New means for throwing gas.

LIVENZA, river in Italy flowing into the Gulf of Venice. It was the scene of the Italian rout by invading Austrians, 1917; the Italians, in turn, pursued their foes across this river, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: c, 7.

LIVERPOOL, seaport in Lancashire, England, on the Mersey, occupying about 33 square miles. In 1921, the population numbered 803,118. The docks, for which Liverpool is famous, extend on both sides of the Mersey for thirty-seven miles. They are controlled by the Mersey Dock and Harbour Board. The Gladstone docks accommodate the largest vessels afloat. Cotton is the chief import. The total net tonnage of vessels in 1919, including Birkenhead, was 15,540,000. As a seaport Liverpool is exceeded only by London, New York, and Hong-Kong.

1890.—Trade Union Congress. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1887-1889.

1911.—Dockers' and seamen's strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1911.

ALSO IN: R. Muir, *History of Liverpool.*—T. Baines, *History of the commerce and town of Liverpool.*—J. A. Picton, *Memorials of Liverpool, including a history of the dock estate,* 2 *v.*—W. M. Skeat, *Liverpool: Its etymology* (*Notes and Queries, series* 10, *v.* 11, *p.* 261).

LIVERPOOL AND MANCHESTER RAILWAY. See RAILROADS: 1759-1881.

LIVERPOOL MINISTRY. See ENGLAND: 1812-1813.

LIVERPOOL SCHOOL OF TROPICAL MEDICINE. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: Insect transmission of disease.

LIVERY: Origin of the term.—"After an ancient custom, the kings of France, at great solemnities, gave such of their subjects as were at court certain capes or furred mantles, with which the latter immediately clothed themselves before leaving the court. In the ancient 'comptes' (a sort of audits) these capes were called 'livrées' (whence, no doubt, our word livery), because the monarch gave them ('les livrait') himself."—J. F. Michaud, *History of the Crusades, bk.* 13.

ALSO IN: W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England, v.* 3, *p.* 531.

LIVERY COMPANIES. See GUILDS: Medieval.

LIVERY OF SEIZIN, symbolical investing of a tenant with his land. See FEUDALISM: Organization.

LIVINGSTON, Edward (1764-1836), American jurist and statesman. Member of Congress, 1795-1801, 1823-1829; United States attorney for the district of New York and mayor of New York City, 1801-1803; member of the Louisiana legislature, 1820-1822; United States senator from Louisiana, 1829-1831; secretary of state under President Jackson, 1831-1833; minister to France, 1833-1835.

LIVINGSTON, Philip (1716-1778), American patriot. Delegate to the Continental Congress, 1774-1778; signed the Declaration of Independence, 1776. See U.S.A.: 1765: Stamp Act Congress; 1774 (September); 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

LIVINGSTON, Robert R. (1746-1813), American jurist and statesman. Member of the Continental Congress, 1775-1777, 1779-1780; first chancellor of New York state, 1777-1801; secretary of foreign affairs, 1781-1783; minister to France, 1801-1804, and concluded the treaty by which Louisiana was purchased by the United States; partner of Robert Fulton in the experiments in steam navigation.—See also U.S.A.: 1765: Stamp Act Congress; 1781-1782; 1784-1788; STATE DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES: 1774-1789; STEAM NAVIGATION: Beginnings.

LIVINGSTON, William (1723-1790), American lawyer and patriot. Governor of New Jersey, 1776-1790; delegate to the constitutional convention, 1787. See U.S.A.: 1774 (September).

LIVINGSTON MANOR.—Robert Livingston, "secretary of Albany," son of a Scotch clergyman, began to acquire a landed estate, by purchases from the Indians, soon after his arrival in America, which was about 1674. "The Mohegan tribes on the east side of the Hudson had become reduced to a few old Indians and squaws, who were ready to sell the lands of which they claimed the ownership. Livingston's position as clerk of Indian affairs gave him exceptional opportunities to select and to purchase the best lands in desirable localities. . . . In 1702, Lord Bellomont [then governor of New York] writes, 'I am told Livingston has on his great grant of 16 miles long and 24 broad, but four or five cottages, occupied by men too poor to be farmers, but are his vassals.' After the close of the war [Queen Anne's War], Livingston made more rapid progress in his improvements. He erected flour and timber mills, and a new manor-house." In 1715 Livingston obtained from Governor Hunter a confirmatory patent, under an exact and careful survey of his estate. "Although it does not give the number of acres, the survey computes the area of the manor to contain 160,240 acres. It was now believed to be secure against any attack. . . . Philip, the second proprietor, was not disturbed as to title or limits. He was a merchant, and resided in New York, spending his summers at the Manor House. . . . His son, Robert, succeeded him as the third proprietor, but he had hardly come into possession

before he began to be harassed by his eastern neighbors, the people of Massachusetts. . . . In April, 1752, Livingston wrote to Governor Clinton, and entered complaint against the trespassers from Massachusetts. A long correspondence between the governors of the two provinces followed, but settled nothing. The trouble continued," for a number of years, and frequent riots were incident to it, in which several men were killed. At length, "the boundary between New York and Massachusetts was finally settled, and the claimants ceased their annoyance."—G. W. Schuyler, *Colonial New York, v.* 1, *p.* 243.—After the Revolutionary War, in 1795, and again forty years later, the tenants formed a combination against the landlords called anti-renters. Nearly a hundred years later the landlords compromised.

Also in: E. P. Cheyney, *Anti-rent agitations in New York (University of Pennsylvania Publications).*

LIVINGSTONE, David (1813-1873), Scottish missionary and African explorer. Went to Africa under direction of the London Missionary Society, 1840; labored in Bechuana territory, 1840-1849; explored the Zambesi district and crossed the entire continent, 1853-1856; discovered lakes Shirwa and Nyasa, with Sir John Kirk, 1858-1859; lost while searching for sources of the Nile, 1866-1871; found by H. M. Stanley at Ujiji, 1871; explored Tanganyika with Stanley, 1871-1872. See Africa: Modern European occupation: Chronology; Nyasaland protectorate.

Also in: H. M. Stanley, *How I found Livingstone.*—H. Waller, ed. *Last journals of David Livingstone in Central Africa.*—D. Livingstone, *Missionary travels and researches in South Africa.*—H. H. Johnson, *Livingstone and the exploration of Central Africa.*

LIVIUS ANDRONICUS (Tarentine L. Livius Andronicus) (c. 284-204 B. C.), Roman dramatic and epic poet. See Latin literature: B. C. 264-169.

LIVONIA, one of the three Baltic provinces, formerly a part of Russia. (See Russia: Map.) The southern part is now included in the sovereign state of Latvia, while the northern part is incorporated in Esthonia. (See Balkan states: Esthonia: Territory; Latvia: Territory.) With several islands in the Gulf of Riga its area is about 17,500 square miles with a population, 1914, of 1,744,000. Riga is the capital. See also Baltic provinces: Geography; Resources.

12th-13th centuries.—First introduction of commerce and Christianity.—"Till the year A. D. 1158 . . . Livonia was well-nigh utterly unknown to the rest of Europe. Some traders of Bremen then visited it, and formed several settlements along the coast. These commercial relations with their western neighbours first opened up the country to missionary enterprise, and in the year A. D. 1186 one of the merchant-ships of Bremen brought to the mouth of the Düna a venerable canon named Meinhard. . . . [Meinhard died in 1196, having accomplished little. He was succeeded by a Cistercian abbot named Berthold, who, being driven away by the obstinate pagans, returned wrathfully in 1198, with a crusading army, which Pope Innocent III had commissioned him to lead against them. This was the beginning of a long and merciless crusading warfare waged against the Livonians, or Lieflanders, and against their Prussian and other Sclavonic neighbors, until all were forced to submit to the religious rites of their conquerors and to call themselves Christians. For the furthering of this crusade, Berthold's successor, Albert von Apeldern, of Bremen (who founded the town of Riga)] instituted, in the year A. D. 1201, with the concurrence of the emperor Otho IV. and the approbation of the Pope, the knightly 'Order of the Sword,' and placed it under the special protection of the Virgin Mary. The members of this order bound themselves by solemn vows to hear mass frequently, to abstain from marriage, to lead a sober and chaste life, and to fight against the heathen. In return for these services they were to have and to enjoy whatever lands they might wrest with their swords from their pagan adversaries. . . . Albert von Apeldern made Riga the starting-point of his operations. Thence, aided by Waldemar II. king of Denmark, he directed the arms of his crusaders against Esthonia, and the neighbouring countries of Semgallen and Courland. On these war-wasted districts he succeeded in imposing a nominal form of Christianity."—G. F. Maclear, *Apostles of mediæval Europe.*—See also Prussia: 13th century.—The Order of the Sword was subsequently united with the Teutonic Order, which turned its crusading energies from the Moslems of the Holy Land to the heathendom of the Baltic.

Also in: A. Rambaud, *History of Russia, v.* 1, *ch.* 9.

13th-16th centuries.—Under Teutonic knights. See Baltic provinces: 13th-16th centuries.

1577.—Conquest by Stephen Bathory for Poland. See Poland: 1574-1590.

17th-18th centuries.—Wars with Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden. See Sweden: 1611-1629; 1697-1700; 1701-1707; 1719-1721; Poland: 1590-1648.

1796.—Acquired by Russia in third partition of Poland. See Poland: 1793-1796.

19th-20th centuries.—Condition of serfdom. See Baltic provinces: 1861-1917.

20th century.—Russification and oppression of provinces.—German influence.—Revolution of 1917. See Baltic provinces: 1867-1918, to 1919; Baltic states: Latvia.

1921.—Part of territory in republic of Latvia.—Admitted to membership in League of Nations. See Baltic states: Esthonia: Territory; League of Nations: Second meeting.

LIVORNINA, Decree of.—In 1593 Ferdinand I (De'Medici), grand duke of Tuscany, "published a decree (which from Leghorn's Italian name of Livorno he called the Livornina) by which it was ruled that in the new port there should be universal toleration, thus making it an asylum of refuge for the persecuted of all religions and nationalities; Protestants flying from France and Spain, Roman Catholics flying from England, Flemings flying from Alva's atrocities in the Netherlands, persecuted Jews from all countries, were all alike welcomed and protected at Leghorn, and found a safe refuge there; while to the Jews Ferdinand gave also a special charter to protect them from persecution by the Tuscans."—G. F. Young, *Medici, v.* 2, *pp.* 347-348.

LIVS, original inhabitants of Livonia. See Baltic provinces: Original and existing races.

LIVY (Titus Livius) (59 B. C.-17 A. D.), Roman historian. See Latin literature: B. C. 43-A. D. 14; Annals: Roman; History: 15; 17.

LLANOS, Jove. See Jovellanos.

LLANOS, word for plain in South America. See Pampas.

LLEWELYN I, ab Iorwerth (d. 1240), prince of North Wales, 1194-1239. Conquered by King John, 1211; recovered losses, 1212; took Shrewsbury, 1215; fought continually with Marchers of South Wales; attacked by English armies during reign of Henry III. Retired in favor of his son, David, 1239. See Wales: 1200-1277.

Llewelyn II, ab Gruffydd (d. 1282), prince of North Wales, 1246-1282. Declared war on England, 1256; made himself lord of North and South Wales during Barons' War in England, 1258-1265; by Treaty of Shrewsbury recognized as overlord of Wales, 1265; attacked by Edward I, 1276; Treaty of Conway concluded, 1277; revolted again and was killed, 1282. See WALES: 1282-1284.

LLORENS, Battle of (1645). See SPAIN: 1644-1646.

LLOYD, Sir William Frederick (1864-), Newfoundland statesman. Went to Newfoundland, 1890; elected to house of assembly, 1904; leader of the opposition, 1916; attorney general in coalition against the cabinet, 1917; acting prime minister, 1917; attended imperial war cabinet and imperial war conference, 1918; prime minister of Newfoundland, 1918.

LLOYD GEORGE, David (1863-), British statesman. Entered Parliament, 1890, and the liberal cabinet, 1905; chancellor of the exchequer, 1908-1915; minister of munitions, 1915-1916; secretary of state for war, 1916; premier, 1916-1922.

Chancellor of the exchequer. See ENGLAND: 1908 (April).

His "War against poverty" budget. See ENGLAND: 1909 (April-December).

Attitude towards Dardanelles offensive.—Conference with miners in South Wales. See DARDANELLES: 1915; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1915: South Wales coal strike.

Secretary of state for war. See ENGLAND: 1916 (June 5).

Premier. See ENGLAND: 1916 (December); WORLD WAR: 1916: XII. Political conditions, etc.: f.

Statement regarding food resources. See FOOD REGULATION: 1914-1918: Legislative enactments in Great Britain.

Irish question. See IRELAND: 1917.

Declaration of war aims.—Replies of Count Czernin and Von Hertling. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: a; c; d.

At Paris conference.—Attitude on Fiume question. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; FIUME: 1919: Attitude of President Wilson; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: 1918: XI. End of the war: a, 1.

Attacks on Labor party and Liberals. See ENGLAND: 1921: Cabinet changes.

At British imperial conference.—Speech on foreign policy. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921.

Foreign policy.—Policy toward Irish situation.—Attitude on Silesian question.—Invites United States to Allied conference. See IRELAND: 1921; POLAND: 1921: Silesian complications; U. S. A.: 1921 (May).

Final policies.—At conferences.—Attitude on German reparations.—Resignation. See CANNES CONFERENCE; ENGLAND: 1922 (February-April); (October-November); GENOA CONFERENCE (1922); GERMANY: 1922 (July-August).

LLOYD'S, association of merchants, brokers, underwriters, and ship brokers in London. See INSURANCE: Marine: Ancient.

LOAF GIVER. See LORD.

LOANO, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1795 (June-December).

LOBBY, term used in politics to designate the soliciting or addressing of members of a legislative body, with intention to influence their vote. See CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: Activities of the House and Senate: Lobby.

LOBENGULA (c. 1833-1894), king of the Matabele. See RHODESIA: 1887-1889; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1885-1893.

LOBITO BAY, port of Angola, Portuguese West Africa, terminus of the Lobito Bay-Katanga railroad. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Lack of railway and industrial development.

LOBKOWITZ, Johann Georg Christian (1686-1755), Austrian general. See AUSTRIA: 1742 (June-December); ITALY: 1744.

LOBOSITZ, or Lowositz, Battle of. See GERMANY: 1756.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT ACT (1898). See IRELAND: 1898-1907.

LOCH, Henry Brougham Loch, 1st Baron (1827-1900), British administrator. Served in the Crimean War, 1854; with Lord Elgin in China, 1857-1860; governor of Cape Colony and high commissioner in South Africa, 1889-1895. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1894: Commandeering, etc.

LOCH LEVEN, lake in Scotland, on one of whose islands Mary Stuart was held captive by the barons. See SCOTLAND: 1561-1568.

LOCHLANN, Celtic name for Norway, meaning Lakeland.

LOCHNER, Stephan (Meister Stephan) (d. 1451), German painter. See PAINTING: German.

LOCKE, John (1632-1704), English philosopher. "Philosophy, according to Locke, is the true knowledge of things, including the nature of things (*physics*), that which man ought to do as a rational voluntary agent (*practica,* or ethics), and the ways and means of attaining and communicating such knowledge (*semiotics,* or logic, or critic). As the most important of the three, Locke regards the problem of knowledge, holding that before we set ourselves upon inquiries, it is necessary to examine our own abilities and see what our understandings are, or are not, fitted to deal with. This he undertakes to do in his main work, *Essay concerning human understanding.* . . . Assuming that the mind must be conscious of its innate principles, if there be any,—since nothing can be said to be in the mind of which it is unconscious,—Locke proceeds to refute the doctrine of inborn truth. . . . In short, ideas and principles are just as little innate as the arts and sciences. The mind, in its first being, is a blank tablet, a *tabula rasa,* a 'dark chamber,' an 'empty cabinet,' 'white paper,' void of all characters, without any ideas. The question now is, how comes it to be furnished? Whence has it all the materials of reason and knowledge? To this Locke answers in one word,—from experience; in that all our knowledge is founded; and from that it ultimately derives itself. The two sources of all our ideas are *sensation,* through which the mind is furnished with sensible qualities, and *reflection,* or internal sense, which supplies the mind with ideas of its own operations, such as perception, thinking, doubting, believing, reasoning, knowing, willing. The first capacity of the human intellect is, that the mind is fitted to receive the impressions made on it, either through the senses by outward objects or by its own operations when it reflects on them. By idea Locke means whatsoever the mind perceives in itself, or is the immediate object of perception, thought, or understanding."—F. Thilly, *History of philosophy, pp.* 308-310.

On liberty and equality. See DEMOCRACY: Genesis of modern democracy.

Educational ideas. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: Milton.

Essay concerning human understanding. See ETHICS: 18th-19th centuries.

Plan for government of American colonies. See U. S. A.: 1696-1697.

Fundamental constitution for the Carolinas.—Its failure. See North Carolina: 1669-1693.

Sojourn in Holland. See Netherlands: 1674-1678.

LOCKOUTS. See Labor strikes and boycotts.

LOCKS, Canal. See Canals: Origin.

Panama Canal. See Panama canal: 1914.

LOCKWOOD, Charles Clapp (1877-), American legislator. See Housing: United States: New York state legislation.

LOCO-FOCOS.—"The Loco-Focos were a radical faction of the Democratic party in New York State in 1835-1837. Under Federalist control in the State the method of issuing bank charters and controlling banks was charged by the opposition with favoritism and corruption. After the removal of the United States deposits from the Second United States Bank and Jackson's veto of the Bank Bill, the number of State Banks greatly increased and the exemptions and special privileges of their charters became quite a scandal. An 'Equal Rights' party was formed within the regular Democratic party opposed to granting special privileges. At a meeting in Tammany Hall, Oct. 29, 1835, the regular Tammany Democrats tried to gain control. They were outnumbered; but they proposed to win their point by a *coup d'état*. Their chairman left his seat and the lights were extinguished with the purpose of breaking up the meeting. But the 'Equal Rights' men produced candles and loco-foco matches and continued the meeting. The next day the *Courier and Enquirer* dubbed the 'Equal Rights' men Loco-Focos. The name clung to them and came to be applied to the whole National Democratic party of their opponents as this wing became dominant in the party. It was they who announced the platform of 1836 in New York which was generally accepted by the party. The lucifer match was then comparatively new. The word loco-foco was ignorantly made after the model of the word 'locomotive,' which had then recently come into use. Locomotive was supposed to mean self-moving, and 'loco-foco' was supposed to mean self-lighting."—J. A. Woodburn, *American politics, p.* 138.

Also in: B. Byrdsall, *History of the Loco Foco, or Equal Rights Party*.

LOCOMOTIVE. See Railroads: 1759-1881; Commerce: Commercial Age: 1770-1921; Electrical discovery: Electric locomotives: 1847-1899.

LOCRI.—The city of Locri, or Locri Epizephyrii, an ancient Greek settlement in Southern Italy, was founded by the Locrians as early as 683 B. C. The elder Dionysius, tyrant of Syracuse, married a Locrian woman and showed great favor to the city, of which he acquired control; but it suffered terribly from his son, the younger Dionysius, who transferred his residence to Locri when first driven from Syracuse.

LOCRIANS. See Lokrians.

LOCRIS, district in ancient Greece. See Greece: B. C. 480: Persian wars: Thermopylæ.

LODGE, Henry Cabot (1850-), American statesman. Served in Massachusetts legislature, 1880-1881; United States House of Representatives, 1887-1893; United States Senate, 1893-1923; re-elected for the term, 1923-1929; member of the Alaska Boundary Commission, 1903; of the United States Immigration Commission, 1907; commissioner plenipotentiary at International Conference on Limitation of Armament, 1921. As chairman of the committee on foreign relations he led the fight against the League of Nations.

On question of Alaskan boundary. See Alaska boundary question: 1867-1903.

Address on expediency of acquiring the Philippine islands. See U. S. A.: 1899 (January-February).

Views on the Treaty of Versailles. See U. S. A.: 1918 (December); 1919 (September-November); 1920 (May-November).

Roosevelt memorial address. See U. S. A.: 1919 (January).

LODGE, Sir Oliver Joseph (1851-), British scientist. See Electrical discovery: Telegraphy and telephony: Wireless or radio: 1903.

LODGE, Thomas (c. 1558-1625), English prose writer. See English literature: 1530-1660.

LODGE RESERVATIONS. See U. S. A.: 1919 (September-November).

LODGER FRANCHISE, clause in Representation of the People Act. See England: 1884-1885.

LODI, Battle of. See France: 1796 (April-October).

LODI, Treaty of (1454). See Italy: 1447-1480; Milan: 1447-1454.

LODI DYNASTY. See India: 1399-1605.

LODZ, city in Poland, eighty miles southwest of Warsaw. It was the scene of desperate fighting in 1914, between the Germans and the Russians. See World War: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 2.

1904-1905.—Disturbances. See Russia: 1904-1905: Outline of leading events.

LOEB, William (1866-). Collector of customs of the port of New York, 1909-1913. See U. S. A.: 1909 (October-November).

LŒTIC COLONIES.—During and after the civil wars of the declining years of the Roman empire, large numbers of Germans were enlisted in the service of the rival factions, and were recompensed by gifts of land, on which they settled as colonists. "They were called Lœti, and the colonies lœtic colonies, probably from the German word 'leute,' people, because they were regarded as the people or men of the empire."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul, bk.* 3, *ch.* 9, *foot-note.*

LOG, unit of measurement. See Ephah.

LOG CABIN AND HARD CIDER CAMPAIGN. See U. S. A.: 1840.

LOG OF THE MAYFLOWER. See Massachusetts: 1897.

LOG ROLLING.—American political expression, borrowed from the lumber camp, applied to the practise by legislators of securing special concessions or financial advantages for their constituents by mutual agreement and bargaining among themselves.

LOGAN, John (Tahgahjuté) (c. 1725-1780), North American Indian chief. See Susquehannas; Ohio: 1774.

LOGAN CROSS ROADS, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (January-February: Kentucky-Tennessee).

LÖGBERG, name for Hill of Laws, Iceland. See Thing.

LOGI, name of ancient tribe in Britain. See Britain: Celtic tribes.

LOGISTÆ AND EUTHYNI.—"In Athens, all accounts, with the exception of those of the generals, were rendered to the logistæ and euthyni. Both authorities, before and after the archonship of Euclid, existed together at the same time. Their name itself shows that the logistæ were auditors of accounts. The euthyni were in immediate connection with them. . . . The logistæ were the principal persons in the auditing board."—A. Boeckh, *Public economy of Athens* (tr. by Lamb), *bk.* 2, *ch.* 8.

LOGOGRAPHI.—The earlier Ionian Greek historians "confined their attention to the circle of myths and antiquities connected with single families, single cities and districts. These were the Ionic 'logographi,' so called because they noted

down in easy narrative the remarkable facts that they had collected and obtained by inquiry as to the foundation of the cities, the myths of the prehistoric age, and the natural, political, and social condition of different countries."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 3.*

LOGOS. See Christianity: A. D. 50-100.

LOGOTHETES.—A class of officers created under Justinian for the administration of the imperial finances in Italy, after its conquest from the Goths. Their functions corresponded with those of a modern auditor, or comptroller.—Based on T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders, v. 4, bk. 5, ch. 15.*

LOGROSCINO, Nicholas (1700-1763), Italian musicial and composer. See Music: Modern: 1730-1816: Italian.

LOGSTOWN.—About the middle of the eighteenth century, Logstown was "an important Indian village a little below the site of the present city of Pittsburg. Here usually resided Tanacharisson, a Seneca chief of great note, being head sachem of the mixed tribes which had migrated to the Ohio and its branches. He was generally surnamed the half-king, being subordinate to the Iroquois confederacy."—W. Irving, *Life of Washington, v. 1, ch. 5.*

LOIDIS, name of small kingdom of Britain. See Elmet.

LOJA, city in Granada, Spain, on the Jenil, twenty-nine miles west of the city of Granada. It was besieged and captured by the Spaniards, 1482-1486. See Spain: 1476-1492.

LOJERA, Battle of (1353). See Constantinople: 1348-1355.

LOKRIANS.—"The coast [of Greece, in ancient times] opposite to the western side of Eubœa, from the neighbourhood of Thermopylæ as far as the Bœotian frontier at Anthedon, was possessed by the Lokrians, whose northern frontier town, Alpeni, was conterminous with the Malians. There was, however, one narrow strip of Phokis—the town of Daphnus, where the Phokians also touched the Eubœan sea—which broke this continuity and divided the Lokrians into two sections, —Lokrians of Mount Knemis, or Epiknemidian Lokrians, and Lokrians of Opus, or Opuntian Lokrians. . . . Besides these two sections of the Lokrian name, there was also a third, completely separate, and said to have been colonised from Opus,—the Lokrians surnamed Ozolæ,—who dwelt apart on the western side of Phokis, along the northern coast of the Corinthian Gulf. . . . Opus prided itself on being the mother-city of the Lokrian name."—G. Grote, *History of Greece, v. 2, pt. 2, ch. 3.*

LOLLAND, island off the coast of Denmark. See Denmark: Territory.

LOLLARDS, followers of Wyclif (Wycliffe) in England in the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries; "poor priests," men of the people, who went about in russet gowns accepting charity. Great numbers were burned at the stake and imprisoned. The Lollards were eventually absorbed by Lutheranism. "Although in the country districts, East Anglia, Berks, and Bucks, the old Lollard congregations were in 1521 still untouched by German influence, Lutheran books were in that very year introduced into Oxford, with the result that divers of that University were infected with the heresies of the German. Although the new doctrines scarcely differed at all in essentials from Lollardry, they appealed better to the politician and the man of learning. The orthodox instantly took alarm. King Henry wrote his famous *Defence of the Faith,* and Cardinal Wolsey in that same year issued orders to seize all Lutheran books. Here, then, ends the history of Lollardry proper, not because it is extinguished but because it is merged in another party."—G. M. Trevelyan, *England in the age of Wycliffe, p. 350.*—See also England: 1360-1414; Beguines; Brethren of the Common Lot; Church of England: 1066-1534; Education: Modern: 14th-16th centuries: England: Lollardism and the Renaissance.

LOLLARDS' TOWER, prison built for the custody of Lollards, by the Archbishop of Canterbury, at Lambeth Palace in the fifteenth century. The Lollards' Tower is still standing with the rings in its walls to which the captives were chained.

L'OLONNOIS, François (d. 1668), French buccaneer. Harried the coast of Central America. See America: 1600-1665.

LOMBARD, Peter. See Peter Lombard.

LOMBARD ARCHITECTURE. See Architecture: Medieval: Romanesque: Lombard and German.

LOMBARD BANKERS. See Money and banking: Medieval: 12th-14th centuries: Florentine banking.

LOMBARD KINGDOM OF ITALY. See Lombards: 573-574.

LOMBARD LEAGUE, association of cities of Lombardy and northern Italy formed against Frederick Barbarossa, 1167; renewed against Frederick II, 1226. See Germany: 1138-1197; Federal government: Medieval League of Lombardy.

LOMBARD STREET, London, named for Lombard merchants who established themselves there before the reign of Edward II. It is now a great banking center. See Money and banking: 1914-1916: Closing of stock exchanges.

LOMBARDO-VENETIAN KINGDOM, created at the Congress of Vienna, 1815, and assigned to Austria. The kingdom included Lombardy, Venice and Mantua. Lombardy was ceded to Victor Emmanuel II, king of Sardinia, and later of Italy, in 1859; Venice and Mantua followed in 1866. See Austria: 1815-1846.

LOMBARDS, or Langobardi: Early history.—The etymology which explains the name of the Lombards or Langobardi by finding in it a reference to the length of their beards is questioned by some modern writers. Sheppard ("Fall of Rome") conjectures that the name originally meant "long-spears" rather than "long-beards." Other writers derive the name "from the district they inhabited on the banks of the Elbe, where Börde (or bord) still signifies 'a fertile plain by the side of a river,' and a district near Magdeburg is still called the lange Börde. According to this view, Langobardi would signify 'inhabitants of the long bord of the river'; and traces of their name are supposed still to occur in such names as Bardengau and Bardewick, in the neighbourhood of the Elbe."—W. Smith, *Note to Gibbon's History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. 42.*—"The Langobardi . . . are ennobled by the smallness of their numbers; since, though surrounded by many powerful nations, they derive security, not from obsequiousness, but from their martial enterprise."—Tacitus, *Germany* (Oxford tr.), *ch. 40.*—"In the reign of Augustus, the Langobardi dwelt on this side of the Elbe, between Luneburg and Magdeburg. When conquered and driven beyond the Elbe by Tiberius, they occupied that part of the country where are now Prignitz, Ruppin, and part of the Middle Marche. They afterward founded the Lombard kingdom in Italy."—*Translator's note to above.*—From the Elbe the Langobardi moved in time to the Danube. "Here they encountered the Gepidæ, who, . . . after having taken a leading part in the

defeat and dispersion of the Huns in the great battle of Netad [453], had settled in the plains of Upper Hungary and on the Transylvania hills. For thirty years these two powerful tribes continued a contest in which both sides sought the assistance of the Greek emperor, and both were purposely encouraged in their rivalry with a view to their common destruction. . . . [In 566 the struggle was decided by a tremendous battle in which the Gepidæ were crushed. The Lombards, in this last encounter, had secured the aid of the pretended Avars, then lately arrived on the Danube; but the prestige of the overwhelming victory attached itself to the name of the young Lombard king, Alboin.] In the days of Charlemagne, the songs of the German peasant still told of his beauty, his heroic qualities, and the resistless vigour of his sword. His renown crossed the Alps, and fell, with a foreboding sound, upon the startled ears of the Italians, now experienced in the varied miseries of invasion."—J. G. Sheppard, *Fall of Rome, lect.* 6.—See also Europe: Introduction to the historic period: Migrations; also Map showing barbaric migrations.

568-573.—Conquests and settlement in Italy.—When the Lombards and the Avars crushed the nation of the Gepidæ (see Avars), in 566, it was one of the terms of the bargain between them that the former should surrender to the Avars, not only the conquered territory—in Wallachia, Moldavia, Transylvania and part of Hungary—but, also, their own homes in Pannonia and Noricum. No doubt the ambitious Lombard king, Alboin, had thoughts of an easy conquest of Italy in his mind when he assented to so strange an agreement. Fourteen years before, the Lombard warriors had traversed the sunny peninsula in the army of Narses, as friends and allies of the Roman-Greeks. The recollection of its charms, and of its still surviving wealth, invited them to return. Their old leader, Narses, had been deposed from the exarchate at Ravenna; it is possible that he encouraged their coming. "It was not an army, but an entire nation, which descended the Alps of Friuli in the year 568. The exarch, Longinus, who had succeeded Narses, shut himself up within the walls of Ravenna, and offered no other resistance. Pavia, which had been well fortified by the kings of the Ostrogoths, closed its gates, and sustained a siege of four years. Several other towns, Padua, Monzelice, and Mantua, opposed their isolated forces, but with less perseverance. The Lombards advanced slowly into the country, but still they advanced; at their approach, the inhabitants fled to the fortified towns upon the sea coast in the hope of being relieved by the Greek fleet, or at least of finding a refuge in the ships, if it became necessary to surrender the place. . . . The islands of Venice received the numerous fugitives from Venetia, and at their head the patriarch of Aquileia, who took up his abode at Grado; Ravenna opened its gates to the fugitives from the two banks of the Po; Genoa to those from Liguria; the inhabitants of La Romagna, between Rimini and Ancona, retired to the cities of the Pentapolis; Pisa, Rome, Gaeta, Naples, Amalfi, and all the maritime towns of the south of Italy were peopled at the same time by crowds of fugitives."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *Fall of the Roman empire, v.* 1, *ch.* 11.—"From the Trentine hills to the gates of Ravenna and Rome, the inland regions of Italy became, without a battle or a siege, the lasting patrimony of the Lombards. . . . One city, which had been diligently fortified by the Goths, resisted the arms of a new invader; and, while Italy was subdued by the flying detachments of the Lombards, the royal camp was fixed above three years before the western gate of Ticinum, or Pavia. . . . The impatient besieger had bound himself by a tremendous oath that age, and sex, and dignity should be confounded in a general massacre. The aid of famine at length enabled him to execute his bloody vow; but as Alboin entered the gate his horse stumbled, fell, and could not be raised from the ground. One of his attendants was prompted by compassion, or piety, to interpret this miraculous sign of the wrath of Heaven: the conqueror paused and relented. . . . Delighted with the situation of a city which was endeared to his pride by the difficulty of the purchase, the prince of the Lombards disdained the ancient glories of Milan; and Pavia during some ages was respected as the capital of the kingdom of Italy."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 45.—See also Italy: 568-800.

573-754.—Their kingdom.—Alboin survived but a short time the conquest of his Italian kingdom. He was murdered in June, 573, at the instigation of his wife, the Gepid princess, Rosamond, whose alliance with him had been forced and hateful. His successor, Clef, or Clepho, a chief elected by the assembly of the nation at Pavia, reigned but eighteen months, when he, too, was murdered. After a distracted period of ten years, in which there was no king, the young son of Clepho, named Autharis, came to manhood and was raised to the throne. "Under the standard of their new king, the conquerors of Italy withstood three successive invasions [of the Franks and the Alemanni], one of which was led by Childebert himself, the last of the Merovingian race who descended from the Alps. . . . During a period of 200 years Italy was unequally divided between the kingdom of the Lombards and the exarchate of Ravenna. . . . From Pavia, the royal seat, their kingdom [that of the Lombards] was extended to the east, the north, and the west, as far as the confines of the Avars, the Bavarians, and the Franks of Austrasia and Burgundy. In the language of modern geography, it is now represented by the Terra Firma of the Venetian republic, Tyrol, the Milanese, Piedmont, the coast of Genoa, Mantua, Parma, and Modena, the grand duchy of Tuscany, and a large portion of the ecclesiastical state from Perugia to the Adriatic. The dukes, and at length the princes, of Beneventum, survived the monarchy, and propagated the name of the Lombards. From Capua to Tarentum, they reigned near 500 years over the greatest part of the present kingdom of Naples."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 45.—See also Italy: Ancient: Map.

754-774.—Fall of their monarchy.—Charlemagne's conquest.—Until 754 the Lombard kings pursued a generally prosperous career of aggrandizement, in Italy. They had succeeded, at the last, in expelling the exarchs of the Eastern empire from Ravenna and in taking possession of that capital, with much of the territory and many of the cities in central Italy which depended on it. These successes inflamed their determination to acquire Rome, which had practically resumed its independence, and theoretically reconstituted itself a republic, with the Pope, in fact, ruling it as an actual prince. In 753 the papal chair was filled by Stephen II and the Lombard throne by king Aistaulf, or Astolphus. The former, being newly threatened by the latter, made a journey to the court of the Frank king, Pippin, to solicit his aid. Pippin was duly grateful for the sanction which the preceding pope had given to his seizure of the Merovingian crown, and he responded to the appeal in a vigorous way. In a short campaign beyond the Alps, in 754, he extorted from the Lombard king a promise to make

over the cities of the exarchate to the Pope and to respect his domain. But the promise was broken as soon as made. The Franks were hardly out of Italy before Aistulf was ravaging the environs of Rome and assailing its gates. On this provocation Pippin came back the next year and humbled the Lombard more effectually, stripping him of additional territory, for the benefit of the Pope, taking heavy ransom and tributes from him, and binding him by oaths and hostages to acknowledge the supremacy of the King of the Franks. This chastisement sufficed for nearly twenty years; but in 773 the Pope (now Hadrian) was driven once more to appeal to the Frank monarch for protection against his northern neighbors. Pippin was dead and his great son Charles, or Charlemagne, had quarrels of his own with Lombardy to second the Papal call. He passed the Alps at the head of a powerful army, reduced Pavia after a year-long siege and made a complete conquest of the kingdom, immuring its late king in a cloister for the remainder of his days. He also confirmed, it is said, the territorial "donations" of his father to the Holy See and added some provinces to them. "Thus the kingdom of the Lombards, after a stormy existence of over wo hundred years, was forever extinguished. Comprising Piedmont, Genoa, the Milanese, Tuscany, and several smaller states, it constituted the most valuable acquisition, perhaps, the Franks had lately chieved. Their limits were advanced by it from the Alps to the Tiber; yet, in the disposal of his spoil, the magnanimous conqueror regarded the forms of government which had been previously established. He introduced no changes that were not deemed indispensable. The native dukes and counts were confirmed in their dignities; the national law was preserved, and the distributions of land maintained, Karl receiving the homage of the Lombard lords as their feudal sovereign, and reserving to himself only the name of King of Lombardy."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul, ch.* 15-16.—See also GERMANY: 687-800; PAPACY: 728-774; 755-774.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 49.—J. I. Mombert, *Charlemagne, bk.* 1, *ch.* 2, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 2.—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire, ch.* 4-5.

LOMBARDY, territorial division of northern Italy, lying for the most part north of the Po. The capital is Milan. For the extent of the Lombard kingdom in the 7th century, see ITALY: Ancient: Map. For the extent of the province in 1859, see ITALY: Map showing unification of Italy.

774.—Conquest of the kingdom by Charlemagne. See LOMBARDS: 754-774.

800-1016.—Wars in Italy. See ITALY (Southern): 800-1016.

961-1039.—Subjugation to Germany. See ITALY: 961-1039.

1000-1090.—Conquest by Normans. See ITALY: (Southern): 1000-1090.

1056-1152.—Rise of republican cities. See ITALY: 1056-1152.

1154-1183.—Wars of Frederick Barbarossa against the Communes.—Lombard League.— See GERMANY: 1138-1197; ITALY: 1154-1162, to 1174-1183; FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval League of Lombardy.

1225-1250.—Conflict with Frederick II.—Renewal of Lombard League. See ITALY: 1183-1250; FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval League of Lombardy.

1227-1447.—Rise and domination of the Visconti of Milan.—Dissolution of their threatening tyranny. See MILAN: 1227-1447.

1250-1520.—Age of the despots. See ITALY: 1250-1520.

1310-1313.—Visit of Emperor Henry VII.—His coronation with the iron crown. See GERMANY: 1308-1313; ITALY: 1310-1313; Visitation of emperor.

1327-1330.—Visit and coronation of Louis IV of Bavaria. See ITALY: 1313-1330.

1360-1391.—Free companies and wars with Florence and the pope. See ITALY (Southern): 1343-1393.

1412-1422.—Reconquest by Filippo Maria Visconti, third duke of Milan. See ITALY: 1412-1447.

1447-1454.—Disputed succession of the Visconti in Milan.—Duchy seized by Francesco Sforza.—War of Venice, Naples and other states against Milan and Florence. See MILAN: 1447-1454.

1492-1494.—Power of the Sforza family. See ITALY: 1492-1494.

1494-1513.—French invasion under Louis XII.—French expelled from Italy. See ITALY: 1494-1496; 1499-1500; 1501-1504; 1510-1513; MILAN: 1512.

1515-1529.—Conquest and expulsion of Francis I of France. See FRANCE: 1515; 1515-1518; 1516-1517; 1520-1523; 1523-1525; 1532-1547.

1535.—Milan placed under Spanish rule by Emperor Charles V. See ITALY: 1530-1600; FRANCE: 1532-1547.

1713.—Cession of duchy of Milan to Austria. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1741-1746.—War of the Austrian Succession.—Occupied by Spanish and French.—Recovered by Austrians. See ITALY: 1741-1743; 1745; 1746-1747.

1749-1792.—Under Austrian rule after Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. See ITALY: 1749-1792.

1796-1797.—Conquest by Bonaparte.—Creation of Cisalpine republic. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October); 1796-1797 (October-April); 1797 (May-October).

1799.—French evacuation. See FRANCE: 1799 (April-September).

19th century.—Progress in education. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Italy.

1800.—Recovery by French. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (May-February).

1805.—Iron crown bestowed on Napoleon as king of Italy. See FRANCE: 1804-1805.

1814.—French evacuation. See ITALY: 1814.

1815.—Restored to Austria at Congress of Vienna.—Formation of Lombard-Venetian kingdom. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF; ITALY: 1814-1815; AUSTRIA: 1815-1846; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: b, 1.

1817-1821.—Austrian rule.—Desire for war with Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1815-1849; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: b, 1.

1848-1849.—Struggle for freedom from Austria and its failure. See ITALY: 1848-1849.

1859.—Emancipation from Austria.—Absorption in kingdom of Italy. See ITALY: 1856-1859; 1859-1861; AUSTRIA: 1856-1859.

1898.—Revolutionary outbreak. See ITALY: 1898.

20th century.—Agrarian movement. See ITALY: 1920-1921.

LOMBARDY, Iron crown of.—The crown of the Lombard kings was so called because lined with an iron band, believed to have been wrought of the nails used in the Crucifixion.—J. I. Mombert, *Charles the Great, bk.* 2, *ch.* 2.—Napoleon placed this crown on his own head in the celebrated cathedral of Milan, May 26, 1805.

LOMBARTZYDE, Belgian outpost on the east bank of the Yser, repeatedly attacked by the Germans during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: d, 5.

LOMBOK, one of the Lesser Sunda islands, Dutch East Indies. It has an area of about 3060 square miles, and an estimated population (1921) of 325,000. The inhabitants are chiefly Sasaks, Balinians, and Malays. It is administered by Dutch government from Bali, from which it is separated by the Strait of Lombok. Early in the nineteenth century the Hindu Balinese overcame the aboriginal Sasaks and held them in subjection. The Balinese whose courage, energy and audacity were well-known were a continual source of trouble to the Dutch. The latter finally granted a concession to the Sasasks to be henceforth governed by their own chiefs. This caused a serious rioting in 1894 which was quelled by General Vetter commanding the Dutch troops who captured the Balinese Raja of Lombok and obtained his vast wealth.—See also MALAY ARCHIPELAGO.

ALSO IN: W. Cool, *With the Dutch in the East.*— A. R. Wallace, *Malay archipelago.*

LOMBROSO, Cesare (1836-1909), Italian criminologist. See CRIME AND CRIMINOLOGY: Outline of criminological theories.

LOME, Stanislas Charles Henri Laurent, Dupuy de (1816-1885), French naval engineer. See SUBMARINES: 1888-1893.

LOMÉNIE DE BRIENNE, Étienne Charles de (1727-1794), French ecclesiastic and statesman. Became archbishop of Toulouse, 1763; of Sens, 1788; cardinal, 1788; controller-general of finances of France, 1787; chief minister, 1788. See FRANCE: 1774-1788.

LOMONOSOV, Mikhail Vasilievich (1711-1765), Russian poet, scientist and historian. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1689-1752.

LONATO, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October).

LONCIN, one of the forts near Liége, Belgium, which fell in 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: b.

LONDINIUM, Roman name for London. See LONDON: Derivation of name; 1st-4th centuries; BRITAIN: 61.

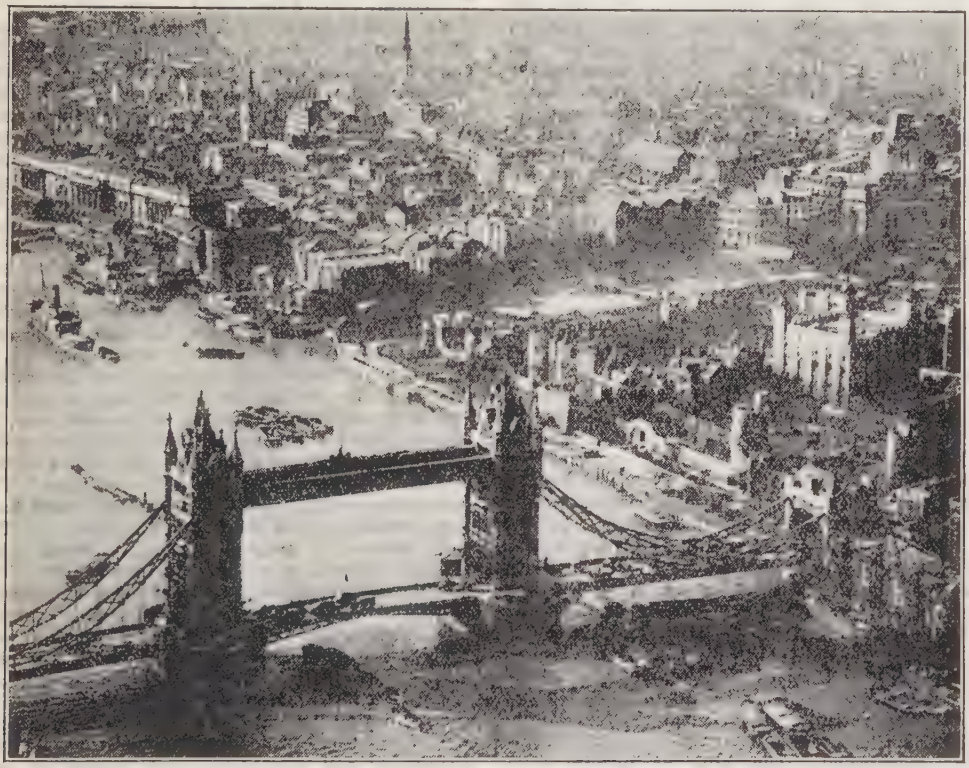
LONDINIUM AUGUSTA. See LONDON: 1st-4th centuries.

LONDON: Population and government.— Significance in English history.—London, the capital of England and the largest city in the world, is situated on both banks of the Thames, fifty miles from its outlet into the North sea. Population, 1921: County of London, 4,483,249; City of London, 13,706; London Police Districts, 7,476,168; and proposed "London Health Area," 9,610,234. The City of London is the old London within the ancient boundaries, or walls, the financial and business centre containing the remains of the Roman Wall, the Tower, St. Paul's, the Wren churches (Bow, St. Bride's, St. Dunstan's in the East, etc.,) the Bank, the Mansion House (home of the lord mayor), the Exchange, Guildhall, etc. The City of London is governed by the lord mayor and twenty-five aldermen. The city of Westminster (bounded by the city of London on the east, Chelsea and Kensington on the west, Paddington, St. Marylebone and Holborn on the north, and the Thames and Chelsea on the south), was formed into a borough by the London Government Act of 1899 and created a city by Royal Charter October 19, 1900, with mayor, ten aldermen and sixty councillors. Westminster extends from the eastern end of the Strand to Kensington Gardens and from Oxford Street to the Thames. Westminster is the richest of London areas, the value of the property being in 1922, £18,131,854. Within its boundaries are Westminster Abbey, the Houses of Parliament, Buckingham Palace and St. James's Whitehall (the principal government offices), the most fashionable clubs and theatres and the residential districts of Mayfair and Belgravia. Under the London Government Act of 1899 the administrative functions of the various vestries in the Metropolitan districts surrounding the city of London were transferred to 28 Metropolitan Boroughs. These boroughs, each of which has its own mayor, are: Battersea, Bermondsey, Bethnal Green, Camberwell, Chelsea, Deptford, Finsbury, Fulham, Greenwich, Hackney, Hammersmith, Hampstead, Holborn, Islington, Kensington, Lambeth, Lewisham, Paddington, Poplar, St. Marylebone, St. Pancras, Shoreditch, Southwark, Stepney, Stoke Newington, Wandsworth and Woolwich. The London County Council was constituted under the Local Government Act of 1888. London is in an administrative county, covering an area of 117 square miles. The City of London is an electoral division of the county. The Council comprises a chairman, 20 aldermen, and 124 councillors. The method by which the Council discharges its multitudinous duties is a generous delegation of powers to committees under well-defined rules, subject to the reservation to the Council itself of all questions of principle and to periodical reports of action taken. "At the head of the corporate life of the City of London stands the Lord Mayor of London, who is the ceremonial representative of the whole of London and often of all the subjects of the King. His office dates back to the end of the twelfth century. As a rule a Lord Mayor holds office for one year only, but in the past many men have served for several years. The famous Richard Whittington was Lord Mayor in 1397, 1398, 1406, and 1419, and so recently as 1885 a Lord Mayor was re-elected for a second year. Ever since 1546 the election has taken place on Michaelmas Day (September 29), and down to the present day the election is carried out amid much of the ceremony of old times. . . . On Lord Mayor's Day (November 9) the famous 'Show' takes place. These civic pageants are of great antiquity. . . . Within the City boundaries the Lord Mayor has precedence over everybody but the King himself, regardless of royal blood or noble rank. . . . At every coronation the Lord Mayor is placed near the King. He attends at the Privy Council whenever our monarch dies and he signs the official proclamation of the accession of a new King. . . . The City as of old claims to be consulted in the election of a King, however formal that election may be."— C. Mullins, *London's story, pp.* 84, 86, 88.—"There is no city in Europe which has preserved its historical continuity so faithfully as London has preserved hers—not Lyons, Trier, Nîmes, Arles, Turin, not Paris or even Rome herself. If these are continuous by actual occupation; if they show remains of the forum, the bath, the theatre, or even the temple; they show no continuity of historical influences—they are not constitutionally continuous. . . . This, on the contrary, is what London reveals throughout the ages. . . . London is the only example of a city-state in modern history exercising her state powers as strongly as her civic powers, in connection with the personal sovereignty of early English and mediæval times, in connection with Parliament in modern times, and in connection with military and other functions at all times. The essential difference between London and other cities beginning in the Roman Empire, lies in the fact that London has acted the part of

city-state throughout, in modern as in ancient days. No other city has played this part. It was revolutionary Paris in a sea of blood which helped to form the modern state of France; but it is constitutional London acting continuously and not tumultuously which has performed this service for modern England."—L. Gomme, *London, pp.* 333-334.—See also CITY PLANNING: Great Britain.

Fog problem.—London enjoys a world-wide notoriety as a generator of fog. Undoubtedly the typical London winter fog is by no means a thing of beauty, especially the kind known as "pea soup." Though hardly a winter passes in London without at least a few days of fog, it is nowadays more of the impenetrable white or misty variety. A considerable mitigation of the fog evil has come about within the last twenty years. During the 'seventies and 'eighties of the last century it was not at all uncommon for the sky to be entirely hidden from the gaze of Londoners for two or three weeks at a stretch, when it was necessary to have street and house lights burning all day. Since the middle of the 'nineties these fogs have grown rarer and milder; the thick, choking clouds of soot-laden air that could be seen rolling like an avalanche through the streets occur very seldom now, a circumstance that is attributed to the increase of gas and electricity for heating purposes. For many years scientists have been debating and considering ways and means to minimize the fog evil.

Derivation of name.—The name London has been derived variously—from Lhwn-dinas (City in the Wood); Llongdinas (City of Ships) and Llyndun or Llyndin (Hill Fortress by the Lake).—"The derivation of 'Londinium' from 'Llyn-din,' the lake fort, seems to agree best with the situation and the history. The Roman could not frame to pronounce the British word 'Llyn,' a word which must have sounded to his ears very much like 'Clun,' or 'Lun,' and the fact, if it is a fact, that Llyn was turned into Lon, goes to increase the probability that this is the correct derivation of the name. The first founder called his fastness the 'Fort of the Lake,' and this is all that remains of him or it. . . . London was in those days emphatically a Llyn-din, the river itself being more like a broad lake than a stream, and behind the fortress lying the 'great northern lake,' as a writer so late as Fitzstephen calls it, where is now Moorfields. I take it, it was something very like an island, if not quite—a piece of high ground rising out of lake, and swamp, and estuary."—W. J. Loftie, *History of London, ch.* 1, *and foot-note.*



© Major Hamilton Maxwell from Underwood & Underwood

AERIAL VIEW OF LONDON

The heart of old London, with the Tower Bridge in the foreground, the Tower of London at the right, and beyond, Tower Hill.

Celtic period.—London Stone.—"Little less imposing, though in an entirely different way from the London of to-day, must have been the appearance of the primitive city 2,000 or 3,000 years or more B.C. Crowning the cliff of blue clay on the north bank of the Tain, or Thames (Keltic—*broad water*), stood the Caer, or fortified enclosure, on precisely the same site as the present city, an area known from time immemorial as the 'City Mile'; probably no mile in the world covers more buried history. The Caer consisted of two hillocks, both about 35 feet high, standing on either side of the little stream of the Walbrook which

took its rise in the fens beyond Moorgate and flowing through a depression well marked through Lothbury, passed a little to the westward of the Mansion House, and through a kind of ravine to a creek at Dowgate (Keltic—*water*-gate). The present street, called by its name Walbrook, runs very nearly parallel to the course of the stream. The city extended laterally on the east of the present site of the Tower, and on the west as far as the Fleet. To the north lay dreary moorland with fens and swamps stretching to the foot of an immense forest, afterwards known as the Middlesex Forest. Fragments of this primeval forest yet remain at Hampstead (where it is known as Ken or Caen Wood), Highgate, Epping and Hainault. On the highest ground on the western hillock, where St. Paul's now stands, might have been seen silhouetted against the sky, the mighty unhewn monoliths of the Druidic circle, the seat of the Arch-Druid of Caer Troia. . . . No trace of the circle remains, but at a little distance to the south-east . . . stands a single obeliscal pillar or index stone, preserved behind iron bars in the wall of St. Within's Church, opposite Cannon Street Station. It is said originally to have been a Roman mile-stone, but Sir Lawrence Gomme supposes London Stone, like other great stones, to have marked the place where the open-air assemblies gathered to legislate for the Government of the city."—E. O. Gordon, *Prehistorical London, pp.* 9-11.

1st-4th centuries.—Roman period.—Destruction by the Iceni.—Latin growth of the city.—When the Romans landed in Britain in 43 A.D. (see BRITAIN: 43-53) they found Londinium (London) a town of considerable importance. Tacitus mentions that it was the "great mart of trade and commerce" and the "chief residence of merchants." In 61 A.D. it was destroyed by the Iceni, at the time of the furious insurrection to which they were incited by their outraged queen Boadicea. It "was crowded with Roman residents, crowded still more at this moment with fugitives from the country towns and villas: but it was undefended by walls, its population of traders was of little account in military eyes, and Suetonius sternly determined to leave it, with all the wealth it harboured, to the barbarians, rather than sacrifice his soldiers in the attempt to save it. . . . Amidst the overthrow of the great cities of southern Britain, not less than 70,000 Roman colonists . . . perished. The work of twenty years was in a moment undone. Far and wide every vestige of Roman civilization was trodden into the soil. At this day the workmen who dig through the foundations of the Norman and the Saxon London, strike beneath them on the traces of a double Roman city, between which lies a mass of charred and broken rubbish, attesting the conflagration of the terrible Boadicea."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans, ch.* 51.—London had risen from its ashes in the time of Severus (193-211). "That London gradually increased in importance beyond the dignity of a commercial city is plain, from the mention of it in the Itinera, which show the number of marching roads beginning and terminating there. . . . London then [in the times of Julian and Theodosius] bore the name of 'Augusta,' or 'Londinium Augusta,' and this title is only applied to cities of pre-eminent importance. The area of Roman London was considerable, and, from discoveries made at different times, appears to have extended with the growth of Roman power. The walls when the Romans left Britain reached from Ludgate, on the west, to the Tower on the east, about one mile in length, and from London Wall to the Thames. . . . It also extended across the river on the Kentish side."—H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain, ch.* 15.—"Roman London was built on the elevated ground on both sides of a stream, known in after time by the name of Wallbrook, which ran into the Thames not far from Southwark Bridge. . . . Its walls were identical with those which enclosed the mediæval city of London. . . . The northern and north-eastern parts of the town were occupied with extensive and—to judge by the remains which have been brought to light—magnificent mansions. . . . [At this period (353)], the city had extended to the other side of the Thames, and the borough of Southwark stands upon ground which covers the floors of Roman houses and the pavings of Roman streets."—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon, ch.* 5.

4th century.—Roman Augusta and its walls.—"It is certain that, either under Constantine [the emperor] himself, or under one of his immediate successors, the outer wall was built. Though the building of the Roman wall, which still in a sense defines the city boundaries, is an event in the history of London not second in importance even to its foundation, since it made a mere village and fort with a *'tête du pont'* into a great city and the capital of provincial Britain, yet we have no records by which an exact date can be assigned to it. All we know is that in 350 London had no wall: and in 369 the wall existed. The new wall must have taken in an immense tract of what was until then open country, especially along the Watling Street, towards Cheap and Newgate. It transformed London into Augusta; and though the new name hardly appears on the page of history, and never without a reference to the older one, its existence proves the increase in estimation which was then accorded to the place. The object of this extensive circumvallation is not very clear. The population to be protected might very well have been crowded into a much smaller space. . . . The wall enclosed a space of 380 acres, being 5,485 yards in length, or 3 miles and 205 yards. The portion along the river extended from Blackfriars to the Tower."—W. J. Loftie, *History of London, v.* 1, *ch.* 2.—"The most definite survival of Roman London is the wall with which the City was ultimately surrounded. . . . Owing to the continuous occupation of London the base of the wall in course of time became buried by the accumulated soil of the City, while the upper portion, through weathering and other causes, was in need of constant repair, and in later times its height was increased as the level of the surface was raised, but the old line was always preserved, subsequent rebuildings being carried upwards on the original line."—W. Page, ed., *Victoria history of the counties of England, v.* 1, *pp.* 43-44.

368-884.—Saxon period.—Conquest and settlement.—"Neither history nor archæology has yet put a term to Roman civilization in London. Though official intercourse with Rome ceased about 410, it is more than likely that London retained for a time the institutions and culture imposed upon it during the four preceding centuries, and nothing as yet discovered shows that its citizens were immediately driven from their homes by the invading Teuton. The city walls should for some time have withstood such attacks as that which brought Theodosius in hot haste to the rescue in 368; and the disaster of that year offers a starting-point for a brief chronological sketch, to serve as a frame for the picture presented by Anglo-Saxons remains in the heart of London. Ammianus Marcellinus, a contemporary historian, states that in 368 London was taken by the Franks or Saxons,

who ambushed the Duke of Britain and slew the Count of the Saxon Shore, these being two of the most prominent officials of the province at that period. The city was soon retaken and fortified, but, like nearly every other British town, then suffered a total eclipse, and there is no record till 457 in which year Hengist and Æsc, his son, defeated the British at Crayford and drove them in flight to London. Much had happened in the interval that we would gladly know—the Saxon had evidently got a firm footing in this country, but it may be inferred that London was still an effective city of refuge, and had not yet succumbed to the invader. Just a century later Gildas, the British Jeremiah, was lamenting the fall of Verulam, a city that in Roman times had ranked above London; and it is possible that the latter had met its fate at the same period. Such indeed is the view that has commended itself to more than one historian of the city, and may be mentioned here as according with most of the archæological evidence brought to light."—W. Page, ed., *Victoria history of the counties of England, v.* 1, *p.* 147.—Very little is known of Saxon London except that St. Paul's Cathedral was founded by Ethelbert in 610 in the time of King Sebert. Bede, who mentions this, called London an "emporium of many nations who arrived thither by land and sea." For nearly half a century after its conquest by the East-Saxons (which took place probably about the middle of the sixth century) London "wholly disappears from our view. . . . We know nothing of the circumstances of its conquest, of the fate of its citizens, or of the settlement of the conquerors within its walls. That some such settlement had taken place, at least as early as the close of the seventh century, is plain from the story of Mellitus, when placed as bishop within its walls [see ENGLAND: 597-685]; but it is equally plain that the settlement was an English one, that the provincials had here as elsewhere disappeared, and that the ruin of the city had been complete. . . . Direct proofs of the wreck of the town meet us in the stray glimpses which we are able to get of its earlier topographical history. The story of early London is not that of a settled community slowly putting off the forms of Roman for those of English life, but of a number of little groups scattered here and there over the area within the walls, each growing up with its own life and institutions, gilds, sokes, religious houses, and the like, and only slowly drawing together into a municipal union which remained weak and imperfect even at the Norman Conquest."—J. R. Green, *Conquest of England, pp.* 149, 452-459.—"London may be said after this time [early in the ninth century] to be no longer the capital of one Saxon kingdom, but to be the special property of whichever king of whichever kingdom was then paramount in all England. When the supremacy of Mercia declined, and that of Wessex arose, London went to the conqueror. In 823, Egbert receives the submission of Essex, and in 827 he is in London, and in 833 a Witan is held there, at which he presides. Such are the scanty notes from which the history of London during the so-called Heptarchy must be compiled. . . . London had to bear the brunt of the attack [of the Danes] at first. Her walls wholly failed to protect her. Time after time the freebooters broke in. If the Saxons had spared anything of Roman London, it must have disappeared now. Massacre, slavery, and fire became familiar in her streets. At last the Danes seemed to have looked on her as their headquarters, and when, in 872, Alfred was forced to make truce with them, they actually retired to London as to their own city, to recruit. To Alfred, with his military experience and political sagacity, the possession of London was a necessity; but he had to wait long before he obtained it. His preparations were complete in 884. The story of the conflict is the story of his life. His first great success was the capture of London after a short siege: to hold it was the task of all his later years."—W. J. Loftie, *History of London, v.* 1, *ch.* 3.—See also ENGLAND: 477-527.

1013-1016. — Resistance to Danes. See ENGLAND: 979-1016.

1066-1154.—Norman period.—Beauty of Norman London.—Architecture.—Norman charters.—Commerce.—"The London which the Normans created was an altogether different London from that which they entered in 1066. They came to it friendliwise; they remained in it as conquerors. But they were magnificent conquerors. They found in the great city buildings of Roman origin doing duty for English purposes, and they found many decayed and destroyed parts. The city had been sadly buffeted, and torn during the centuries which witnessed the Anglo-Saxon encompassing and occupation, the Danish assault and conquest, and the varied events recorded and unrecorded which brought it finally under Norman rule. When London was under Norman rule, however, it sprang into a place of beauty and renown. The Normans tolerated no ugliness or squalor if they could help it. They would use the ruins of the Roman wall and the foundations of Roman temples and buildings to erect a fortress wall of their own type, and churches and castellated buildings for their own purposes. And this they did right quickly and magnificently, for we have the well-known account of Fitzstephen, written in the twelfth century, only a hundred years after their entry into the city, and we have some of the remains of their buildings. . . . Here is the typical walled city of mediæval times, the walled city which contained a community having a civic mind and action, and which used its walls for defence against the marauder who was sometimes the king, sometimes a faction of the nobility, sometimes the dissatisfied mob, and sometimes the rebel. All these enemies of peaceful citizenship were actively engaged during Norman and Plantagenet times. . . . The Tower described by Fitzstephen was wholly the king's. The city of London, pre-eminently the citizens' city, was within citizens' walls, was adjoining to, but not otherwise connected with, the Tower. . . . This clear demarcation between castle and town is very important. If it indicates the king's will to command the city, it indicates, too, the citizens' resolve that he shall not do so from within the city. If it is Norman fashion to blend castle and town together, it is London fashion to keep them apart. And so they have ever been apart. The Tower of London is state property and is entirely under state control. The city of London is citizens' property and is entirely under municipal control, with privileges, customs, rights, and duties, such as no other city in the kingdom possesses."—L. Gomme, *Making of London, pp.* 141-142, 144.—"We begin about the same time to hear of a governing guild, and of reeveland, or a portsoken, as its endowment. Sired, a canon of St. Paul's, built a church on land belonging to the Knightenguild. . . . More authentic are the charter of the Conqueror and a few facts which go to prove that London and its trading and industrial citizens were but little disturbed by the change of government. Things went on as before. The bishop, himself an alderman, the Portreeve

and the burghers, French and English, are addressed 'friendly.' One other charter in Norman times may suffice to illustrate the position of the great walled city and its busy and wealthy port under the Norman kings. This was the grant of Middlesex to the citizens by Henry I. This grant, which was only abrogated in 1888 by Act of Parliament, gave London the same rights over the county that were held in those days by the earls and reeves of shires. . . . It would appear probable that King Henry recognised the help the city had given him; first, in obtaining the crown, and afterwards in maintaining his position. The constitution of the city during the reigns of the Norman kings, if we may judge by what we find in twelfth-century documents at St. Paul's and in thirteenth-century documents at the Guildhall, must have been, as Bishop Stubbs and Professor Freeman have pointed out, that of a county. The municipal unity was of the same kind as that of the shire and the hundred. The Portreeve accounted to the King for his dues. . . . He was the justice, and owed his position to popular election as approved by the King. Under him were the aldermen of wards, answering very nearly to lords of manors. The people had their folkmote, answering to the shiremote elsewhere. Their weekly husting eventually became a 'county court,' and there was besides the wardmote, which still exists, and led eventually to the abolition of proprietary aldermen in favour of aldermen elected by the wards. At this period the buildings of the city began to assume a certain importance we do not hear of under the Saxons. St. Paul's became a notable example of what we now call Norman architecture." —T. F. Ordish, *Elizabethan London* (P. H. Ditchfield, *Memorial of Old London, v. 2, pp. 22-24*).— We are told by Fitzstephen that " 'to this city merchants bring us wares by ships from every nation under heaven. The Arabian sends his gold, the Sabean his frankincense and spices, the Scythian arms, oil of palms from the plentiful wood, Babylon her fat soil, and Nilus his precious stones, the Seres send purple garments, they of Norway and Russia trouts, furs, and sables, and the French their wines.' This description of London commerce in the twelfth century is the description of London at the present time. . . . It was not, however, all of Norman creation. The predecessors of the Norman had been at work on this great city. . . . Norman London was Roman London with additions necessary for its future development."—L. Gomme, *Making of London, p.* 147.

1154-1399. — Plantagenet period. — Municipal constitution. — First mayor. — Principal structures.—Craftsmen.—"London, rather than royal Winchester, held the balance between Maud and Stephen, and with the election of Henry II., the first Plantagenet, we come upon the establishment of the modern municipal constitution and the long battle for freedom. The Londoner set a pattern to other English burghers. His keenness in trade, his vivacity, his tenacity of liberty and, perhaps above all, the combination of duty and credit which brought him wealth, have made his city what it is —the central feature of a world-wide empire."—T. F. Ordish, *Elizabethan London* (P. H. Ditchfield, *Memorial of Old London, v. 2, p.* 26).—"During the reign of Richard I the City of London secured the granting of a municipal constitution. The form of government, which had been slowly developing, now became definite and received the stamp of royal approval. Unfortunately, the actual terms of this constitution of 1191 have not been preserved. . . . About this time we find the first record of a Mayor of London, an official, who, no doubt, succeeded to the duties performed by the Saxon Portreeve. Henry FitzAilwin was the first Mayor of London, and he held the office until his death in 1212. Soon after the accession of King John (1199) we find for the first time that a body of 'five and twenty of the more discreet men of the City' were 'sworn to take counsel on behalf of the City, together with Mayor.' These were the Aldermen (Elder-men) of the City, wealthy landowners and merchants, or the leading members of the gilds. Then in 1273 there is a record in the City archives that a number of 'good men of all the wards' were sworn to consult with the Aldermen on the affairs of the City. These represented the humbler citizens, and doubtlesss formed the earliest Court of Common Council. So by the end of the thirteenth century we find existing the Mayor, the Court of Aldermen, and the Court of Common Council."—C. Mullins, *London's story, pp.* 17-18.—"It is difficult to recall Plantagenet London. Churches, monasteries, and other ecclesiastical foundations occupied about one quarter of its area. All the great nobles had residences there. The king possessed a residence within its walls. Merchants were rich and powerful and their homes were elaborate and extensive. The streets were narrow and the walls were kept in good repair. . . . The principal examples of Plantagenet structure which remain to us refer to a London developing outside the city walls. These are of course the magnificent Westminster Hall, one of the most beautiful specimens of mediaeval architecture, with the beautiful 1292 crypt of St. Stephen's Chapel still intact, and the Abbey Church of Westminster. . . . The Guildhall is the symbol of Plantagenet municipal rule—that rule which fought the sovereign, kept up municipal traditions, bowed to the inevitable development of state government, and handed down to Tudor times a city which had not bowed its head to royal caprice."—L. Gomme, *Making of London, pp.* 165, 177.—"In the narrow lanes leading north and south of the two great streets of Thames and Chepe the craftsmen of London lived in their tenements, each consisting of a room below and a room above. Some of them followed their trade at home, some worked in shops. There were those who sold and those who made. Of the former, the mercers and haberdashers kept their shops in West Chepe; the goldsmiths in Guthrun's Lane and Old Change; the pepperers and grocers in Soper's Lane; the drapers in Lombard Street and Cornhill; the skinners in St. Mary Axe; the fishmongers in Thames Street; the iron-mongers in Iron-mongers' Lane and Old Jewry; the vintners in the Vintry; the butchers in East Chepe, St. Nicolas Shambles, and the Stocks Market; the hosiers in Hosiers' Lane; the shoemakers and curriers in Cordwainer Street; the paternoster-sellers in Paternoster Row; patten-sellers by St. Margaret Pattens; and so forth. . . . From the absence of great houses, whether of nobles or princes, in the north of the City, one is inclined to believe that great numbers of craftsmen lived in that part, namely, between what is now called Gresham Street and London Wall. The trades carried on within the walls covered very nearly the whole field of manufacture."—W. Besant, *London, pp.* 217-218.

1381. — In the hands of followers of Wat Tyler and John Ball. See ENGLAND: 1381.

1585-1603.—Tudor period.—Royal Exchange.—Development of Elizabethan London. — Great port.—Thames as a highway.—London Bridge.—West Cheap.—St. Paul's.—Ludgate rebuilt.—Shakespeare's London.—"When Queen Elizabeth ascended the throne the commercial centre of the world was Antwerp; when she died, the commercial

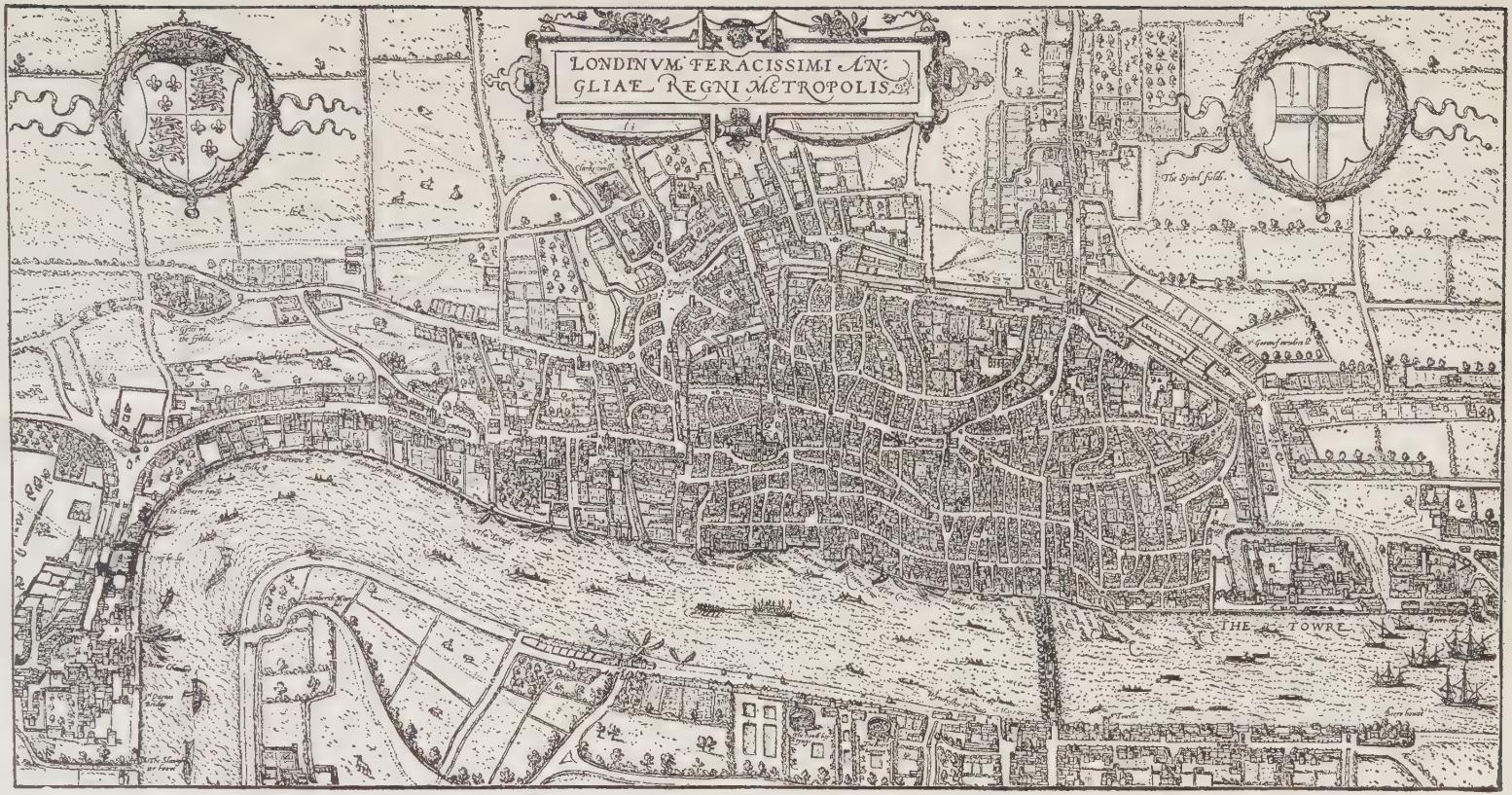
centre of the world was London. . . . The religious wars of the Netherlands brought immense losses to Antwerp. These losses [Sir Thomas] Gresham desired to make London's gains. . . . Gresham built a Bourse; he gave it to the city; he formed this place of meeting for the merchants; the Queen opened it [Jan. 23, 1571] and called it the Royal Exchange. The possession of the Exchange was followed immediately by such a development of enterprise as had been unknown before in the history of the city. Next he persuaded the citizens to take up the Queen's loans themselves, so that the interest, at 12 percent., should remain in the country. He showed his own people how to take advantage of Antwerp's disasters and to divert her trade to the port of London."—W. Besant, *London, pp.* 293-294.—"The long reign of Elizabeth commenced with the customary procession through the city. 'Her Grace' was met at Highgate by the lord mayor and aldermen and conducted to the Charter-house, whence on several occasions she passed through the outskirts of London before her coronation, which was delayed, it is said, on account of the difficulty of finding a Catholic Bishop to bless the heretic. On the 14th January, 1559, however, she made her solemn progress from the Tower in state to Westminster, every step of which was minutely chronicled, with the decorations of each street-corner and gate, the wondrous pageants and subtleties, . . . and above all, the famous presentation at the door of St. Peter's Church of a Bible in English. . . . Elizabeth, like most strong sovereigns, was popular in the city, and she retained her popularity, in spite of a few demonstrations of the old Tudor temper, to the end of her life. The military and naval preparations to oppose the Armada were watched by the citizens with anxious eyes. Elizabeth asked London for fifteen ships and five thousand men. To this demand the citizens replied with thirty ships and ten thousand sailors, while the trained bands, to the number of ten thousand more, paraded each evening at the Artillery Ground in Spital Fields. We may be sure that all London poured out by river and road to the famous review at Tilbury, and when the flotilla of Philip was finally defeated, Elizabeth attended a solemn service in St. Paul's on the 24th November, 1588. . . . When at length she died, the grief of the citizens was marked by the most lively tokens. . . . When her funeral passed to Westminster there was 'such a general sighing, groaning and weeping, as the like hath not been seen or known in the memory of man, neither doth any history mention any people, time, or state, to make like lamentation for the death of their sovereign.' "—W. J. Loftie, *History of London, v.* 1, *pp.* 325, 328-329.—The leading feature of Elizabethan London was that it was a great port. . . . The Tower and the bridge were the city's defences against attack by water. Near the Tower was the Custom House, where peaceful commerce paid its dues; and between the Custom House and the bridge was the great wharf of Billingsgate, where goods were landed for distribution. Near the centre of the bridge was a drawbridge, which admitted vessels to another great wharf, Queenhithe, at a point midway between London Bridge and Blackfriars. Between the bridge and Queenhithe was the Steelyard, the domain of the merchants of the Hanseatic League. Along the river front were numerous other wharves, where barges and lighters unloaded goods which they brought from the ships in the road, or from the upper reaches of the Thames. For the river was the great highway of London. It answered the needs of commerce, and it furnished the chief means of transit. The passenger traffic of Elizabethan London was carried on principally by means of rowing-boats. . . . The streets were too narrow for coaches, except in two or three main arteries. . . . The maps of the period reveal the extraordinary number of 'stairs' for landing passengers along both banks of the river, besides the numerous wharves for goods. . . . There was only the single bridge, but there were several ferries. The principal ferry was from Blackfriars and the Fleet river to a point opposite on the Surrey side, called Paris Garden stairs—nearly in a line with the present Blackfriars Bridge. . . . Elizabethan London was more cosmopolitan than many European capitals. In Lombard Street the Merchants of Germany, France, and Italy were conspicuously differentiated by the varieties of costume. . . . Cheap, or West Cheap [Cheapside], was the chief traffic way westward in Elizabethan London; it was filled with shops and warehouses, a thriving business centre, the pride of the city. The name of 'Cheap' was derived from the market, and several of the streets leading into it yet bear names which in Elizabethan times were descriptive of the trades there carried on. . . . [The great cathedral of St. Paul's as a religious and social institution, was] the centre of Elizabethan London. Here the streams of life were gathered, and hence they radiated. It was the official place of worship of the Corporation; the merchants of the city followed. The monarch on special occasions attended the services; the nobility followed the royal example. . . . In 1561 the great steeple was struck by lightning and destroyed by fire, but the tower from which the spire arose remained."—T. F. Ordish, *Elizabethan London* (P. H. Ditchfield, *Memorial of old London, v.* 2, *pp.* 21-23, 28, 30, 33).—"In the reign of Queen Mary [images of kings on Ludgate] were repaired, as by setting new heads on their old bodies, &c. All which so remained until the year 1586, the 28th of Queen Elizabeth, when the same gate being sore decayed, was clean taken down, . . . and the same year the whole gate was newly and beautifully built, . . . all which was done at the common charges of the citizens, amounting to fifteen hundred pounds or more."—J. Stow, *Survey of London, p.* 68.—The gateway at the Southwark end was finished in 1579. "In Shakespeare's lifetime London was very much as it had been left by the wars of York and Lancaster. . . . The connection of William Shakespeare with Southwark is one of the most unquestionable facts in his biography. . . . His theatre was the 'Gloabe upon Banckside.' . . . Close to it, but rather more to the westward, was the Rose, another theatre. A little further in the same direction were two 'pits' for bear-baiting and bull-baiting, and the locality is still, or was very lately, known as the Bear Garden, and is so marked on many maps. Another old name still extant is that of the Falcon Dock, close to which stood the *Falcon Tavern,* which is said to have been patronised by Shakespeare and his company. Paris Garden was exactly on the spot now covered by the southern approaches of Blackfriars Bridge."—W. J. Loftie, *History of London, v.* 1, *pp.* 287, 323.—"Opposite Paris Garden, across the river, was Blackfriars; and here the change from the ancient order to what was distinctively Elizabethan London was most manifest. . . . It became an aristocratic residential quarter; and in the earlier period of Queen Elizabeth's reign plays were performed here. . . . At a later period—viz., in 1596—James Burbage, who built the theatre in Shoreditch, built a new playhouse in the precinct, [which] . . . was not open to the weather at the top like the common playhouses, and it was distinguished as the 'private'

theatre at Blackfriars."—T. F. Ordish, *Elizabethan London* (P. H. Ditchfield, *Memorial of old London, v. 2, p. 48*).

1665.—General character of Stuart period.—Great plague.—"As London was in the time of Elizabeth, so it was, with a few changes, in the time of Charles the Second. A little variation in the costumes; a little alteration in the hour of dinner; a greatly extended trade over a much wider world; and, in all other respects, the same city. Two events—two disasters—give special importance to this period: . . . the Plague and the Fire. The Plague was the twelfth of its kind which visited the City during a period of seven hundred years. The twelfth and the last. Yet not the worst. That of the year 1407 is said to have killed half the population: that of 1517 . . . killed more than half. Of all these plagues we hear no more than the bare, dreadful fact, 'Plague—so many thousands killed.'"—W. Besant, *London, pp.* 375-376.—"The water supply, it is now generally acknowledged, is the first cause of epidemic disease. In London, at the beginning of the reign of James I., it was threefold. Some water came to public conduits, like those in Cheap, by underground pipes from Tyburn. Some was drawn by water-wheels and other similar means from the Thames, polluted as it was, at London Bridge. A third source of supply was still more dangerous: in all the suburbs, and probably also in most houses in the city itself, people depended on wells. What wells among habitations, and especially filthy habitations, become, we know now, but in the 17th century, and much later, the idea of their danger had not been started. Such being the conditions of existence in London, the plague now and then smouldering for a year or two, now and then breaking out as in 1603, 1625, and 1636, a long drouth, which means resort to half dry and stagnant reservoirs, was sufficient to call it forth in all its strength. . . . The 7th of June [1665], said Pepys, was the hottest day that ever he felt in his life. The deaths from the plague, which had begun at the end of the previous year, in the suburb of St. Giles' in the Fields, at a house in Long Acre, where two Frenchmen had died of it, rose during June from 112 to 268. The entries in the diary are for four months almost continuous as to the progress of the plague. Although it was calculated that not less than 200,000 people had followed the example of the king and court, and fled from the doomed city, yet the deaths increased daily. The lord mayor, Lawrence, held his ground, as did the brave earl of Craven and General Monk, now became duke of Albermarle. Craven provided a burial-ground, the Pest Field, with a kind of cottage-hospital in Soho; but the only remedy that could be devised by the united wisdom of the corporation, fortified by the presence of the duke and the earl, was to order fires in all the streets, as if the weather was not already hot enough. Medical art seems to have utterly broken down. Those of the sick who were treated by a physician, only died a more painful death by cupping, scarifying and blistering. The city rectors, too, who had come back with the king, fled from the danger, as might be expected from their antecedents, and the nonconformist lecturers who remained had overwhelming congregations wherever they preached repentence to the terror-stricken people. . . . The most terrible stories of premature burial were circulated. All business was suspended. Grass grew in the streets. No one went about. The rumbling wheels of the cart, and the cry, 'Bring out your dead!' alone broke the stillness of the night. . . . In the first weeks of September the number of fatal cases rose to 1,500 a day, the bills of morfality recording 24,000 deaths between the 1st and 21st of that month. Then at last it began to decline, but rose again at the beginning of October. A change of weather at length occurred, and the average declined so rapidly that, by the beginning of November, the number of deaths was reduced to 1,200, and before Christmas came it had fallen to the usual number of former years. In all, the official statements enumerated 97,306 deaths during the year, and, if we add those unrecorded, a very moderate estimate of the whole mortality would place it at the appalling figure of 100,000 at least."—W. J. Loftie, *History of London, v. 1, ch. 11.*

Also in: S. Pepys, *Diary*, 1665.

1666.—Great fire.—Rebuilding of city.—"While the war [with the Dutch] continued without any decisive success on either side, a calamity happened in London which threw the people into great consternation. Fire, breaking out [September 2, 1666] in a baker's house near the bridge, spread itself on all sides with such rapidity that no efforts could extinguish it, till it laid in ashes a considerable part of the city. The inhabitants, without being able to provide effectually for their relief, were reduced to be spectators of their own ruin; and were pursued from street to street by the flames which unexpectedly gathered round them. Three days and nights did the fire advance; and it was only by the blowing up of houses that it was at last extinguished. . . . About 400 streets and 13,000 houses were reduced to ashes. The causes of the calamity were evident. The narrow streets of London, the houses built entirely of wood, the dry season, and a violent east wind which blew; these were so many concurring circumstances which rendered it easy to assign the reason of the destruction that ensued. But the people were not satisfied with this obvious account. Prompted by blind rage, some ascribed the guilt to the republicans, others to the Catholics. . . . The fire of London, though at that time a great calamity, has proved in the issue beneficial both to the city and the kingdom. The city was rebuilt in a very little time, and care was taken to make the streets wider and more regular than before. . . . London became much more healthy after the fire."—D. Hume, *History of England, ch. 64.*—"I went this morning [Sept. 7] on foot from Whitehall as far as London Bridge, thro' the late Fleete-street, Ludgate hill, by St. Paules, Cheapeside, Exchange, Bishopsgate, Aldersgate, and out to Moorefields, thence through Cornehill, &c., with extraordinary difficulty, clambering over heaps of yet smoking rubbish, and frequently mistaking where I was. The ground under my feete so hot, that it even burnt the soles of my shoes. . . . At my returne I was infinitely concerned to find that goodly Church St. Paules now a sad ruine. . . . Thus lay in ashes that most venerable church, one of the most ancient pieces of early piety in ye Christian world, besides neere 100 more. . . . In five or six miles traversing about I did not see one loade of timber unconsum'd, nor many stones but what were calcin'd white as snow. . . . I then went towards Islington and Highgate, where one might have seen 200,000 people of all ranks and degrees dispers'd and lying along by their heaps of what they could save from the fire, deploring their losse, and tho' ready to perish for hunger and destitution, yet not asking one penny for reliefe, which to me appear'd a stranger sight than any I had yet beheld."—J. Evelyn, *Diary, Sept. 7, 1666, v. 2.*—"The fire was stayed at length



CONTEMPORARY PLAN OF LONDON IN 1570

by blowing up houses at the Temple Church, at Pie Corner, Smithfield (where the figure of a boy still stands to commemorate the fact), at Aldersgate, Cripplegate, and the upper part of Bishopsgate Street. It had consumed five-sixths of the City, together with a great piece beyond the western gates. It had covered an area of 436 acres, viz., 387 acres within the walls, and 73 without; it had destroyed 132,000 dwelling-houses, St. Paul's Cathedral, eighty-nine parish churches, four of the City gates, Sion College, the Royal Exchange, the old Grey Friars Church, the Chapel of St. Thomas of Acon, and an immense number of great houses, schools, prisons, and hospitals. The area covered, roughly speaking, an oblong nearly a mile and a half in length by half a mile in breadth. The value of the property destroyed was estimated at £10,000,000. There is no such fire of any great city on record, unless it is the burning of Rome under Nero. Their city being thus destroyed, the citizens lost no time, but set to work manfully to rebuild it. The rebuilding of London is a subject of some obscurity. One thing is quite certain: that as soon as the embers were cool enough to enable the people to walk among them, they returned, and began to find out the sites of their former houses. It is also certain that it took more than two years to clear away the tottering walls and the ruins. It was at first proposed to build again on a new plan; Sir Christopher Wren prepared one plan, and Sir John Evelyn another. Both plans were excellent, symmetrical and convenient. Had either been adopted, the City of London would have been as artificial and as regular as a new American town, or the City of Turin. Very happily, while the Lord Mayor and aldermen were considering the matter, the people had already begun to build. A most fortunate thing it was that the City rose again on its old lines, with its winding streets and narrow lanes. At first the houseless people, 200,000 in number, camped out in Moorfields, just north of the City. Very happily, these fields, which had long been a swamp or fen intersected by ditches, a place of pasture, kennels, and windmills, had been drained by the City in 1606, and were now laid out in pleasant walks, a place of resort for summer evenings, a wrestling and cudgel playing-ground, and a ground for the muster of the militia. Here they set up tents and cottages; here they presently began to build two-stories houses of brick. As they had no churches, they set up 'tabernacles,' whether on the site of the old churches or in Moorfields does not appear. As they had no Exchange, they used Gresham College for the purpose; the same place did duty for the Guildhall; the Excise Office was removed to Southampton Fields, near Bedford House; the General Postoffice was taken to Brydges Street, Covent Garden; the Customhouse to Mark Lane; Doctors' Commons to Exeter House, Strand. The part of the town wanted for the shipping and foreign trade was first put up. And thus the town, in broken-winged fashion, renewed its old life. On September 18th the Houses of Parliament created a Court of Judicature for settling the differences which were sure to arise between landlord and tenants, and between owners of land, as to boundaries and other things. The Justices of the Court of King's Bench and Common Pleas, with the Barons of the Exchequer, were the judges of the Court. So much satisfaction did they give that the grateful City caused their portraits to be placed in Guildhall. . . . In order to enable the churches, prisons, and public buildings to be rebuilt, a duty was laid upon coals. This duty was also to enable the City to enlarge the streets, take over ground for quays, and other useful purposes. Nothing, however, seems to have been granted for the rebuilding of private houses. The building of the churches took a long time to accomplish. The first to be completed was that of St. Dunstan's in the East, the tower of which is Sir Christopher Wren's; the body of the church, which has since been pulled down, was by another hand. That was built two years after the Fire. Six years after the Fire another church was finished; seven years after three more; eight years after three more; ten years after five, and so on, dragging along until the last two of those rebuilt—for a great many were not put up again—were finished in the year 1697, thirty-one years after the Fire. Within four years the rebuilding of the City was nearly completed. Ten thousand houses were built, a great many companies' halls, and nearly twenty churches. One who writes in the year 1690 (*Angliæ Metropolis, or, The Present State of London*) says, 'As if the Fire had only purged the City, the buildings are infinitely more beautiful, more commodious, more solid (the three main virtues of all edifices) than before. They have made their streets much more large and straight, paved on each side with smooth hewn stone, and guarded the same with many mossy posts for the benefit of foot-passengers; and whereas before they dwelt in low, dark, wooden houses, they now live in lofty, lightsome, uniform, and very stately brick buildings.' This is great gain. And yet, looking at the houses outside Staple Inn and at the old pictures, at what loss of picturesqueness was this gain acquired? The records are nearly silent as to the way in which the people were affected by the Fire. It is certain, however, that where the Plague ruined hundreds of families, the Fire ruined thousands. Thirteen thousand houses were burned down; many of these were houses harboring two or three families, for 200,000 were rendered homeless. Some of them were families of the lower working class, the riverside laborers and watermen, who would suffer little more than temporary inconvenience, and the loss of their humble 'sticks.' But many of them were substantial merchants, their warehouses filled with wine, oil, stuffs, spices, and all kinds of merchandise; warehouses and contents all gone—swept clean away—and with them the whole fortune of the trader."—W. Besant, *London, pp.* 397-402.

Also in: S. Pepys, *Diary, Sept.* 2-15, 1666, *v.* 4.—L. Phillimore, *Sir Christopher Wren, ch.* 6-7.—W. G. Bell, *Great fire of London in 1666.*

1685.—Most populous capital in Europe.—First lighting of streets.—"There is reason to believe that, in 1685, London had been, during about half a century, the most populous capital in Europe. The inhabitants, who are now [1848] at least 1,900,000, were then probably little more than half a million. London had in the world only one commercial rival, now long ago outstripped, the mighty and opulent Amsterdam. . . . There is, indeed, no doubt that the trade of the metropolis then bore a far greater proportion than at present to the whole trade of the country; yet to our generation the honest vaunting of our ancestors must appear almost ludicrous. The shipping which they thought incredibly great appears not to have exceeded 70,000 tons. This was, indeed, then more than a third of the whole tonnage of the kingdom. . . . It ought to be noticed that, in the last year of the reign of Charles II [1685], began a great change in the police of London, a change which has perhaps added as much to the happiness of the body of the people as revolu-

tions of much greater fame. An ingenious projector, named Edward Heming, obtained letters patent conveying to him, for a term of years, the exclusive right of lighting up London. He undertook, for a moderate consideration, to place a light before every tenth door, on moonless nights, from Michaelmas to Lady Day, and from six to twelve of the clock."—Lord Macaulay, *History of England, v.* 1, *ch.* 3.

1688.—Irish night.—The ignominious flight of James II from his capital, on the morning of December 11, 1688, was followed by a wild outbreak of riot in London, which no effective authority existed to promptly repress. To the cry of "No Popery," Roman Catholic chapels and the residences of ambassadors of Roman Catholic states, were sacked and burned. "The morning of the 12th of December rose on a ghastly sight. The capital in many places presented the aspect of a city taken by storm. The Lords met at Whitehall, and exerted themselves to restore tranquillity. . . . In spite, however, of the well-meant efforts of the provisional government, the agitation grew hourly more formidable. . . . Another day of agitation and terror closed, and was followed by a night the strangest and most terrible that England had ever seen." Just before his flight, King James had sent an order for the disbanding of his army, which had been composed for the most part of troops brought over from Ireland. A terrifying rumor that this disbanded Irish soldiery was marching on London, and massacring men, women and children on the road, now spread through the city. "At one in the morning the drums of the militia beat to arms. Everywhere terrified women were weeping and wringing their hands, while their fathers and husbands were equipping themselves for fight. Before two the capital wore a face of stern preparedness which might well have daunted a real enemy, if such an enemy had been approaching. Candles were blazing at all the windows. The public places were as bright as at noonday. All the great avenues were barricaded. More than 20,000 pikes and muskets lined the streets. The late daybreak of the winter solstice found the whole City still in arms. During many years the Londoners retained a vivid recollection of what they called the Irish Night. . . . The panic had not been confined to London. The cry that disbanded Irish soldiers were coming to murder the Protestants had, with malignant ingenuity, been raised at once in many places widely distant from each other."—T. B. Macaulay, *History of England, ch.* 10.

1695-1901.—Development of docks.—"Until the end of the seventeenth century there were no proper docks in London at all. The first 'wet dock' (that is, a dock in our modern sense of the word) was the Howland or Greenland Dock at Rotherhithe. It was built by private persons in 1695. But it was only used for repairing and fitting ships, not for loading or unloading. Nearly a hundred years went by before cargo docks were built. In the meantime the trade of London was in great difficulties, because all the ships had to lie out in the open river, there subject to the attacks of thieves and the weather. As usual, people wanted a lot of stirring up. So did the City. Pamphlets were written, and all sorts of proposals were made. But nothing was done. The people who made money under the bad conditions then existing violently opposed all dock schemes. Those who owned the river-side quays, the wharfingers and lightermen and others, saw very clearly that their earnings would be affected if ships could be brought easily into safe docks. But in the end they had to submit. In 1799 Parliament passed an Act which really begins the modern history of the Port of London. It tells us that 'the Port is so much crowded with shipping,' and that there was 'great crowding, confusion and damage' owing to the absence of accommodation. In fact, things were so bad that London was in danger of losing a large part of its trade. Antwerp and Rotterdam, etc., nearly beat London in the race for supremacy. This Act authorised the building of the canal across the Isle of Dogs from Limehouse to Barking, and this work was entrusted to the Court of Common Council. Further, the Act created the West India Dock Company, and gave it power to build cargo docks. So eager were the merchants to secure safety for their ships and cargoes that all around this West India Dock was built a high wall with a big ditch on the outside, and it was laid down that no houses were to be erected within a hundred yards of this wall. So London's first dock was surrounded by a veritable fortress. The wall still stands to-day. On July 12, 1800, William Pitt laid the first stone of the West India Dock. When it was opened, the City merchants soon saw its advantages, and then a number of other docks were built by other groups of merchants."—C. Mullins, *London's story, pp.* 121-123.—"In 1803 the East India Dock Company obtained an Act authorizing the construction of docks at Blackwall, and thirty-five years later it amalgamated with the West India Dock Company; while the St. Katharine's Dock Company, established in 1825, similarly amalgamated in 1864 with the London Dock Company, and purchased the Victoria Dock constituted in 1850. This led to the construction, first, of the Albert Dock in 1875 by the London and St. Katharine's Dock Company, and then in 1882 of the still more expensive Tilbury Dock by the rival East and West India Dock Company; and finally, after six years of keen competition between them for trade, mitigated somewhat by a working agreement in 1888, the two companies amalgamated in 1901 into the London and India Dock Company, whose undertaking has just been purchased by the new Port Authority."—U. A. Forbes, *Port of London and the Conservancy of the Thames* (*London Quarterly Review, July,* 1909).

1720.—First trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1720-1800.

1750-1830.—Growth of the Georgian city.—Suburbs. — Streets paved. — Fairs. — Mail.—Coaches. — Newspapers. — Expansion after Waterloo.—"London in 1750 was spreading, but not yet rapidly. East and west it spread, not north and south. Eastward the city had thrown out a long arm by the riverside. St. Katherine's Precinct was crowded; streets, two or three deep, stretched along the river-bank as far as Limehouse, but no farther. . . . White-chapel was already a crowded suburb, filled with workingmen. . . . Within its boundaries the city was well and carefully ordered. Unfortunately, this order did not extend beyond the walls. Outside there were no companies, no small parishes, nor rich merchants, no charities, schools, or endowments, and practically it was without churches. . . . The suburb of Bloomsbury was beginning. A crowded suburb had sprung up north of the Strand. Westminster was a great city by itself. Southwark, now a borough with half a million people, as great as Liverpool, occupied then a little strip of marshy land not half a mile broad at its widest. . . . The walls of the city were never formally pulled down. They disappeared bit by bit. Houses were built close to them and upon them: they were covered

up. Excavations constantly bring to light some of the foundations. . . . The gates still stood, and were closed at sunset, until the year 1760. Then they were all pulled down [because they obstructed traffic], and the materials sold. Temple Bar, which was never a City gate, properly speaking, remained until [1878]. . . . The only pavement both for the road and the footway consisted of large, round pebbles, over which the rolling of the vehicles made the most dreadful noise. In the year 1762, however, an improvement was introduced in Westminster, followed by the City of London in 1766. The roads were paved with squares of Scotch granite laid in gravel; the posts were removed; a curb was laid down; gutters provided, and the footway paved with flat stones. About the same time the corporation took down the overhanging signs, removed the City gates, covered over Fleet Ditch, and broadened numerous narrow passages. . . . The great merchants of the City still lived within the old boundaries: they had their country-houses, but they spent most of their time in town, where their houses were stately and commodious, but no longer palaces like those of their predecessors. . . . The Lord Mayor's Mansion, built in 1750, was the only palace unless we count Guildhall, the Royal Exchange, Gresham College, and the Halls of the Companies. But in every street except those given up entirely to trade, such as Cheapside, stood the substantial houses of the City Fathers. Never before had the City been so wealthy. . . . The London fairs—Bartholomew, Greenwich, Southwark, May Fair—no longer, of course, pretended to have anything to do with trade. They were simply occasions for holiday-making and indulgence in undisguised license and profligacy. . . . May Fair was stopped in the year 1708, but was revived some years afterwards. Southwark Fair . . . was not suppressed till 1763. The only good thing it did was to collect money for the poor prisoners of Marshalsea Prison. Bartholomew and Greenwich Fair continued till [1855]. . . . Mail-coaches started every night at eight o'clock with a guard. They were timed for seven miles an hour, and the fare for passengers was fourpence a mile. . . . The stage-coaches from different parts of London were innumerable, as were also the stage-wagons and the hoys. The coaches charged the passengers threepence a mile. Hackney-coaches ran for shilling and eighteen-penny fares. . . . There were nine morning papers, of which the *Morning Post* still survives. They were all published at threepence. There were eight evening papers, which came out three times a week. And there were three or four weekly papers, intended chiefly for the country."—W. Besant, *London, pp.* 431-433, 444-445, 449-450, 456-457, 464-465.—See also PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1785-1812.

"It was only in the nineteenth century that the capital was finally transformed from a national metropolis into a world's mammoth. The enlargement of the British Empire in the Napoleonic Wars increased its official population, and as a political and philanthropic centre it now accommodated a large floating element. . . . Long since a famous commercial mart, London now outstripped all its rivals and became the leading trade centre of Europe and beyond. . . . When these mercantile and financial enlargements took definite shape after Waterloo, the value of property rose enormously in the City, and the agents of these increasing activities, whose number was multiplying every day, could no longer live above their offices. A new suburban London then came into existence to accommodate their domestic needs, and its area quickly extended as locomotion improved, until the process in time made the whole of the Home Counties tributary to the capital. Almost every farm from Aylesbury to Dover sent its produce to London; the nearer villages were swallowed wholesale by the insatiable appetite of the great monster, and prosperous stockbrokers and staid City merchants began to play the country gentleman, and introduce a new feudal system in rural Kent and Surrey."—A. W. Tilby, *Growth of London* (*Edinburgh Review, Jan.,* 1921).

1759.—British Museum founded. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern: England.

1768.—Royal Academy founded. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern: England.

1780.—Gordon No-Popery riots. See ENGLAND: 1778-1780.

1837-1897.—Victorian period.—City area.—Beginning of expansion.—"The picture of London in 1837 is not easy to draw. In everything almost it was a different place from that which we now know. It was the City of London and the suburbs of the City of London; it was not, as it is now, the county of London, grown up from the area surrounding the ancient city bounds. . . . The present area of London was in 1837 only beginning to grow into shape, even if it had actually begun. The ancient site of the city was then, as now, covered with houses partly used for occupation, principally for commercial purposes. Within the city area there was a population of 123,000 persons, principally congregating in Cripplegate, Aldersgate, Bishopsgate, Newgate, Smithfield, Holborn, Blackfriars, and St. Bride, all of them parishes on the boundary. This population had slightly decreased since the beginning of the century, owing to expansion from the centre, but the great exodus had not then begun. This, indeed, did not begin until 1861, and then it went on rapidly, the resident population of the city sinking down to 75,000 in 1871, and 31,000 in 1896. . . . The district which has now grown into the county of London outside the City bounds was in 1837 very sparsely covered with houses. The development had begun on the west, the Strand district, Westminster, St. Giles, and St. James's being very largely built over, while Holborn and Clerkenwell to the north, Shoreditch, Whitechapel, and St. George's to the east, Southwark and North Lambeth to the south, were also nearly built over. Along the great roads, north, east, south, and west, residences were being built upon estates whose owners were only then obtaining acts of parliament to allow them to lease their lands. The map of London in 1837 is indeed more like a great octopus than anything else. . . . One feature of London has always distinguished it in modern times from other cities. This is the method of laying out building sites in squares. The large cluster of Bloomsbury squares, the famous Berkeley, Grosvenor, and Belgrave Squares, and the many other squares of lesser note have always elicited a chorus of eulogies from travellers. Von Raumer in 1835 styled them 'the great and peculiar beauty of London,' and this is not too much to say. . . . The population of the City of London in 1837 was 123,000, and of the immediate continuous occupied area 1,523,000, or together 1,646,000. If to this be added the population of the outer edge of London . . . namely about 300,000, we get a total of 2,000,000 to represent the population in 1837, compared with the 4½ millions of 1896. Now this London population was practically a settled population."—G. L. Gomme, *London in the reign of Victoria, pp.* 1, 2-3, 6-7, 21-22, 30, 33-34.

1839.—Police system changed. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Police defined.

1840. — Anti-slavery congress. — Influence of women. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1647-1848.

1844.—Origin of Young Men's Christian Association. See YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1844-1851.

1848.—Last Chartist demonstration. See ENGLAND: 1848.

1851.—Great exhibition. See ENGLAND: 1851.

1889.—Dockers' strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1889.

1894.—Tower Bridge.—The Tower Bridge was formally opened on June 30, eight years after the beginning of the work. Its cost was £1,250,000.

1897.—Great fire.—On November 19, 1897, occurred one of the largest fires in London since 1666. Beginning in Aldersgate, it spread over six acres of a densely populated quarter, destroying over 100 warehouses and buildings. The loss was estimated at £2,000,000.

1898.—Zionist conference. See JEWS: Zionism: 1897-1918.

1908.—Port of London Act.—"The Port of London is still the largest in the world. The goods which come to or go out from it every year have a value of 400 millions sterling [written in 1909]. Through its gates pass one-third of the imports and one-fourth of the exports of the United Kingdom. Every day in the year nearly 1,000 vessels enter or leave it, and some 10,000 barges busy themselves in distributing the cargoes to wharves and warehouses. . . . The investigations of a Royal Commission appointed in 1900 placed it beyond doubt that London's harbour authority, the Thames Conservancy [organized in 1857], from lack of means, had failed to improve the channels of the tidal river to the extent rendered necessary by the increased size of vessels, and that further dock accommodation was required. The Commission, reporting in 1902, recommended that the Conservancy should be superseded by a Port Authority, that the Dock Companies should be bought out, and that seven millions should be expended in improving the river and the docks and in providing new docks. The first attempt on the part of Parliament to carry out these drastic recommendations, in 1903, was abortive, but in 1908 the measure which had been introduced by Mr. Lloyd George while he held the office of President of the Board of Trade went through. The new Port Authority, with the Right Hon. Sir Hudson Kearley, Bart., M. P. [Lord Devonport], as unpaid Chairman, held its first meeting . . . on the 16th of March, 1909, and the transfer to it of the dock undertakings was effected on the last day of that month."—W. W. Hutchings, *London town past and present, v.* 2, *pp.* 1092-1093.—"The Port of London Act, 1908 . . . has again divided the river into two distinct portions, the upper of which, governed by a new Board of seventeen conservators, extends from Cricklade to Teddington; and the lower—the whole of which now constitutes the Port of London under the control of a newly established 'Port Authority' —comprises the tideway from Teddington to a line between the pilot mark at the entrance of Havengore Creek, Essex, and the Land's End at Warden Point in the Isle of Sheppey. While the new Conservators exercise all the functions of their predecessors as far as Teddington, those of the latter relating to the tideway are now exercised by the new Port Authority, which, it is important to note, is also charged with the administration of the docks formerly vested in the Dock Companies. . . . The new Authority has been invested with full powers for effecting the improvements necessary to enable the Port of London to maintain its present position. Amongst the powers and duties transferred to it from the late Conservators are the government of all vessels within the Port and the improvement and completion of the navigation of the river by means of dredging and removing obstructions and wrecks, &c., besides those of the appointment of harbour masters for the regulation of traffic in the river, the licensing of docks, piers and embankments, and the placing and maintenance of mooring chains and landing stages, &c., &c. It will now also exercise all the powers and duties formerly vested in the Watermen's Company, with respect to the registration and licensing of craft and boats, and the licensing, as well as the government regulation and control, of lightermen and watermen. . . . Lastly, its acquisition of the undertakings of the London and India, Surrey Commercial, and Millwall Dock Companies, while transferring to the Port Authority the income formerly derived by the companies from tonnage dues upon shipping entering the docks, dock dues upon goods landed upon or loaded from them, and from warehousing, will enable that body to effect improvements in the docks calculated to increase the value of others which are being simultaneously carried out in the waterway of the Thames—such as the construction and equipment of new docks, quays, wharves and railways, or the methods of imposing, levying and collecting dues, rates and tolls."—U. A. Forbes, *Port of London and the conservancy of the Thames* (*London Quarterly Review, July*, 1909).

1909.—Naval conference. See LONDON, DECLARATION OF (1909).

1911.—Railroad strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1911.

1912.—Armistice signed during First Balkan War. See BALKAN STATES: 1912-1913.

1913. — Treaty signed ending First Balkan War. See BALKAN STATES: 1912-1913.

1914.—Building strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1900-1914.

1914.—Effect of outbreak of World War.—"Immediately war broke out, the City of London began to help the Allies to the limit of its strength and power. The Mansion House set itself to organise aid and relief, and the crypt of the Guildhall was handed over to the Red Cross. The Fishmongers' Company converted its fine hall overlooking the Thames by London Bridge into a hospital for wounded officers. The splendid banqueting chamber was split up into cubicles. The Company not only lent the hall, but provided a large part of the cost of transforming it into a hospital and of maintaining it. Others followed suit. The twelve great City Livery Companies suspended all their usual entertainments and devoted the money thus saved, and other available sums, to the relief of distress, and to the help of the wounded or of others suffering in the war. The example of the twelve great Companies in suspending banquets was followed by the other City Guilds. . . . Even before the Government had called for fresh men for the Army, the City was rallying its sons to the defence of the Empire. The two special City regiments are the Hon. Artillery Company, founded in 1537, and the Royal Fusiliers, a direct descendant of the old trained bands of the City, established in the sixteenth century to prevent and suppress insurrection. Men flocked to these corps. So many applications were received by the Hon. Artillery Company that the War Office was asked to sanction the formation of a new company

over and above the full strength. The Company, 1,156 strong, was raised in 48 hours. Aldermen, councillors, freemen of the City and the City Corporation officials set the example by themselves enlisting. . . . The City has played an important part in the development of the War by the historic meetings that have been held at the Mansion House and the Guildhall. It was here that Mr. Asquith, when Prime Minister, made his clarion call to the country for men. Here came Mr. Lloyd George to emphasise the needs of the War. The heads of the Government . . . [chose] the City time after time as a centre from which they . . . addressed the whole Empire. The City . . . played a still more active part in the great development of Imperial sentiment . . . [after] August, 1914."—C. A. Hanson, *London vs. Germany, pp.* 5-6, 8-9.

1915.—Interallied Labor and Socialist conference. See Labor parties: 1868-1919; Socialism: 1914-1915.

1915-1917.—Air-raids.—Casualties.—"Early in 1915 began a systematic series of raids upon London, which, by October of 1917, had totalled thirty-four, with a toll of 865 persons killed and 2500 wounded. It seems fair to say that for these raids there was more plausible excuse than for those on the peaceful little seaside bathing resorts and fishing villages. London is full of military and naval centers, arsenals and navy yards, executive offices and centres of war-like activity. An incendiary bomb dropped into the Bank of England, or the Admiralty, might paralyze the finances of the Empire, or throw the naval organization into a state of anarchy. But as a matter of fact the German bombs did nothing of the sort. They fell in the congested districts of London, 'the crowded warrens of the poor.' But no building of the least military importance sustained any injury. It is true, however, that the persistent raiding . . . compelled England to withhold from the fighting lines in France several thousand men and several hundred guns in order to be in readiness to meet air raids in which Germany . . . never employed more than fifty machines and at most two hundred men, including both aviators and mechanics."—W. J. Abbot, *Aircraft and submarines, pp.* 208-209.—See also World War: 1915: X. War in the air.

Also in: *Darkness* (*Living Age, Feb.,* 1917).—J. Milne, *London in war-time* (*Fortnightly Review, Oct.* 2, 1916).

1918.—Bombed by the Germans. See World War: 1918: VIII. Aviation.

1918.—Interallied labor conference. See Labor parties: 1868-1919.

1918.—International scientific conference. See International Organization of Scientific Research.

1918-1920.—Changes and growth as a result of World War.—Until 1914 London increased its population by a steady fifty to a hundred thousand a year; and by the early twentieth century, when the habit of daily travel grew, its actual subjects were far more numerous than the census admitted, for it had recently annexed, in an economic and social sense, many places which lay far beyond its municipal bounds. Croydon and Bromley were now as suburban as Ealing; Brighton and Southend were little more than outer suburbs by the sea. . . . The war appeared to stay this expansion for a time by stopping building. But the appearance was delusive. In fact it increased the political and industrial activities of London, and it therefore merely aggravated the actual pressure of population without increasing the accommodation. . . . The winning of the war has been the direct cause of another mighty increase in the enlargement of London, which is now only beginning, and of which it would be foolish to prophesy the end. But the conditions have in the meantime a little changed. Immediately before 1914 the supply of houses had slightly outrun the demand; there were many streets of empty tenements and villas in some neighbourhoods such as Islington and Belsize Park. Basement houses stood empty for years, owing to the difficulties of domestic service; the great roomy mansions of the prolific Victorian age were largely let out in tenements or converted into flats, the smaller families of the ascendant social class of Edwardian times preferring a self-contained residence in the outskirts, in such rural suburbs as Pinner or Purley. But during and immediately after the war the increasing population of London was compelled to occupy the deserted inner houses again; and the raising of rents and railway fares, combined with the manifold discomforts of the no longer adequate suburban traffic systems, operated as an additional lever in reversing the outward flow of working humanity—particularly as regards those who were less fortunately situated in the general struggle for economic power which rising prices compelled and rising wages symbolised. By the beginning of 1920 the inner ring of residential London was again seriously congested."—A. W. Tilby, *Growth of London* (*Edinburgh Review, Jan.,* 1921).

1920.—Recreation centers. See Recreation: 1914-1921: Rapid development of municipal recreation.

1921.—Conference on Irish question. See Ireland: 1921.

1922 (August).—Conference of British and French premiers regarding German reparation crisis. See Germany: 1922 (July-August).

1922 (December).—Allied conference on German reparations. See Germany: 1922 (December).

Clubs. See Clubs: 19th-20th centuries.

Libraries. See Libraries: Modern: England, etc.: London libraries.

Museums. See British Museum; Victoria and Albert Museum; Art galleries and museums: Great Britain.

Also in: J. Stow, *Survey of London,* 1598.—W. Maitland, *History of London from its foundation by the Romans to the present time,* 1739.

LONDON: Conference of (1852). See Germany: 1861-1866.

Conference of (1913). See Turkey: 1912-1913; World War: Diplomatic background: 71, ix.

Convention of (1786). See Honduras, British: 1782-1783.

Convention of (1884). See South Africa, Union of: 1884-1894.

LONDON, Declaration of (1909).—A naval conference of the maritime powers assembled in London on December 4, 1908 (Germany, the United States of America, Austria-Hungary, Spain, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Netherlands and Russia), when a code of rules was drawn up known as the Declaration of London. The instrument was intended to settle and define certain rules of maritime law in time of war and deal with blockade; contraband of war; unneutral service; destruction of neutral prizes; transfer to a neutral flag; enemy character; convoy; resistance to search; and compensation. "The Declaration of London, which was drawn up by the Naval Conference of London, held in 1909, is, as it states in its preamble, intimately bound up with

LONDON, DECLARATION OF

the Convention for the Establishment of an International Prize Court, which was drawn up by the Hague Peace Conference of 1907. We must, therefore, go back to the results of the Hague Conference in order to understand the aim and effect of the international agreement which was come to in London. The first Hague Peace Conference in 1899 had drawn up a comprehensive 'International Convention with respect to the Laws and Customs of War on Land,' which was designed to check the severity of military belligerents, and was ratified by all the great Powers. Among the chief subjects on the programme of the second Conference, in 1907, was the preparation of a corresponding code of the laws and customs of war upon the sea. . . . The first attempt to establish by Convention a definite international law of maritime capture was made in 1856, at the conclusion of the Crimean War, by the plenipotentiaries who had signed the Treaty of Peace at Paris. [See PARIS, DECLARATION OF.] . . . (1) The Declaration [of London] leaves untouched,—and the Official Report upon it directly affirms,—our right to capture all enemy vessels and all enemy goods on them. (2) It establishes a certain and uniform law of Blockade and Contraband in place of the existing unstable and varying rules of different nations, which have caused constant friction in the past. (3) It lays down clear and uniform rules on all the other questions which were unsettled in the relations of belligerents and neutrals at sea, save on three points: (a) Whether belligerents may convert certain of their merchant vessels into warships on the high seas; (b) whether nationality or domicile determines the enemy or neutral character of seaborne commerce; (c) whether a neutral vessel, which engages during war in the colonial or coasting trade of a belligerent closed to it in time of peace, may be condemned for Unneutral Service. (4) On these three points the Declaration itself leaves our position unaffected; but if, as the result of ratifying the Declaration, Great Britain proceeds to ratify the International Prize Court Convention, the points may come up to be determined by that tribunal; and we should be bound by its decision, unless we expressly reserved our liberty to object to any judgment upon them which was opposed to our standpoint. It is within our power to attach such a reservation to the exchange of ratifications. (5) The International Prize Court, which would consist of fifteen judges of acknowledged eminence, the majority appointed by neutral States, would determine the three questions left open by the Declaration according to 'the general principles of justice and equity,' which, it may be hoped, would agree with our views. It would moreover provide an effective check upon any partisan interpretation of the articles of the Declaration which might be given by National Prize Courts, and would prevent any unfair belligerent innovation against neutrals. It would, in fact, maintain the Declaration of London as the Charter of Neutrals in maritime war. And the combined effect of the Declaration and the International Court would be to substitute for the present uncertain and shifting national laws and usages, applied by national and partial Courts, a certain and stable law between all belligerents and neutrals, which would be enforced in the last resort by the decisions of an international and impartial tribunal. (6) Finally, it must be left to the judgment of the Government, with the aid of the Imperial Conference and of Parliament, to determine, —as the English delegates said in their report to Sir Edward Grey,—'to what extent the rules of the Declaration themselves will safeguard the legitimate rights and interests of Great Britain; and how far their claim to general validity, and therefore to general respect, is made good by their inherent justice and by their conformity with the true Law of Nations, of which, according to the view always upheld by this country, it is an essential feature that it should flow from the recognition of the principles of right and of fair dealing common to all peoples.' It may be useful to summarise here the gains and the concessions which Great Britain has made in the Declaration. As belligerents we have obtained the right—(1) To capture absolute contraband cargo when there is evidence that it is destined for the enemy's country, though the immediate destination of the vessel is a neutral port. (2) To confiscate the vessel carrying contraband when the noxious goods form more than half the cargo. (3) To confiscate enemy merchantmen transferred to the neutral flag within a month of or at any time after the outbreak of hostilities, unless the neutral can prove that the transfer was not made to avoid capture.

On the other hand, we have given up the claim—(1) To capture vessels for an alleged design to break blockade at any distance from the blockaded coast, which has never in practice led to confiscation. (2) To search neutral merchantmen sailing under the convoy of a neutral man-of-war, which has not in practice been exercised for a century. (3) To treat as enemy property the non-contraband produce of enemy soil owned by a neutral subject resident in a neutral State. As neutrals we have gained for ourselves, and also for the subjects of other Powers trading with us when we are at war—(1) The exclusion of food-stuffs and fuel from the list of absolute contraband. (2) The exclusion of the raw materials of industry from the category of contraband at all. (3) The immunity from capture of cargoes of Conditional Contraband shipped to a belligerent country *via* neutral ports, so long as they are on a neutral vessel with a neutral destination. (4) The exclusion of the doctrine of Continuous Voyage from the law of Blockade. (5) The provision of compensation for neutral merchants whose vessels and cargoes have been improperly sunk by the captor, or have been captured without sufficient reason. (6) The immunity from capture of a neutral vessel which is innocently transporting individuals embodied in a belligerent's armed forces, or which is carrying despatches of a belligerent without the knowledge of any responsible person." —N. Bentwich, *Declaration of London, pp.* 1, 3, 37-40.—"The declaration of London has been approved by the President of the United States and was ratified by the Senate April 24, 1912. Whether formally ratified or not by the signatory and other powers, it has [1914] the authoritative weight due to the unanimous vote of the representatives of the great maritime powers and to their declaration that it represents the actual principles of international law upon the subjects dealt with."—C. H. Stockton, *Outlines of international law, p.* 58.—"The United States ratified [the Declaration] . . . in 1912, but in England, tho it passed the House of Commons, it was defeated in the House of Lords. The chief opposition to it in England then was because it was feared that it would limit the sea power of Great Britain and enable her enemies to cut off her food supply. The Declaration specified certain articles such as food for civilians, medicines, cotton, rubber and soap, should never be contraband, and it required that a blockade to be binding 'must be maintained by a force sufficient really to prevent access to

the enemy's coast line,' and it prohibited the capture of neutral vessels bound to neutral ports. At the beginning of the war the United States asked the belligerents to agree to abide by the Declaration of London, but could not get them to agree to it. The British Government announced that it would hold to it in part, but has renounced one provision after another by Orders-in-Council. In particular, the British Government has made all commerce with Germany contraband, even tho carried in neutral vessels between neutral ports, has applied and extended the doctrine of continuous voyage, and claims the rights of a blockade altho it has no control over the Baltic coast of Germany."—*Declaration of London* (*Independent, July* 24, 1916, *p.* 117).—Finally, in July, 1916, the declaration was formally renounced by the British and French governments.—See also BLOCKADE: Extent; INTERNATIONAL LAW: 1856-1909; NEUTRALITY: Present law.

LONDON, Declaration of (1916). See WORLD WAR: 1916: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: c.

LONDON, Secret Convention of (1921). See EGYPT: 1921: Secret convention.

LONDON, Treaty of: 1763. See SPAIN: 1761-1763.

1867. See LUXEMBURG: 1780-1914.

1871. See DARDANELLES: 1833-1914.

1913. See BALKAN STATES: 1912-1913; 1913.

LONDON, Treaty or Pact of (1915), secret agreement made between Italy, France, Great Britain and Russia, on April 26, 1915, signed May 9, 1915, and first made public by order of the Bolshevik foreign minister, Trotsky, in November, 1917, as a protest against secret diplomacy.

The Marquis Imperiali, acting on the instructions of his [the Italian] Government, has the honor to communicate the following memorandum to the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Sir Edward Grey; the Ambassador of France, M. Cambon, and the Ambassador of Russia, Count Benckendorff:

Art. 1.—A military convention is to be concluded without delay between the General Staffs of France, Great Britain, Russia, and Italy to determine the minimum number of troops which Russia would have to throw against Austria-Hungary if the latter should want to concentrate all her forces against Italy. Russia should decide mainly to attack Germany. Similarly the said convention is to regulate the questions relating to armistices, in so far as such armistices form an essential part of the competence of the Supreme Army Command.

Art. 2.—On her part Italy undertakes by all means at her disposal to conduct the campaign in union with France, Great Britain, and Russia against all the powers at war with them.

Art. 3.—The naval forces of France and Great Britain are to render uninterrupted and active assistance to Italy until such time as the navy of Austria has been destroyed or peace has been concluded. A naval convention is to be concluded without delay between France, Great Britain, and Italy.

Art. 4.—By the future treaty of peace, Italy is to receive the district of Trentino; the entire Southern Tyrol up to its natural geographical frontier, which is the Brenner Pass; the city and district of Trieste; the County of Gorizia and Gradisca; the entire Istria up to the Quarnero, including Volosca and the Istrian islands of Cherso and Lussino, as well as the smaller Islands of Plavinika, Unia, Canidole, Palazzuolo, S. Petro dei Nembi, Asinello, and Grutzo, with the neighboring islands.

Note 1.—Here follow the details of the frontier delimitations: In execution of the conditions of Article 4 the frontier line should run as follows: From the summit of the Umbrile northward as far as Stelvio, thence along the watershed of the Rhetian Alps as far as the sources of the Adige and the Eisach; after which it will cross the heights of the Reschon and the Brenner and those of the Etz and the Tiller. The frontier will then turn southward, passing round Mount Tobloch in order to reach the real frontier of Carmola, which is near to the Alps. Passing along this frontier, the line will reach Mount Tarvis and follow the watershed of the Julian Alps beyond the crests of the Predil, the Mangart, and the Tricorne, (Triglav), and the defiles of Podberdo, Poldansko, and Idria. Thence it will turn in a southeasterly direction toward the Schneeberg, in such a way as to exclude the basin of the Save and its tributaries from Italian territory. From the Schneeberg the frontier will descend toward the seacoast—Castua, Matuglia, and Volosca being considered as Italian districts.

Art. 5.—Italy will likewise receive the Province of Dalmatia in its present frontiers, including Liserica and Trebigne, (Trebanje), in the north, and all the country in the south up to a line drawn from the coast, at the promontory of Planka, eastward along the water-shed in such a way as to include in the Italian possessions all the valleys of the rivers flowing into the Sebenico—viz., Cikola, Kerka, and Buotisnica—with all their affluents. Italy will likewise obtain all the islands situated to the north and west of the coasts of Dalmatia, beginning with Premuda, Selvo, Ulbo, Skerda, Maob Pago, and Puntadura, and further north, and down to Melada in the south, with the inclusion of the Islands of St. Andrea, Busi, Lissa, Lesina, Torcola, Curzola, Cazza, and Lagosta, with all the adjacent rocks and islets, as well as Pelagosa, but without the Islands of Zirona Grande and Zirona Piccola, Bua, Solta, and Brazza.

The following are to be neutralized: (1) the entire coasts from Planka, in the north, to the southern extremity of the Sabbioncello peninsula, including this last-named peninsula in its entirety; (2) the part of the littoral from a point ten versts south of the promontory of Ragusa Vecchia to the Viosa (Vojuzza) River, so as to include in the neutralized zone the entire Gulf of Cattaro, with its ports of Antivari, Dulcigno, San Giovanni di Medua, and Durazzo; the rights of Montenegro, arising from the declarations exchanged by the two contracting parties as far back as April and May, 1909, remaining intact. Nevertheless, in view of the fact that those rights were guaranteed to Montenegro within her present frontiers, they are not to be extended to those territories and ports which may eventually be given to Montenegro. Thus, none of the ports of the littoral now belonging to Montenegro is to be neutralized at any future time. On the other hand, the disqualifications affecting Antivari, to which Montenegro herself agreed in 1909, are to remain in force; (3) lastly, all the islands which are not annexed to Italy.

Note 2.—The following territories on the Adriatic will be included by the powers of the Quadruple Entente in Croatia, Serbia, and Montenegro: In the north of the Adriatic, the entire coast from Volosca Bay, on the border of Istria, to the northern frontier of Dalmatia, including the entire coast now belonging to Hungary, and the entire

coast of Croatia, the port of Fiume, and the small ports of Novi and Carlopago, and also the Islands of Veglia, Perviccio, Gregorio, Coli, and Arbe; and in the south of the Adriatic, where Serbia and Montenegro have interests, the entire coast from Planka up to the River Drin, with the chief ports of Spalato, Ragusa, Cattaro, Antivari, Dulcigno, and San Giovanni di Medua, with the Islands of Zirona Grande, Zirona Piccola, Bua, Solta, Brazza, Jaklian, and Calamotta.

The port of Durazzo may be given to the independent Mohammedan State of Albania.

Art. 6.—Italy will receive in absolute property Valona, the Islands of Sasseno, and as much territory as would be required to secure their military safety—approximately between the River Voyazza in the north and in the east down to the borders of the Chimera district in the south.

Art. 7.—Italy, having received Trentino and Istria in accordance with Article 4, and Dalmatia and the Adriatic Islands in accordance with Article 5, and the Gulf of Valona, is not, in case of the creation of a small autonomous and neutralized State in Albania, to resist the possible desire of France, Great Britain, and Russia to distribute among Montenegro, Serbia, and Greece the northern and southern parts of Albania. The latter's southern littoral from the frontier of the Italian district of Valona to Capo Stylos is to be neutralized. Italy is to have the right to conduct foreign relations with Albania; at any rate, Italy is to agree to the inclusion in Albania of a territory large enough to allow her frontiers to touch those of Greece and Serbia, west of Ochrida Lake.

Art. 8.—Italy will obtain all the twelve islands (Dodecanese) now occupied by her, in full possession.

Art. 9.—France, Great Britain, and Russia admit in principle the fact of Italy's interest in the maintenance of the political balance of power in the Mediterranean, and her rights, in case of a partition of Turkey, to a share, equal to theirs, in the basin of the Mediterranean—viz., in that part of it which adjoins the Province of Adalia, in which Italy has already acquired special rights and interests defined in the Italo-British Convention. The zone which is to be made Italy's property is to be more precisely defined in due course in conformity with the vital interests of France and Great Britain. Italy's interests will likewise be taken into consideration in case the powers should also maintain territorial integrity of Asiatic Turkey for some future period of time, and if they should only proceed to establish among themselves spheres of influence. In case France, Great Britain, and Russia should, in the course of the present war, occupy any districts of Asiatic Turkey, the entire territory adjacent to Adalia and herewith more specifically defined is to be left to Italy, who reserves her right to occupy it.

Art. 10.—In Libya, Italy is to enjoy all those rights and privileges which now belong to the Sultan in virtue of the Treaty of Lausanne.

Art. 11.—Italy is to get a share in the war indemnity corresponding to the magnitude of her sacrifices and efforts.

Art. 12.—Italy adheres to the declaration made by France, England, and Russia about leaving Arabia and the holy Moslem places in the hands of an independent Moslem power.

Art. 13.—Should France and Great Britain extend their colonial possessions in Africa at the expense of Germany, they will admit in principle Italy's right to demand certain compensation by way of an extension of her possessions in Erythraca, Somaliland, and Libya, and the colonial areas adjoining French and British colonies.

Art. 14.—Great Britain undertakes to facilitate for Italy the immediate flotation on the London market of a loan on advantageous terms to the amount of not less than £50,000,000.

Art. 15.—France, Great Britain, and Russia pledge themselves to support Italy in not allowing the representatives of the Holy See to undertake any diplomatic steps having for their object the conclusion of peace or the settlement of questions connected with the present war.

Art. 16.—The present treaty is to be kept secret. As regards Italy's adhesion to the Declaration of Sept. 5, 1915, this declaration alone will be published immediately on the declaration of war by or against Italy.

Having taken into consideration the present memorandum, the representatives of France, Great Britain, and Russia, being authorized thereto, agreed with the representatives of Italy, likewise authorized thereto, as follows:

France, Great Britain, and Russia express their complete agreement with the present memorandum submitted to them by the Italian Government. In respect of Articles 1, 2, and 3 of the present memorandum, regarding the co-ordination of the military and naval operations of all the four powers, Italy declares that she will actively intervene at an earliest possible date, and, at any rate, not later than one month after the signature of the present document by the contracting parties.

The undersigned have confirmed by hand and seal the present instrument in London in four copies. April 26, 1915.

(Signed) Grey, Cambon, Imperiali, Beckendorff.

—T. N. Page, *Italy and the World War, Appendix II., pp.* 409-412.—See also ITALY: 1915: Treaty of London; FIUME: 1915-1918; ADRIATIC QUESTION: Treaty of London.

LONDON AND NORTHWESTERN RAILWAY. See RAILROADS: 1759-1881.

LONDON BILLS OF MORTALITY. See INSURANCE: Life: Early forms.

LONDON COMPANY, founded 1606 for the purpose of colonization in the New World. See AMERICA: Map of King James' grants.

1606-1626.—Charter and undertakings in Virginia. See VIRGINIA: 1606-1607.

1617-1620.—Unused patent granted to Pilgrims at Leyden. See INDEPENDENTS, OR SEPARATISTS: 1617-1620; MASSACHUSETTS: 1620.

LONDON EAST INDIA COMPANY. See BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY.

LONDON MISSIONARY SOCIETY. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Chronology of European exploration.

LONDON NAVAL CONFERENCE (1909). See LONDON, DECLARATION OF (1909).

LONDONDERRY, Robert Stewart, 2nd Marquis of (Viscount Castlereagh) (1769-1822), British statesman. Entered Irish Parliament, 1790; chief secretary for Ireland, 1798; secretary of state for war and colonial departments, 1805-1806, 1807-1809; foreign secretary, 1812-1822; leading spirit of coalition against Napoleon; delegate to congresses of Chatillon and Vienna, 1814-1815; to congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1818. The "Six acts of 1819" made him very unpopular and Canning's retirement threw the entire burden of the government on him.—See also ENGLAND: 1801-1806, to 1809 (July-December); 1820-1827; BALANCE OF

POWER: British foreign policy; AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 3; VERONA, CONGRESS OF; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

LONDONDERRY (formerly Derry), capital of a county of the same name in Ulster, Ireland. See IRELAND: Historical map.

Origin and name. See IRELAND: 1607-1611.

1609.—Rebuilt by London companies. See ULSTER: 1609-1611.

1689.—Siege.—James II fled in December, 1688, to France, from the Revolution in England which gave the throne to his daughter Mary, and her husband, William of Orange. He received aid from the French king and was landed in Ireland the following March, to attempt the maintenance of his sovereignty in that kingdom. Upon his arrival he led his forces against Londonderry, where Protestants of Ulster had taken refuge, and William and Mary proclaimed. "The city in 1689 was contained within the walls; and it rose by a gentle ascent from the base to the summit of a hill. The whole city was thus exposed to the fire of an enemy. There was no moat nor counterscarp. . . . The reverend George Walker and Major Baker were appointed governors during the siege. They mustered 7,020 soldiers, dividing them into regiments under eight colonels. . . . There were, according to Lundy's estimation, only provisions for ten days. The number of cannon possessed by the besieged was only twenty. On the 20th of April the city was invested, and the bombardment was begun. . . . No impression was made during nine days upon the determination to hold out; and on the 29th King James retraced his steps to Dublin, in considerable ill humour. The siege went on for six weeks with little change. Hamilton was now the commander of James's forces. The garrison of Londonderry and the inhabitants were gradually perishing from fatigue and insufficient food. But they bravely repelled an assault, in which 400 of the assailants fell. . . . At the end of June, Baker, one of the heroic governors, died. Hamilton had been superseded in his command by Rosen, who issued a savage proclamation, declaring that unless the place were surrendered by the 1st of July, he would collect all the Protestants from the neighbouring districts, and drive them under the walls of the city to starve with those within the walls. A famished troop came thus beneath the walls of Londonderry, where they lay starving for three days. The besieged immediately threatened to hang all the prisoners within the city. This threat had its effect, and the famished crowd wended back their way to their solitary villages. It is but justice to James to say that he expressed his displeasure at this proceeding."—C. Knight, *Crown history of England, ch.* 34.—"The state of the city was, hour by hour, becoming more frightful. The number of the inhabitants had been thinned more by famine and disease than by the fire of the enemy. Yet that fire was sharper and more constant than ever. . . . Every attack was still repelled. But the fighting men of the garrison were so much exhausted that they could scarcely keep their legs. Several of them, in the act of striking at the enemy, fell down from mere weakness. A very small quantity of grain remained, and was doled out by mouthfuls. The stock of salted hides was considerable, and by gnawing them the garrison appeased the rage of hunger. Dogs, fattened on the blood of the slain who lay unburied round the town, were luxuries which few could afford to purchase. The price of a whelp's paw was five shillings and sixpence. Nine horses were still alive, and but barely alive. They were so lean that little meat was likely to be found upon them. It was, however, determined to slaughter them for food. . . . The whole city was poisoned by the stench exhaled from the bodies of the dead and of the half dead. . . . It was no slight aggravation of the sufferings of the garrison that all this time the English ships were seen far off in Lough Foyle." At length, positive orders from England compelled Kirke, the commander of the relieving expedition "to make an attempt which, as far as appears, he might have made, with at least an equally fair prospect of success, six weeks earlier." Two merchant ships, the Mountjoy and the Phœnix, loaded with provisions, and the Dartmouth, a frigate of thirty-six guns, made a bold dash up the river, broke the great boom, ran the gauntlet of forts and batteries, and reached the city at ten o'clock in the evening of the 28th of July. The captain of the Mountjoy was killed in the heroic undertaking, but Londonderry, his native town, was saved. The enemy continued their bombardment for three days more. "But, on the third night, flames were seen arising from the camp; and, when the first of August dawned, a line of smoking ruins marked the site lately occupied by the huts of the besiegers. . . . So ended this great siege, the most memorable in the annals of the British isles. It had lasted 105 days. The garrison had been reduced from about 7,000 effective men to about 3,000. The loss of the besiegers cannot be precisely ascertained. Walker estimated it at 8,000 men."—T. B. Macaulay, *History of England, ch.* 12.—See also IRELAND: 1689.

ALSO IN: W. H. Torriano, *William the Third, ch.* 21.

LONDON-PARIS AIR ROUTE. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1918-1921: Air service after World War.

LONE STAR, Order of the. See CUBA: 1845-1860.

LONE STAR FLAG, LONE STAR STATE.—On assuming independence, in 1836, the republic of Texas adopted a flag bearing a single star, which was known as "the flag of the lone Star." With reference to this emblem, Texas is often called the Lone Star State. See TEXAS.

LONG, James, American soldier, of English birth, leader of an abortive invasion into Texas, 1819-1821. See TEXAS: 1799-1821.

LONG, John Davis (1838-1915), American lawyer and political leader. Member of the Massachusetts legislature, 1875-1878; lieutenant-governor, 1879-1880; governor, 1880-1882; member of United States House of Representatives, 1883-1889; secretary of the navy, 1897-1902. See U. S. A.: 1897 (March); 1901-1905.

LONG, Stephen Harriman (1784-1864), American engineer and explorer. See WYOMING: 1650-1807; COLORADO: Pikes Peak.

LONG, Walter Hume, 1st Viscount (1854-), English statesman. Became chief secretary for Ireland, 1905; member of the first and second coalition ministries during the World War; first lord of the admiralty, 1919-1921; became member of the House of Lords, 1921.

LONG ISLAND, in the Atlantic ocean, southeast portion of the state of New York, south of Connecticut, from which it is separated by Long Island Sound.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

1614.—Explored by the Dutch. See NEW YORK: 1610-1614.

1624.—Settlement of Brooklyn See BROOKLYN: 1624.

1634.—Embraced in the Palatine grant of New Albion. See NEW ALBION.

1650.—Division between the Dutch of New Netherland and the English of Connecticut. See NEW YORK: 1650.

1664.—Title acquired for the duke of York. See NEW YORK: 1664; AMERICA: Map of early colonial grants.

1673.—Dutch reconquest. See NEW YORK: 1673.

1674.—In patent of duke of York.—Annexed to New York. See NETHERLANDS: 1674; CONNECTICUT: 1674-1675.

1776.—Defeat of American army by Lord Howe. See U. S. A.: 1776 (August).

LONG ISLAND, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1776 (August).

LONG, or RUMP, PARLIAMENT. See ENGLAND: 1653 (April-December); 1640-1641.

EVOLUTION OF THE LONGBOW AND CROSSBOW

1, Simple crossbow bent by means of the foot. 2, French bow, 14th century. 3, Oriental bow. 4, English bow, 14th century. 5, Bending grooved crossbow by windlass. 6, Great grooved crossbow, with windlass. 7, Claw-foot crossbow. 8, Crossbow bent by lever. 9, Winding crossbow. 10, Crossbow for shooting rod bolts in groove, 17th century. 11, Stone or ball crossbow. 12, Crossbowman protected by shield on back. 13, French archer with longbow in time of King Charles V. 14, French archer in time of King Charles VII. 15, Rotating bolt.

LONG TOM, cannon. See GENERAL ARMSTRONG, CASE OF.

LONG TRAIL. See U. S. A.: 1865-1885.

LONG WALLS OF ATHENS.—The walls which the Athenians built, 457 B. C., one, four miles long, to the harbor of Phalerum, and others, four and one half miles long, to the Piræus, to protect the communication of their city with its port, were called the Long Walls. The same name had been previously given to the walls built by the Athenians to protect the communication of Megara, then their ally, with its port of Nisæa; and Corinth had, also, its Long Walls, uniting it with the port Lechæum. The Long Walls of Athens were destroyed on the surrender of the city, at the termination of the Peloponnesian War, 404 B. C., and rebuilt 393 B. C., by Conon, with Persian help.—See also ATHENS: B. C. 458; B. C. 461-431: General aspect of Periclean Athens; GREECE: B. C. 399-387.

LONGBOW.—As late as the reign of Henry II (1154-1189), the longbow "was not the proper weapon of any class of English society. A similar deduction is suggested by Richard Coeur de Lion's predilection for the arbalest [or arbelest]: it is impossible that he should have so much admired it, and taken such pains to secure mercenaries skilled in its use, if he had been acquainted with the splendid longbow of the fourteenth century. . . . To trace the true origin of the longbow is not easy: there are reasons for believing that its use may have originally been learned from the South Welsh, who seem to have been provided with it as early as the reign of Henry II. Giraldus Cambrensis speaks repeatedly of the men of Gwent and Morganwg as excelling all other districts in archery. For the strength of their shooting he gives some curious evidence. At the siege of Abergavenny in 1182 the Welsh arrows penetrated an oak door four inches thick. They were allowed to remain there as a curiosity, and Gerald himself saw them six years later, in 1188, when he passed by the castle, with the iron points just showing on the inner side of the door. . . . He describes the bows of Gwent as 'neither made of horn, ash, nor yew, but of elm: ugly, unfinished-looking weapons, but astonishingly stiff, large and strong, and equally capable of use for long or short shooting.' It is noticeable that on the first occasion when an English king made really efficient use of archery in a great pitched battle, we are told that his infantry were largely composed of Welshmen. But the first mention of the bow as much used by the English is, curiously enough, not from any district near the South Welsh border, but from Sussex, where in 1216 more than a thousand bowmen under one Wilkin are said to have molested the army of the Dauphin Lewis and the rebel barons as they marched through the Weald. But the great landmark in the history of archery is undoubtedly the 'Assize of Arms' of 1252. After ordering that the richer yeomanry who own a

hundred shillings in land should come to the host with steel cap, buff-coat, lance, and sword, that document proceeds to command 'that all who own more than forty and less than a hundred shillings in land come bearing a sword and a bow with arrows and a dagger.' Similarly, citizens with chattels worth more than nine marks and less than twenty are to be arrayed with bow, arrows, and sword. There is a special clause at the end of the paragraph providing that even poor men with less than forty shillings in land or nine marks in chattels should bring bow and arrows if they have them instead of the *'falces gisarmas et alia arma minuta,'* which are spoken of as their usual weapons. The longbow comes to the front only in the wars of Edward I., and its predominance in later English wars is directly due to the king's own action. Edward had come to realise that more advantage might be got from a judicious combination of cavalry and of infantry armed with missile weapons, than from the use of horsemen alone. We have no signs that he had learned this at the time of Lewes and Evesham, but it appears clearly enough during his Welsh wars."—C. Oman, *History of the art of war, pp.* 559-560.—The longbow dominated English tactics throughout the Hundred Years' War, playing a decisive part at Créçy, Poitiers, Navarette, and Agincourt. With the application of gun powder to the use of small firearms the longbow ceased to be a recognized military weapon in the sixteenth century.

LONGFELLOW, Henry Wadsworth (1807-1882), American poet. See AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1830-1890.

LONGJUMEAU, Peace of (1568). See FRANCE: 1563-1570.

LONGSTREET, James (1821-1904), American general. Served in the Mexican War, 1846-1848; entered the Confederate army at the outbreak of the Civil War; took part in the second battle of Bull Run, Fredericksburg, Antietam, Chickamauga, Gettysburg and the Wilderness campaign; United States minister to Turkey, 1880-1881. See U.S.A.: 1863 (October-December: Tennessee); 1863-1864 (December-April: Tennessee-Mississippi).

LONGUET, Jean (1876-), French socialist. Grandson of Karl Marx; leader of group of Marxian socialists in French chamber of deputies.

LONGUEVAL, town in France, southwest of Bapaume. It was in the region of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: c, 3; d, 8.

LONGUEVILLE, Anne Geneviève de Bourbon-Condé, Duchess of (1619-1679), famous French beauty and politician. Daughter of prince of Condé and sister of the great Condé and prince of Conti; married to the duke of Longueville, 1642; took active part in organizing the first Fronde; spent last years in Carmelite convent, Paris. See also FRANCE: 1649, to 1651-1653.

LONGWY, fortified town in France, thirty-four miles northwest of Metz. It was captured by the Prussians in 1792, 1815 and 1871; by the Germans in 1914. See FRANCE: 1792 (August-September); WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: j.

LÖNNROT, Elias (1802-1884), Finnish philologist. He collected and put together the "Kalevala," Finland's great epic. See FINLAND: 1809-1898; KALEVALA.

LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1863 (October-November: Tennessee).

LOOM, Power. See INVENTIONS: 18th century: Industry; 19th century: Industry.

LOOS, village in France, about two miles northwest of Lens. It was captured by the British from the Germans in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: a, 7; h; i, 3; i, 4; i, 5; j, 1; j, 8; 1917: II. Western front: d, 12.

LOPE DE VEGA. See VEGA CARPIO.

LOPEZ, Carlos Antonio (1790-1862), Paraguayan general. President and dictator of Paraguay from 1844 until his death. See PARAGUAY: 1608-1873.

LOPEZ, Francisco Solano (1826-1870), Paraguayan general. Succeeded his father, Carlos Lopez, as president and dictator of Paraguay, 1862. See PARAGUAY: 1608-1873.

LOPEZ, Narciso (c. 1798-1851), Spanish-American general and filibuster. Led three filibustering expeditions to Cuba, 1849-1851, and was finally captured and shot. See CUBA: 1845-1860.

LORD, William Paine (1838-1911), American diplomat. Governor of Oregon 1895-1899; minister to Argentina, 1899-1903. See ARGENTINA: 1902.

LORD.—"Every Teutonic King or other leader was surrounded by a band of chosen warriors, personally attached to him of their own free choice [see COMITATUS]. . . . The followers served their chief in peace and in war; they fought for him to the death, and rescued or avenged his life with their own. In return, they shared whatever gifts or honours the chief could distribute among them; and in our tongue at least it was his character of dispenser of gifts which gave the chief his official title. He was the 'Hlaford,' the 'Loaf-giver,' a name which, through a series of softenings and contractions, and with a complete forgetfulness of its primitive meaning, has settled down into the modern form of Lord."—E. A. Freeman, *History Norman conquest of England, v.* 1, *ch.* 3, *sect.* 2.—On the Latin equivalent, "Dominus," see IMPERATOR: Final signification.

LORD BROUGHAM'S ACT (1850). See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: England: 1819-1860.

LORD DUNMORE'S WAR. See OHIO: 1774.

LORD HIGH ADMIRAL, Court of the. See COURTS: England: Origin of the court of equity.

LORD HIGH CHANCELLOR, title of the speaker of the House of Lords, England, who is also Lord Keeper of the Great Seal. See CHANCELLOR: British.

LORD LIEUTENANT. See COURTS: England: Supreme Court of Judicature Act.

LORD MAYOR OF LONDON. See LONDON: Population and government.

LORDS, House of. See PARLIAMENT, ENGLISH: Early stages of its evolution; BLACK ROD.

Powers.—Question of supremacy over House of Commons. See ENGLAND: 1906 (April-December); 1909 (April-December); 1910; 1911; 1911 (August 18).

Appellate jurisdiction. See COURTS: England: Origin of the court of equity.

Proposals for reform of constitution. See ENGLAND: 1907-1908.

Bars women from membership. See ENGLAND: 1922 (May-June).

LORD'S DAY ACT, Canada (1906). See SUNDAY OBSERVANCES: Legal institution of a weekly rest day.

LORDS OF ARTICLES. See SCOTLAND: 1326-1603; 1688-1690.

LORDS OF THE CONGREGATION. See SCOTLAND: 1557; 1558-1560.

LORDS OF THE ISLES. See HEBRIDES: 1346-1504; HARLAW, BATTLE OF.

LORENTZ, Henrik Anton (1853-), Dutch physicist. Author of "Theory of Electrons"; winner of Nobel prize for Physics, 1902. See NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1902.

LORENZO DE' MEDICI. See MEDICI, LORENZO DE', THE MAGNIFICENT.

LORETO, Battle at. See ITALY: 1744.

LORIMER, William (1861-), American capitalist. Member of House of Representatives, 1895-1900, 1904-1909; legitimacy of his election to Senate subject of prolonged debate 1908; declared invalid, 1912. See ILLINOIS: 1910-1912.

LORIS-MELIKOV, Michael Tarielovich, Count (c. 1825-1888), Russian general and statesman. Appointed commander of the Russian army in Armenia, 1877; minister of the interior, 1880-1881. See RUSSIA: 1881; 1881-1894.

LORRAIN, Claude of. See GELÉE, CLAUDE.

LORRAINE, province of France, on the northeastern border. In the thirteenth century Lower Lorraine was known as Brabant. Philip the Good of Burgundy incorporated it into his kingdom in 1429. It is now part of Belgium and part of Guelderland, Holland. The rest of the territory, consisting of four departments—the Meuse, Moselle, Meurthe and Vosges (including the towns of Metz and Thionville), was ceded to Germany in 1871 and was part of the Reichland of Alsace-Lorraine until its occupation by the troops of the allied nations in December, 1918. Lorraine was anciently called Lotharingia.

843-870.—Formation and dissolution of the kingdom.—In the division of the empire of Charlemagne among his three grandsons, made by the treaty of Verdun, 843 (see VERDUN, TREATY OF), the elder, Lothaire, bearing the title of Emperor, received the kingdom of Italy, and, with it, another kingdom, named, after himself, Lotharingia —afterwards called Lorraine. This latter was so formed as to be an extension northwestwardly of his Italian kingdom, and to stretch in a long belt between the Germanic dominion of his brother Ludwig and the Francia Nova, or France, of his brother Charles. It extended "from the mouth of the Rhine to Provence, bounded by that river on one frontier, by France on the other."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages, ch.* 1, *pt.* 1, *note.*—"Between these two states [of the Eastern and Western, or Germanic and Gallic Franks] the policy of the ninth century instinctively put a barrier. The Emperor Lothar, besides Italy, kept a long narrow strip of territory between the dominions of his Eastern and Western brothers. . . . This land, having . . . been the dominion of two Lothars, took the name of Lotharingia, Lothringen, or Lorraine, a name which part of it has kept to this day. This land, sometimes attached to the Eastern kingdom, sometimes to the Western, sometimes divided between the two, sometimes separated from both, always kept its character of a border-land. . . . Lotharingia took in the two duchies of the Ripuarian Lotharingia and Lotharingia on the Mosel. The former contains a large part of the modern Belgium and the neighboring lands on the Rhine, including the royal city of Aachen. Lotharingia on the Mosel answers roughly to the later duchy of that name, though its extent to the East is considerably larger."—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe, ch.* 6, *sect.* 1.—See also FRANKS: 814-962; GERMANY: 814-843; BURGUNDY: 843-933.—"Upon on the death of the Emperor Lothair [855] his share of the Carlovingian inheritance, the Kingdom acquired by disobedience, violence, deceit and fraud, sustained further partitions: Lothair's piece of the rent garment was clutched and tattered again and again by his nearest of kin, his three sons, and their two uncles, and the sons and the sons' sons of his sons and uncles, till the lineage ended. . . . The Emperor Lothair had directed and confirmed the partition of his third of the Carlovingian Empire, appointed to him by the treaty of Verdun." His namesake, his second son, Lothair II, received the kingdom called "Lotharingia, Lothierregne, or Lorraine," and which is defined in the terms of modern geography as follows: "The thirteen Cantons of Switzerland with their allies and tributaries, East or Free Friesland, Oldenburgh, the whole of the United Netherlands, all other territories included in the Archbishopric of Utrecht, the Trois Evêchés, Metz, Toul and Verdun, the electorates of Trèves and of Cologne, the Palatine Bishopric of Liège, Alsace and Franche-Comté, Hainault and the Cambresis, Brabant (known in intermediate stages as Basse-Lorraine, or the Duchy of Lohier), Namur, Juliers and Cleves, Luxemburgh and Limburg, the Duchy of Bar and the Duchy which retained the name of Lorraine, the only memorial of the antient and dissolved kingdom. . . . After King Lothair's death [869] nine family competitors successively came into the field for that much-coveted Lotharingia." Charles the Bald, one of the uncles of the deceased king,—he who held the Neustrian or French dominion,—took possession and got himself crowned king of Lotharingia. But the rival uncle, Louis the German, soon forced him (870) to a division of the spoils. "The lot of Charles consisted of Burgundy and Provence, and most of those Lotharingian dominions where the French or Walloon tongue was and yet is spoken; . . . he also took some purely Belgic territories, especially that very important district successively known as Basse-Lorraine, the Duchy of Lohier, and Brabant. Modern history is dawning fast upon us. Louis-le-Germanique received Aix-la-Chapelle, Cologne, Trèves, Utrecht, Strasburgh, Metz,—indeed nearly all the territories of the Belgic and German tongues."—F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England, v.* 1, *pp.* 361-370.

897.—Incorporated into Germany. See BELGIUM: Ancient and medieval period.

911-980.—Dukedom established.—The definite separation of the East Franks, who ultimately constituted the Germany of modern history, from the West or Neustrian Franks, out of whose political organization sprang the kingdom of France, took place in 911, when the Franconian duke Conrad was elected king by the Germanic nations, and the rule of the Carolingian princes was ended for them. In this proceeding Lotharingia, or Lorraine, refused to concur. "Nobles and people held to the old imperial dynasty. . . . Opinions, customs, traditions, still rendered the Lotharingians mainly members of Romanized Gaul. They severed themselves from the Germans beyond the Rhine, separated by influences more powerful than the stream." The Lotharingians, accordingly, repudiated the sovereignty of Conrad and placed themselves under the rule of Charles the Simple, the Carolingian king then struggling to maintain his slender throne at Laon. "Twice did King Conrad attempt to win Lotharingia and reunite the Rhine-kingdom to the German realm: he succeeded in obtaining Alsace, but the remainder was resolutely retained by Charles." In 916 this remainder was constituted a duchy, by Charles, and conferred upon Gilbert, son of Rainier, Count of Hainault, who had been the leader of the movement against Conrad and the Germanic nations. A little later, when the Carolingian dynasty was near its end, Henry the Fowler and his son Otho, the great German king who revived the empire, recovered the suzerainty of Lorraine, and Otho gave it to his brother Bruno, Archbishop of Cologne. Under Bruno it was divided into two parts, Upper and Lower Lorraine. Lower Lorraine was subse-

quently conferred by Otho II upon his cousin Charles, brother to Lothaire, the last of the French Carolingian kings. "The nature and extent of this same grant has been the subject of elaborate critical enquiry; but, for our purposes, it is sufficient to know, that Charles is accepted by all the historical disputants as first amongst the hereditary Dukes of the 'Basse-Lorraine'; and, having received investiture, he became a vassal of the Emperor." In 980, this disposition of Lower Lorraine was ratified by Lothaire, the French king, who, "abandoning all his rights and pretensions over Lorraine, openly and solemnly renounced the dominions, and granted the same to be held without let or interference from the French, and be subjected for ever to the German Empire."—F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England, bk.* 1, *pt.* 2, *ch.* 1, 4, *pt.* 2.—Lotharingia retained its Carolingian princes, but it retained them only by definitely becoming a fief of the Teutonic Kingdom. Charles died in prison, but his children continued to reign in Lotharingia as vassals of the Empire. Lotharingia was thus wholly lost to France; that portion of it which was retained by the descendants of Charles in the female line still preserves its freedom as part of the independent Kingdom of Belgium."—E. A. Freeman, *History of the Norman conquest of England, v.* 1, *ch.* 4, *sect.* 4.

954.—Ravaged by Magyars. See HUNGARY: 934-955.

1214.—In Battle of Bouvines against French. See BOUVINES, BATTLE OF.

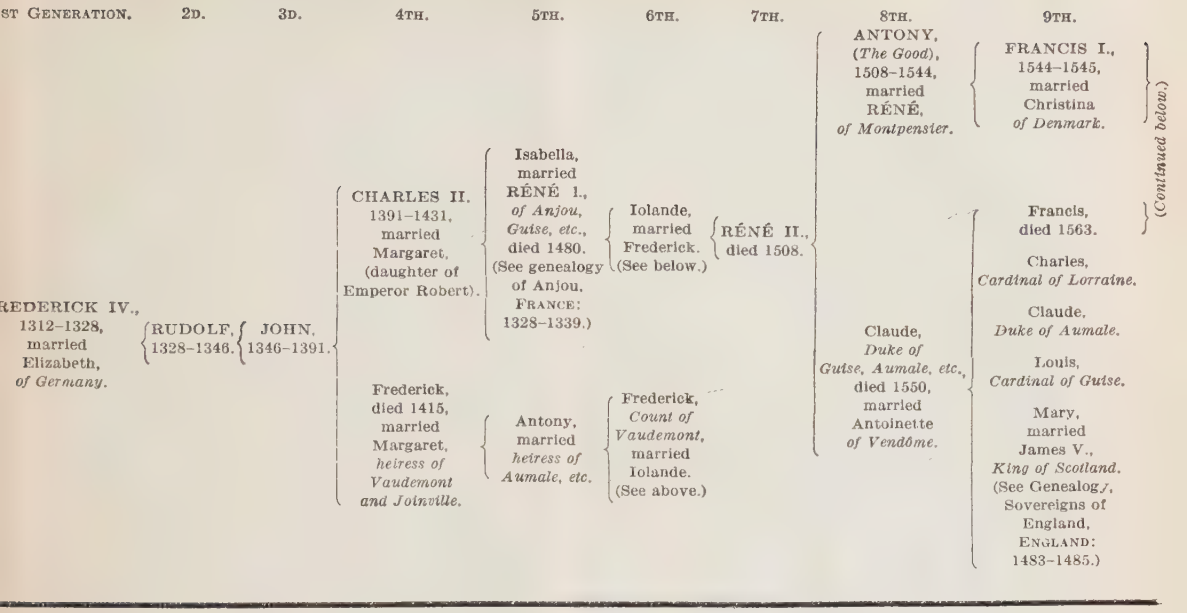
1430.—Acquisition of the duchy by René, duke of Anjou and count of Provence, afterwards king of Naples.—Union with Bar. See ANJOU: 1206-1442.

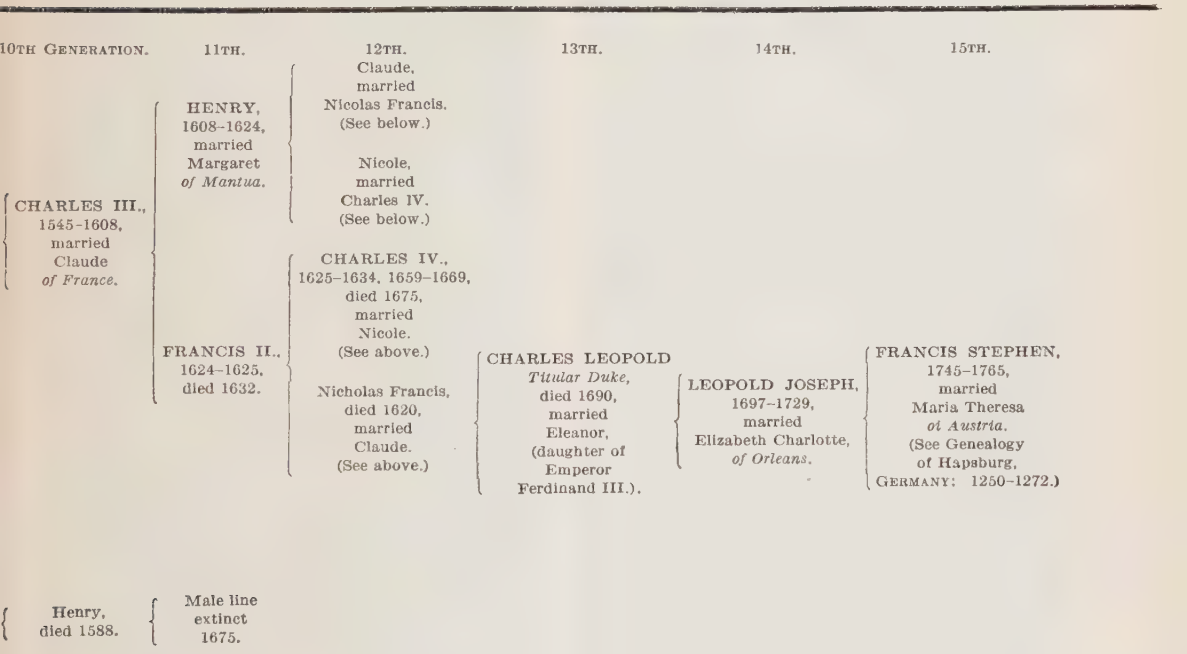
1476.—Short-lived conquest by Charles the Bold. See BURGUNDY: 1476-1477.

1505-1559.—Rise of the Guises, a branch of the ducal house.—Cession to France of Les Trois Évêchés. See FRANCE: 1547-1559.

1624-1663.—Quarrels and war of Duke Charles IV with Richelieu and France.—Ruin and depopulation of the duchy.—Possession by the French.—Early in Richelieu's administration of the French government, the first steps were taken towards the union of Lorraine with France. "Its situation, as well as its wealth and fertility, made it an acquisition specially valuable to that kingdom. . . . Lorraine had long been ruled by the present family of dukes, and in its government more had remained of feudal usages than in the monarchy that had grown up beside it. The character and career of the members of the house of Guise had brought Lorraine into very intimate connection with France, and the closeness of its relations added danger to its position as an independent state. Charles IV. became Duke of Lorraine in 1624 by virtue of the rights of his cousin and wife, the daughter of the last duke. . . . He soon began to take part in the intrigues of the French Court, and he enrolled himself among the lovers of Mme. de Chevreuse and the enemies of Richelieu. . . . Richelieu had long sought occasion for offence against the Duke Charles. The Duke of Lorraine was bound to do honor to the French king for the Duchy of Bar [which was a fief of the French crown, while Lorraine was an imperial fief], a duty which was often omitted, and the agents of Richelieu discovered that France had ancient and valid claims to other parts of his territory. His relations with France were rendered still more uncertain by his own untrustworthy character. To tell the truth or to keep his agreement were equally impossible for Duke Charles, and he was dealing with a man with whom it was dangerous to trifle. Gustavus Adolphus had invaded Germany, and the Duke of Lorraine was eager in defending the cause of the Emperor. In January, 1632, he was forced to make a peace with France, by which he agreed to make no treaty with any other prince or state without the knowledge and permission of the French king. Charles paid no attention to this treaty, and for all these causes in June, 1632, Louis [XIII] invaded his dominions. They lay open to the French army, and no efficient opposition could be made. On June 26th Charles was forced to sign a second treaty, by which he surrendered the city and county of Clermont, and also yielded the possession for four years of the citadels of Stenay and Jametz. . . . This treaty made little change in the condition of affairs. Charles continued to act in hostility to the Swedes, to assist Gaston [Duke of Orleans, the rebellious and troublesome brother of Louis XIII, who had married Margaret of Lorraine, the Duke's sister], and in every way to violate the conditions of the treaty he had made. He seemed resolved to complete his own ruin, and he did not have to wait long for its accomplishment. In 1633 Louis a second time invaded Lorraine, and the Swedes, in return for the duke's hostility to them, also entered the province. Charles' forces were scattered and he was helpless, but he was as false as he was weak. He promised to surrender his sister Margaret, and he allowed her to escape. He sent his brother to make a treaty and then refused to ratify it. At last, he made the most disadvantageous treaty that was possible, and surrendered his capital, Nancy, the most strongly fortified city of Lorraine, into Louis' possession until all difficulties should be settled between the king and the duke, which, as Richelieu said, might take till eternity. In January, 1634, Charles pursued his eccentric career by granting all his rights in the duchy to his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine. The new duke also married a cousin in order to unite the rights of the two branches. . . . Charles adopted the life of a wandering soldier of fortune, which was most to his taste, and commanded the imperial forces at the battle of Nordlingen. He soon assumed again the rights which he had ceded, but his conduct rendered them constantly less valuable. The following years were filled with struggles with France, which resulted in her taking possession of still more of Lorraine, until its duke was entirely a fugitive. Such struggles brought upon its inhabitants a condition of constantly increasing want and misery. . . . It was ravaged by the hordes of the Duke of Weimar and the Swedes [see GERMANY: 1634-1639], and on every side were pillage and burning and murders. Famine followed, and the horrors perpetrated from it were said to be more than could be described. Richelieu himself wrote that the inhabitants of Lorraine were mostly dead, villages burned, cities deserted, and a century would not entirely restore the country. Vincent de Paul did much of his charitable work in that unhappy province. . . . The duke at last, in 1641, came as a suppliant to Richelieu to ask for his duchy, and it was granted him, but on the condition that Stenay, Dun, Jametz, and Clermont should be united to France, that Nancy should remain in the king's possession until the peace, and that the duke should assist France with his troops against all enemies whenever required. . . . Charles was hardly back in his dominions before he chose to regard the treaty he had made as of no validity, and in July he violated it openly, and shortly took refuge with the Spanish army. . . . Thereupon the French again invaded Lorraine, and by October, 1641, practically the whole

THE LATER HOUSE OF LORRAINE.


ST GENERATION.
2D.
3D.
4TH.
5TH.
6TH.
7TH.
8TH.
9TH.
REDERICK IV., 1312–1328, married Elizabeth, of Germany.
RUDOLF, 1328–1346.
JOHN, 1346–1391.
CHARLES II., 1391–1431, married Margaret, (daughter of Emperor Robert).
Isabella, married RÉNÉ I., of Anjou, Guise, etc., died 1480. (See genealogy of Anjou, FRANCE: 1328–1339.)
Iolande, married Frederick. (See below.)
RÉNÉ II., died 1508.
ANTONY, (The Good), 1508–1544, married RÉNÉ, of Montpensier.
FRANCIS I., 1544–1545, married Christina of Denmark.
(Continued below.)
Francis, died 1563.
Charles, Cardinal of Lorraine.
Claude, Duke of Aumale.
Louis, Cardinal of Guise.
Mary, married James V., King of Scotland. (See Genealogy, Sovereigns of England, ENGLAND: 1483–1485.)
Claude, Duke of Guise, Aumale, etc., died 1550, married Antoinette of Vendôme.
Frederick, died 1415, married Margaret, heiress of Vaudemont and Joinville.
Antony, married heiress of Aumale, etc.
Frederick, Count of Vaudemont, married Iolande. (See above.)


10TH GENERATION.
11TH.
12TH.
13TH.
14TH.
15TH.
CHARLES III., 1545–1608, married Claude of France.
HENRY, 1608–1624, married Margaret of Mantua.
FRANCIS II., 1624–1625, died 1632.
Claude, married Nicolas Francis. (See below.)
Nicole, married Charles IV. (See below.)
CHARLES IV., 1625–1634, 1659–1669, died 1675, married Nicole. (See above.)
Nicholas Francis, died 1620, married Claude. (See above.)
CHARLES LEOPOLD Titular Duke, died 1690, married Eleanor, (daughter of Emperor Ferdinand III.).
LEOPOLD JOSEPH, 1697–1729, married Elizabeth Charlotte, of Orleans.
FRANCIS STEPHEN, 1745–1765, married Maria Theresa of Austria. (See Genealogy of Hapsburg, GERMANY: 1250–1272.)
Henry, died 1588.
Male line extinct 1675.

province was in their hands. It so continued until 1663."—J. B. Perkins, *France under [Richelieu and] Mazarin, v. 1, ch. 5.*—"The faithfulness with which he [the Duke of Lorraine] adhered to his alliance with Austria, in spite of threatened losses, formed in the end a strong bond of reciprocal attachment and sympathy between the Hapsburgs and the Princes of Lorraine, which, at a later day, became even firmer, and finally culminated in the marriage of Stephen of Lorraine and Maria Theresa."—A. Gindely, *History of the Thirty Years' War, v. 2, ch. 6, sect. 3.*

1648.—Desertion of the cause of the duke in Peace of Westphalia. See GERMANY: 1648: Peace of Westphalia.

1648.—Extent of territory. See GERMANY: Map: At Peace of Westphalia.

1659.—Restored to the duke with some shearing of territory. See FRANCE: 1659-1661.

1679.—Restoration refused by the duke. See NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

1680.—Entire absorption of Les Trois Evêchés in France with boundaries extended by the chamber of reannexation. See FRANCE: 1679-1681.

1684-1699.—War against Turkey. See HUNGARY: 1683-1699.

1697.—Restored to the duke by Treaty of Ryswick. See FRANCE: 1697.

1735.—Ceded to France.—Reversion of Tuscany secured to former duke. See FRANCE: 1733-1735.

1738-1766.—Control by Polish duke.—Later control by France. See ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1552-1774.

1742.—Aid of Maria Theresa against Prussia. See AUSTRIA: 1742 (January-May).

1744.—Part in War of Austrian Succession. See AUSTRIA: 1743-1744.

1871.—One fifth ceded by France to the German empire. See FRANCE: 1871 (January-May).

1871-1879.—Organization of the government of Alsace-Lorraine as a German imperial province. See GERMANY: 1871-1879; FRANCE: 1871 (January-May).

For the history of Lorraine after 1871, see ALSACE-LORRAINE.

LORRAINE, Dukes of. See GUISE.

LORRAINE, House of: Genealogical table. See LORRAINE.

LOS ANGELES, city in California, county seat of Los Angeles county, on the Pacific coast, 482 miles southeast of San Francisco and 140 miles northwest of the Mexican border. It is the termination of four transcontinental railroads. The population (1921) numbered 590,000. The industries are: fruit-growing and olive-oil refining; also oil-wells. It is the largest lumber import port in the world. The harbor is guarded by a breakwater two and a half miles long, built by the United States for $3,500,000. The water supply is brought to the city from Owen river, Sierra Nevada mountains, by the longest aqueduct in the world (250 miles), completed in 1913 at a cost of $23,000,000, and delivers 258,000,000 gallons daily. It was the first city in the United States to be lighted by electricity and the first city where women exercised the right of voting. Los Angeles was settled by Spaniards in 1781, and named Nuestra Señora La Reina de los Angeles (Our Lady Queen of the Angels). Under Mexican rule it alternated with Monterey as the capital of California.

1781-1846.—Settlement of Pueblo.—Mexican rule.—"The name of Los Angeles is first found in the Mission report of 1773. It is given to the river first named Porzinucula discovered by Portolá's expedition of 1769. This discovery, as recorded by Padre Crespi, was made upon the anniversary of the feast of our Lady of Angels. The Pueblo de Nuestra Señora la Reina de los Angeles was founded in 1781. Till then there had been in the new country only missions and presidios, the military stations; but the settlement of colonies in pueblos was part of the original Spanish plan, and the necessity of obtaining additional supplies for the use of the presidios gave the needed stimulus. Under instructions issued by Governor Néve a site for a dam was first selected, water being then as now a primary essential. The pueblo was placed on high land near these facilities for irrigation, a plaza of two hundred by three hundred varas being laid out, with corners facing the cardinal points, so that three streets should run perpendicularly from each of its four sides, that no street might be swept by the winds. Yet tradition saith that Los Angeles winds have not kept always to the cardinal points. Solares, or house-lots, of twenty by forty varas were given to settlers in numbers equal to the available suertes, field-lots. Two suertes of dry, and two of irrigable land, were given to each family. One fourth of the suertes were left vacant, as realangas or government lands, while a number, called proprios, were reserved for municipal expenses. Colonists received ten dollars a month each, for two years; also regular rations, seeds, clothing, and live stock. Twelve men with their families, including eleven women and twenty-six children, were the colonizers of Los Angeles. They were principally Spanish soldiers. On September 14, 1781, the plaza of the new town was solemnly dedicated by the mission priests, who came in procession from San Gabriel, attended by Indian neophytes and a guard of soldiers. To the twelve settlers, twelve building-lots were given. These were laid out on three sides of the plaza, while the fourth was reserved for a church and public buildings. In 1786 the Governor sent José Arguello to formally renew the leases of houses, lots, and branding-irons. At this time not one settler could sign his name. A small church was erected in 1784. It was but twenty-three by fifty feet in size, and was served by the padres of San Gabriel. One of these, Padre Oumetz, was for thirty years a companion of Serra in his missionary labors. He died at San Gabriel in 1811. It was at least twenty years before Los Angeles ceased to be dependent on San Gabriel and to develop a small trade of its own. . . . In 1822 California became a province of the Mexican Empire; the military office was abolished, the alcaldes were retained, a secretary and treasurer were added, and an elective body, the Ayuntamiento, was established. Thus the government of Los Angeles went on about as it had gone under the rule of Spain. The Ayuntamiento was elected annually until 1839, and proved a most versatile body, constantly changing its political attitudes during the controversies of later years. The mission fathers made little objection to this change of government, but when, in 1824, Mexico became a republic and Alta California its territory, they opposed themselves to the ruling powers. From this time on the Mexican Government pressed its plans of secularization until, in 1834, the ruin of the missions was complete, and that of the gentle Indians, whose rights they had hitherto guarded, was begun. . . . Los Angeles was made not only a city but the capital in 1835, and soon became the storm-centre of the country. There may have been lack of zeal in providing necessary public buildings for the Government, but there was none at all in furnishing abundantly that quality of fiery zeal essential to Mexican revolutions.

Governor Carrillo made the town his residence in 1838. Alvarado succeeded him when the plots and counterplots of the disputacions had sent Carrillo to the North. José Figueroa made an able governor, but he died in 1835, and a period of conflict, during which Los Angeles, as the capital of the South, was arrayed against the North, followed. Alvarado, who had declared California a sovereign state, entered the town in 1837 and subdued the Mexican sympathizers. Two years later Alvarado divided Alta California into two districts, making Los Angeles the capital of the South, with Santiago Arguello as prefect. Great efforts were at this time made to beautify the city, and there were gay scenes in these days in the old pueblo. The owners of the great ranches entertained largely, visiting from house to house, dressing gayly, and engaging in all sorts of equestrian sports. The men lived in their saddles; the women were the gayest and sweetest of hostesses, while they were yet domestic, and brought up large families easily in the free, open-air life which the conditions of fine climate and rich soil made possible."—L. P. Powell, *Historic towns of the western states, pp.* 651-654, 658, 662-664.

1846-1876.—Stockton and Fremont.—Phenomenal growth.—"It was in 1846 when California was rent with the controversy between Castro, representing the military, and Pico, the civil power, and the March Assembly was in session at Los Angeles, that the approach of the forces of the United States, under Stockton and Fremont, forced the contending commanders to unite at Los Angeles in opposition to a common foe. Abel Stearns, the confidential agent of the United States in the South, owned a warehouse in San Pedro. John Forster was made, in 1843, captain of the port; in 1845 Commodore Jones landed here to make his apologies to Micheltorena for his premature raising of the Stars and Stripes at Montery. Here Micheltorena embarked for exile; and here, in 1846, Commodore Stockton disembarked with his sailors for the capture of Los Angeles, having already raised the American flag at Montery. Refusing all the attempts at conciliation offered by Pico and Castro, Stockton united his forces with those of the California battalion under Fremont, who had landed at San Diego, entered Los Angeles, and raised the American flag at 4 P.M. of August 13, 1846. . . . In 1849 San Pedro had the first steamer, the old Gold Hunter, and by 1859 the Senator made three monthly trips. There was now a stage line to San Diego, and overland stages left for the East three times a week. Frequent freight trains passed between the city and Salt Lake, but it was not until the coming of the several railroads that Los Angeles attained its phenomenal growth and became the great city of the South-west. [It was first reached by railroad in 1876]."—L. P. Powell, *Historic towns of the western states, pp.* 665, 666, 674-675.

Also in: J. M. Quinn, *History of California and an extended history of Los Angeles and its environs.*

"LOS VON ROM" MOVEMENT, German agitation against the Catholic church. See Austria: 1899-1900.

LOSANTIVILLE. See Cincinnati: 1788.

LOSE-COAT FIELD, Battle of, or the Battle of Stamford (1470), an insurrection against Edward IV in Lincolnshire, England, under the leadership of Sir Robert Welles, who raised the Lancastrian standard of King Henry. "Sir Robert engaged the royal forces in the neighborhood of Stamford; but when the King's artillery opened fire the greater part of the insurgents flung away their coats and took to flight, leaving their leader a prisoner in the hands of his enemies. The manner in which the rebels were dispersed caused the action to be spoken of as the battle of Lose-coat Field. The defeated knew that they had no mercy to expect, and fled, some of them as far as Scarborough, where several were beheaded. Sir Robert Welles was beheaded the day after the battle. Before his death he made a full confession as to the plan and motives of the insurrection, by which it appeared beyond all doubt that the intention was to have deposed King Edward and made the Duke of Clarence king."—J. Gairdner, *Houses of Lancaster and York, p.* 187.

LOST BATTALION.—A battalion of the 77th Division of the American army (New York City drafted troops) in the World War. While fighting in the Meuse-Argonne region in 1918 it was completely cut off by the Germans, who demanded its surrender, but the battalion, in command of Major Charles W. Whittlesey, held its ground under heavy fire for several days, until connection was again established with the main body of American troops.

LOST CITIES. See Cities, Ancient.

LOST TEN TRIBES OF ISRAEL. See Jews: Kingdoms of Israel and Judah; also Samaria.

LOT, Use of, in election.—The lot is a device whereby the choice of officials is left to chance instead of to appointment or election.

Athens.—"In the time of Clisthenes the use of the lot instead of election was introduced, and continued through the whole period of Athenian freedom. This was not, however, simply an extreme democratic measure, as if every citizen had a right to office and increased his chance by taking it out of the control of the will of others. We should expect will to have the fullest sway in the form of government which was founded on the pleasure of the mass of the people. The lot must rather have been intended to prevent, as far as was possible, political clubs and combinations from interfering with the freedom of elections, and was due to the memory of the factions which had so much harmed Attica. It was so managed that the names only of those who presented themselves for the purpose were taken into account; and so it might happen that important men, like Themistocles or Aristides, might be drawn into the archonship because, when they wished the office, few who confided in them would be candidates against them. The lot, again, secured the state from cabals the more, because the colleges of public officers were often composed of ten or more, and the functions of officers were greatly subdivided. But, with great good sense the Athenians elected, instead of drawing lots for, some of the principal officers, such as the ten generals and the treasurer of the city; nor were they apt to apply the lot in the case of extraordinary and occasional functionaries, such as ambassadors. Upon the whole it seems probable that the lot saved the city-state from some evils, and it is certain that the influence of leading men like Pericles was not impaired by it. But it was a great political error to create by lot the nine archons who had the most important judicial duties to perform, and the importance of the senate would have been advantageously increased by another method of selection."—T. D. Woolsey, *Political science, v.* 2, *pp.* 126-127.—See also Suffrage, Manhood: B.C. 5th century.

Venice.—"The rivalry between the nobles and the industrial classes . . . led in Tuscany to a brief stage of pure gild democracy. To the same antagonism is due the revival of an ancient Greek

mode of election—the choice by lot—to guard the purity of the poll from party intrigue. Venice employed it in its most exaggerated form in the election of the Doge. Thirty members of the Grand Council were first chosen by lot as Lectors. A drawing from thirty wax balls designated nine of these. The nine Lectors, having sworn impartiality, elected forty men from the mass of the citizens. One of the Councillors now sallied forth, attended mass in San Marco, and at the coming forth from mass seized the first boy whom he met and brought him to the palace. The child drew from a hat sufficient wax pellets to indicate twelve of the forty citizens for further service. The twelve elected twenty-five, who were in turn reduced to nine, raised to forty-five, diminished to eleven, enlarged to forty-one who at the end of all things elected the Doge."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes, v.* 1, *pp.* 24-25.

Florence.—The lot was also used in Florence in the 14th century. The system was called the *squittinio*. "The *squittinio* of 1328, first projected in 1323, was an important change. The plan was to entrust to a large committee of official persons and their assessors, the business of determining what citizens were fit to hold office, and then to put the names in a bag or bags ready to be drawn by lot, and kept under watch until the time for drawing came. In 1328, the committee consisted of ninety-eight, and every one was rejected who got only sixty-eight votes out of this number. The bags were put into a coffer, and the coffer was fastened with three locks, one of the keys of which was committed to the captain of the people, and one to the friars of each of two religious houses. The coffer was opened under due regulations three days before the expiration of the term of the actual priors, and a new set were chosen. . . . Bags were provided for the priors, and separate ones for the gonfalonieri of justice and the same process must have been gone through with the *collegi*. So also the councils were chosen by lot, and the names put into the bags for each guild, not at the time when the squittinio for the higher officials was made, but when occasion required."—T. D. Woolsey, *Political science, v.* 2, *pp.* 79-80.—"As employed in Florence, the lot tended still further to democratize the government. Every one of the 136 offices was, after 1323, thrown open to all the qualified citizens named on lists prepared by a quasi-electoral college of the Priori, the Buoni Uomini, the Gonfalonieri, and two representatives of each of the greater Gilds. The names of candidates for office were kept in purses from which the name of the next incumbent was drawn every two months. As no one was reëligible until the end of the list had been reached, a large part of the 150,000 inhabitants of Florence stood an excellent chance of holding some city office."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes, v.* 1, *p.* 25.

LOT AND SCOT. See SCOT AND LOT.

LOTHAIRE I (c. 795-855), Holy Roman emperor, 840-855. Son of Louis the Pious, and grandson of Charlemagne; first ruler of Lorraine. See ALSACE-LORRAINE: 842-1477; FEUDALISM: Continental growth; FRANKS: 814-962; GERMANY: 814-843; LORRAINE: 843-870; VERDUN, TREATY OF (843).

Lothaire II or III, the Saxon (c. 1070-1137), Holy Roman emperor, and king of Germany, 1125-1137. See GUELPHS.

Lothaire (941-986), king of France, 954-986.

LOTHARINGIA. See LORRAINE.

LOTHIAN, name for southeastern Scotland. See SCOTLAND: 10th-11th centuries.

LOTI, Pierre (Louis Marie Julien Viaud) (1850-1923), French novelist. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1921.

LOTTERY, Louisiana state. See LOUISIANA: 1878-1900.

LOTTI, Antonio (c. 1667-1740), Italian operatic composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1650-1739.

LOUBET, Émile François (b. 1838), French statesman. Member of the Chamber of Deputies, 1876-1878; entered the senate, 1885; minister of public works, 1887-1888; president of the council (premier), and minister of the interior, 1892; president of the senate, 1896-1899; seventh president of France, 1899-1906. See FRANCE: 1899 (February-June).

LOUDON, Ernst Gideon, Freiherr von (1717-1790), Austrian general. See GERMANY: 1759 (July-November); 1760; 1761-1762.

LOUGHBOROUGH, Lord. See ROSSLYN, ALEXANDER WEDDERBURN, 1ST EARL OF.

LOUIS, Saint. See LOUIS IX, KING OF FRANCE.

LOUIS I, the Pious (778-840), Holy Roman emperor, 814-840; king of Aquitaine, 781-814; king of the Franks, 814-840. See FRANKS: 814-962; FEUDALISM: Continental growth: FIELD OF LIES; GERMANY: 814-843.

Louis II (825-875), Holy Roman emperor, 855-875.

Louis III (c. 880-c. 928), Holy Roman emperor, 901-905.

Louis IV or V, the Bavarian (c. 1287-1347), Holy Roman emperor, 1314-1347. Duke of Upper Bavaria and count palatine of the Rhine; in conflict with Frederick the Fair for the emperorship; king of Italy, 1327-1347. See GERMANY: 1314-1347; AUSTRIA: 1291-1349; 1330-1364; BAVARIA: 1314; ITALY: 1313-1330.

Louis I (1786-1868), king of Bavaria, 1825-1848.

Louis II (1845-1886), king of Bavaria, 1864-1886.

Louis III (1845-1921), king of Bavaria, 1913-1918.

Louis II, the Stammerer (846-879), king of France, 877-879; king of Aquitaine, 867-879. See FRANCE: 877-987.

Louis III (c. 863-882), king of France, 879-882.

Louis IV (921-954), king of France, 936-954. See VERSAILLES.

Louis V (967-987), king of France, 986-987.

Louis VI, the Fat (1081-1137), king of France, 1108-1137. He was the son of Philip I. See FRANCE: 1108-1180.

Louis VII (c. 1121-1180), king of France, 1137-1180. He was the son of Louis VI; took part in the Second Crusade, 1147-1149. See CRUSADES: 1147-1149; also Map; FRANCE: 1108-1180.

Louis VIII (1187-1226), king of France, 1223-1226. He was the son of Philip Augustus; offered the English crown by the barons in opposition to John, 1216; went to England, but returned in 1217, after the death of John. See ALBIGENSES: 1217-1229.

Louis IX (Saint Louis) (1214-1270), king of France, 1226-1270. He was the son of Louis VIII. Undertook a Crusade, 1248; captured Damietta, 1249; was defeated and captured at Cairo, 1250; liberated and returned to France, 1254; negotiated treaty with Henry III exchanging property, 1259; Crusade against Tunis, 1270; canonized, 1297. See FRANCE: 1226-1270; 1268; ALBIGENSES: 1217-1229; CRUSADES: 1248-1254; 1270-1271: Military aspect of the Crusades: also Map; HISTORY: 20; PARLEMENT OF PARIS; WAGER OF BATTLE.

Louis X (1289-1316), king of France, 1314-1316, and of Navarre, 1305-1316. See FRANCE: 1314-1328.

Louis XI (1423-1483), king of France, 1461-1483. He was the son of Charles VII; destroyed the power of the great nobles, and thereby provoked an uprising led by Charles the Bold of Burgundy, 1465; united the duchy of Burgundy to the crown at the death of Charles, 1477; gained possession of Provence, Anjou and Maine, 1481. See FRANCE: 1461; 1461-1468; 1483; BURGUNDY: 1467-1468; NETHERLANDS: 1466-1468.

Louis XII (1462-1515), king of France, 1499-1515. Gained possession of Brittany through marriage, and possession of Milan, 1499; conquered Naples, 1501; joined the League of Cambrai against Venice, 1508; expelled from Italy, 1513. See FRANCE: 1492-1515; GENOA: 1500-1507; ITALY: 1499-1500; 1501-1504; 1504-1506; 1510-1513; PARIS: 1643-1715; VENICE: 1508-1509.

Louis XIII (1601-1643), king of France, 1610-1643. Began his reign, 1614; chose Richelieu as minister, 1624; destroyed power of Huguenots, 1627-1628; centralized the power into his own hands. See FRANCE: 1610-1619; 1642-1643.

Louis XIV, the Great (1638-1715), king of France, 1643-1715. Had Mazarin as his chief minister until 1661; war with Spain for Spanish Netherlands, 1667-1668; war against Holland, 1672-1678; annexed Strasburg, 1681; revoked Edict of Nantes, 1685; war with England, Netherlands, Spain, Empire and Savoy for the Palatinate, 1688-1698; war of Spanish Succession, 1701-1714. See FRANCE: 1659-1661; 1661; 1689-1690; 1715; ADMIRALTY LAW: 1798; AUSTRIA: 1672-1714; BELGIUM: 1667; ENGLAND: 1668-1670; GERMANY: 1686; HUNGARY: 1660-1664; NETHERLANDS: 1665-1666; 1668; 1672-1674; 1674-1678; PAPACY: 1682-1693; PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1702-1715; ROME: Modern city: 1664; also IRON MASK, MAN IN THE.

Louis XV (1710-1774), king of France, 1715-1774. Joined coalition against Maria Theresa, 1741; hostilities in America with English, 1754; Seven Years' War, 1756; lost Canada and Louisiana by the Treaty of Paris, 1763. See FRANCE: 1715-1723; 1723-1774; 1756-1759; AUSTRIA: 1743-1744; PAINTING: French.

Louis XVI (1754-1793), king of France, 1774-1792. Married Marie Antoinette, 1770; recognized the independence of the United States, 1778; treaty with Great Britain, 1783; France declared a republic, 1792; executed, 1793. See FRANCE: 1774-1788; 1789 (June); 1789 (July): Surrender of authority; 1789 (October): Famine in Paris; 1790-1791: Oath of clergy; 1792 (August-September); 1792 (November-December); 1792-1793 (December-January); 1793 (January).

Louis XVII (1785-c. 1795), titular king of France, 1793-1795. Son of Louis XVI. See FRANCE: 1795 (June-December).

Louis XVIII (Louis le Désiré) (1755-1824), king of France, 1814-1824. Emigrated, 1791; assumed royal title on death of Louis XVII, 1795; ascended throne, 1814; expelled by Napoleon, but restored by allied armies, 1815. See FRANCE: 1814 (April-June); 1814-1815; 1815-1830.

Louis, the German (804-876), king of the East Franks and founder of the German empire. Controlled Bavaria after 843. See FRANKS: 814-962; ALSACE-LORRAINE: 842-1477; GERMANY: 814-843; MORAVIA: 9th century; VERDUN, TREATY OF (843).

Louis, the Child (893-911), king of the East Franks, 900-911. Did not claim the imperial title, but is sometimes called Louis IV. See HUNGARY: 934-955.

Louis I, the Great (1326-1382), king of Hungary and Poland, 1342-1382. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442; BOSNIA: 1376-1391; ITALY (Southern): 1343-1389.

Louis II (1506-1526), king of Hungary and Bohemia, 1508-1526. See HUNGARY: 1487-1526.

Louis, or Luiz I (1838-1889), king of Portugal, 1861-1889. See PORTUGAL: 1824-1889.

Louis I (1339-1384), duke of Anjou and count of Maine, claimant to the throne of Naples. See ITALY (Southern): 1343-1389.

Louis II (1377-1417), duke of Anjou and claimant to the throne of Naples. See ITALY (Southern): 1386-1414.

Louis III (1403-1434), duke of Anjou, claimant to the throne of Naples.

Louis I (1304-1346), count of Flanders and Nevers, 1332-1346. See FLANDERS: 1328.

LOUIS BONAPARTE. See BONAPARTE, LOUIS.

LOUIS NAPOLEON. See NAPOLEON III.

LOUIS OF MALE (1330-1384), count of Flanders. See FLANDERS: 1379-1381.

LOUIS OF NASSAU (1538-1574), Dutch patriot. See NETHERLANDS: 1568-1572; 1573-1574; 1572-1573.

LOUIS PHILIPPE (1773-1850), king of the French, 1830-1848. Estates restored to him at the restoration of the Bourbons to power, 1814; elected by the deputies to the throne at the deposition of Charles X, 1830; deposed, 1848. See FRANCE: 1830-1840, to 1842-1848; TARIFF: 1830-1848.

LOUIS PHILIPPE LAND, south of the South Shetland islands, discovered in 1838. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1819-1838.

LOUIS WILLIAM I (1655-1707), margrave of Baden-Baden. See NETHERLANDS: 1705.

LOUISBOURG, town and port of entry of Cape Breton Island, Nova Scotia, Canada. It commands the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

1720.—Fortification of the harbor. See CAPE BRETON ISLAND: 1720-1745.

1745.—Surrender to New Englanders. See NEW ENGLAND: 1745.

1748.—Restoration to France. See NEW ENGLAND: 1745-1748.

1758.—Capture and destruction by the British. See CANADA: 1758; CAPE BRETON ISLAND: 1758-1760.

LOUISIANA: Geographic description.—Resources.—Louisiana is one of the southern states of the United States, bordering on the Gulf of Mexico. La Salle, in 1683, applied the name "Louisiana," to the territory watered by the Mississippi and its tributaries, and thus dedicated it to Louis XIV. It is bounded on the north by Arkansas and Mississippi, on the east by Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico, and on the west by Texas. The area of the state is 48,506 square miles of which 3,097 are water. Of the water area 1700 square miles are inland lakes; 1060 square miles land locked bays; and 540 square miles are river surface. In 1920 it had a population of 1,798,509. The natural resources of Louisiana are varied. It has very large gas fields, oil producing areas, deposits of rock salt, deposits of sulphur, and the largest virgin hardwood forest left standing in the United States. The annual output from the sulphur deposits constitutes fifty per cent of the world's production. In addition to the minerals named, the state is rich in limestone, marble and potash. Louisiana also ranks as the second state of the Union in lumber production. Out of the total acreage (27,000,000) of the state, about 5,000,000 acres are under cultivation and largely given over to the production of rice, corn, fruits, and sugar. Louisiana, known as the "sugar bowl of the nation," has an annual cane production valued at $45,000,000 which

amounts to three-fourths of all the sugar produced in the United States.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See ADAIS; CREOLE; MUSKOGEAN FAMILY; PAWNEE FAMILY.

General significance of the history.—"The history of Louisiana, including, as it must of necessity in its earlier portions, the whole Mississippi Valley and the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, is seen to be a central episode . . . in the larger history of the migration of the Anglo-Saxon race towards the lure of the West; for in this progress Louisiana stood first as a foreign bulwark against the march of the race and its national development, and then finally served, in its acquisition, as a precedent for the subsequent policy of the country and the very means whereby full territorial expansion was attained and secured and the binding rule of one common government stretched from ocean to ocean."—A. Phelps, *Louisiana, a record of expansion, pp.* 393-394.

1629.—Mostly embraced in the Carolina grant to Sir Robert Heath, by Charles I of England. See AMERICA: 1629.

1682.—Named and possession taken for the king of France, by La Salle. See CANADA: 1669-1687.

1698-1712.—Iberville's colonization.—Separation in government from New France.—Crozat's monopoly.—French territorial claim.—"The court of France had been engaged in wars and political intrigues, and nothing toward colonizing Louisiana had been effected since the disastrous expedition of La Salle. Twelve years had elapsed, but his discoveries and his unfortunate fate had not been forgotten. At length, in 1698, an expedition for colonizing the region of the Lower Mississippi was set on foot by the French king. It was placed under the command of M. d'Iberville, who had been an experienced and distinguished naval commander in the French wars of Canada, and a successful agent in establishing colonies in Canada, Acadie and Cape Breton. . . . With his little fleet of two frigates, rating 30 guns each, and two smaller vessels, bearing a company of marines and 200 colonists, including a few women and children, he prepared to set sail from France for the mouth of the Mississippi. The colonists were mostly soldiers who had served in the armies of France and had received an honorable discharge. They were well supplied with provisions and implements requisite for opening settlements in the wilderness. It was on the 24th day of September, 1698, that this colony sailed from Rochelle." On the 2d of the following March, after considerable exploration of the coast, west from the Spanish settlement at Pensacola, Iberville found the mouth of the Mississippi, being confirmed in the identification of it by discovery of a letter, in the hands of the Indians, which Tonti had written to La Salle thirteen years before. "Soon afterward, Iberville selected a site and began to erect a fort upon the northeast shore of the Bay of Boloxi, about fifteen miles north of Ship Island. Here, upon a sandy shore, and under a burning sun, upon a pine barren, he settled his colony, about 80 miles northeast from the present city of New Orleans. . . . Having thus located his colony, and protected them [by a fort] from the danger of Indian treachery and hostility, he made other provision for their comfort and security, and then set sail for France, leaving his two brothers, Sauvolle and Bienville, as his lieutenants." The following September an English corvette appeared in the river, intending to explore it, but was warned off by the French, and retired. During the summer of 1699 the colonists suffered terribly from the maladies of the region, and M. Sauvolle, first governor of Louisiana, with many others, died. Bienville succeeded Sauvolle in command of the colony. "Early in December following d'Iberville returned with an additional colony and a detachment of troops, in company with several vessels of war. Up to this time, the principal settlement had been at Ship Island and on the Bay of Biloxi; others had been begun at the Bay of St. Louis and on the Bay of Mobile. These were made as a matter of convenience, to hold and occupy the country; for his principal object was to colonize the banks of the Mississippi itself." Iberville now built a fort and located a small colony at a point about 54 miles above the mouth of the river, and about 38 miles below the present city of New Orleans. The next year, having been joined by the Veteran De Tonti with a party of French Canadians from the Illinois, Iberville ascended the river nearly 400 miles, formed a friendly alliance with the Natchez tribe of Indians, and selected for a future settlement the site of the present city of Natchez. "In the spring of 1702 war had been declared by England against France and Spain, and by order of the King of France the headquarters of the commandant were removed to the western bank of the Mobile River. This was the first European settlement within the present State of Alabama. The Spanish settlement at Pensacola was not remote; but as England was now the common enemy, the French and Spanish commandants arranged their boundary between Mobile and Pensacola Bays to be the Perdido River. . . . The whole colony of Southern Louisiana as yet did not number 30 families besides soldiers. Bilious fevers had cut off many of the first emigrants, and famine and Indian hostility now threatened the remainder." Two years later, Iberville was broken in health by an attack of yellow fever and retired to France. In 1708, De Muys was sent out from France to supersede Bienville as governor but died at Havana. Diron d'Artaguette, the new intendant, arrived at Dauphine Island, Feb. 10, 1708, and remained until 1711. After six further years of hardship and suffering, the colony, in 1710, still "presented a population of only 380 souls, distributed into five settlements, remote from each other. These were on Ship Island, Cat Island, at Biloxi, Mobile, and on the Mississippi. . . . Heretofore the settlements of Louisiana had been a dependence on New France, or Canada, although separated by a wilderness of 2,000 miles in extent. Now it was to be made an independent government, responsible only to the crown, and comprising also the Illinois country under its jurisdiction. The government of Louisiana was accordingly placed [1711] in the hands of a governor-general. The headquarters, or seat of the colonial government, was established at Mobile, and a new fort was erected upon the site of the present city of Mobile. . . . In France it was still believed that Louisiana presented a rich field for enterprise and speculation. The court, therefore, determined to place the resources of the province under the influence of individual enterprise. For this purpose, a grant of exclusive privileges, in all the commerce of the province, for a term of 15 years, was made to Anthony Crozat, a rich and influential merchant of France. His charter was dated September 26th, 1712. At this time the limits of Louisiana, as claimed by France, were very extensive. As specified in the charter of Crozat, it was 'bounded by New Mexico on the west, by the English lands of Carolina on the east, including all the establishments, ports, havens, rivers, and principally the port and haven of the Isle of Dauphin, heretofore called Massacre; the River St. Louis, heretofore called Mississippi, from

the edge of the sea as far as the Illinois, together with the River St. Philip, heretofore called Missouri, the River St. Jerome, heretofore called Wabash, with all the lands, lakes, and rivers mediately or immediately flowing into any part of the River St. Louis or Mississippi.' Thus Louisiana, as claimed by France at that early period, embraced all the immense regions of the United States from the Alleghany Mountains on the east to the Rocky Mountains on the west, and northward to the great lakes of Canada."—J. W. Monette, *History of the discovery and settlement of the valley of the Mississippi, v.* 1, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 5.

1699-1763.—Commerce during French régime. —Trade by barter with the Indians.—Traffic in skins.—English rivals.—Commerce between Indians and the Carolinians.—Attempts of Crozat to establish trade in the Illinois country.—Loss of Indian trade of English to French.—"When the French came to the Mississippi valley they found the Indians carrying on trade by means of barter. . . . To the south of the Ohio were the Chickasaw who in their numerous encounters with weaker tribes, secured captives for whom they . . . bartered with other Indians. Slaves and many objects thus passed from tribe to tribe. . . . Moreover the Indians along the Mississippi, before the French arrived, had had some experience in trading with Europeans. The Illinois and other tribes met at Michilimackinac traders from New France with whom they exchanged skins for French merchandise, while the southern Indians made similar exchanges with the Spanish of Pensacola and New Mexico and the English of Carolina. . . . [The French] carried their merchandise to the Indians and exchanged it for bear's oil, corn, beans, horses, furs, slaves and other Indian commodities. In such transfers each party forced upon the other the hardest possible bargain. Where the French traders held practically a monopoly of control in any region they were able to secure fabulous profits from their dealings. . . . The possibility of such unfair exchange, however, came to an end when the English traders entered the field as competitors. The newcomers studied the tastes of the Indians with more care than the French did, and hence were able to offer a more attractive, diversified and richer stock of merchandise. With these two sets of traders in the field, each trying to gain the whole of the trade, the Indians henceforth were able to secure for themselves better returns in trading operations with Europeans. In the French settlements of lower Louisiana, as in those to the northward, barter was always used in exchanges with the Indians. This method of action, however, did not persist among the French themselves in that area. Almost from the foundation of the colony the French here made use of some form of money. . . . During the time of the French and Indian War the Creeks were accused of playing off the French and English against each other in order to secure better bargains in trade. When forced out of this neutrality they went over to the side that seemed to them the stronger. . . . In 1700, Le Sueur [Iberville] . . . bought 3,600 beaver skins and many other pelts, for which he gave in exchange merchandise, including some Brazilian tobacco that was much appreciated by the savages. Trade in beaver was contrary to Le Sueur's grant; but he justified the purchase on the ground that the Indians had pillaged his canoes and that he had taken the pelts in compensation for his losses. The officials of New France, however, asserted that the robbery was preconceived by Le Sueur in order to have an excuse to seize the skins. . . . During the very first year of the existence of the little French settlement on the Gulf of Mexico quite a traffic in skins was established with the traders coming from the upper part of the Mississipi valley. On February 16, 1700, Tonti and others from the Illinois country sold at Biloxi six canoe loads of beaver pelts. . . . This commerce, of an illicit sort, was stimulated by the attitude in New France toward it. But neither length nor the hardships of a voyage to the Gulf were great enough to stop the traffic in question. Therefore both buffalo hides and peltry found their way to that market in prodigious quantity. . . . In 1704, Bienville tried to increase the trade still more by attempting to induce about 110 Frenchmen who were at work in bands of seven or eight in the Missouri region to come down with their peltry. About this time a quarrel broke out among the savages of the Illinois that destroyed Juchereau's post on the Wabash, involving a loss of 13,000 buffalo hides that would have gone to the same market. The peltry trade of the French was further disturbed by hostilities between the Alibamon and Mobile Indians. Louisiana, like New France, had English rivals to reckon with. In 1699, traders of that nationality had given the Indians near the mouth of the Arkansas guns and other presents in order to alienate them from the French and especially from the Jesuits. . . . These Englishmen, however, were evidently not the first visitors of their kind to the valley. Delisle's map of 1701 shows Carolina trade routes as far west as the Chickasaw, and on a map of 1703 the Tennessee river is marked as the chief thoroughfare. Carolinians in fact were much ahead of their northern neighbors in crossing the mountains. It is claimed that they were trading with the Indians on the Cumberland and Tennessee when La Salle made the discovery of the mouth of the Mississippi, and that by 1700 were passing down these rivers to the Ohio, Wabash and Mississippi. . . . The influence exercised by the Carolinians over a number of tribes in the lower Mississippi valley led them to believe it possible to control all, hence, July 10, 1708, the Board of Trade was informed that all the Indians of the 'back country' could be made English subjects by placing the Yassas and other friendly tribes on the Cussate river, and by building a few small forts on the frontier where English merchandise could be stored. . . . Meanwhile the Cherokee, instigated no doubt by the English, becoming hostile, killed two French traders. In order to defend themselves and their Indian allies, accordingly, the French, in 1710 or 1711, built Fort Massac on the Ohio river. The patent of Crozat gave him an exclusive right of trade in all peltry, except beaver, which was reserved to New France. . . . The trade carried on by the new régime was not destined to prosper because the officials offered such low prices, —fifty sols for bear skins and fifteen for deer skins, —that most of the peltry either passed into the hands of the English or up to New France. Traders who formerly brought many skins to Mobile did so no longer, and declared that while Crozat remained in control of affairs they would continue to stay away. Moreover the official price demanded for Indian goods robbed them of all their profits. . . . The work of Crozat's traders in the Illinois country was interrupted by the hostilities of the Natchez who, in 1714, began to kill them in order to secure their merchandise. Notwithstanding the danger they encountered in going up and down the Mississippi, they made some headway in the traffic from their post of Charville on the Tennessee river. . . . Since the friendship of the Choctaw had already been gained, attention was then given to winning over as many as possible

of the Chickasaw. . . . The English traders held large debts against many of the Indians. For payment they seized the chickens and hogs, reaped the fields and took away the crops of grain and peas. Moreover they forced the natives to carry heavy burdens for them over long distances. When the savages protested they were cruelly beaten and otherwise treated in a most brutal manner, a course of behavior that caused the Indians to retaliate in kind. The French were not slow to take advantage of this break between the English and their savage allies. Soon they had won over the Chickasaw, Alibamon, Jalipoosa, Abicaw, and some other tribes that had been trading with the English for thirty years. The Carolinians naturally were alarmed at such a possibility of losing their entire hold on the western traffic which was variously estimated at from £1,000 to £6,000 sterling a year reckoned in terms of cloth, guns, powder, bullets and ironware that were exchanged for buck skins, deer skins, and other peltry. Further distress was caused by the fact that about 200 persons who were occupied wholly in the Indian trade were thrown out of employment."—N. M. Surrey, *Commerce of Louisiana during the French régime, pp.* 97-101, 336-344.—See also Missouri: 1700-1800; Illinois: 1700-1750.

1713-1717.—Governors Cadillac and De l'Épinay.—"In May, 1713, the *Baron de Lafosse* arrived with supplies for the colonists and merchandise for Crozat. Among the passengers was Lamothe Cadillac, who had been appointed governor of the colony. Bienville was named 'commandant of the Mississippi and its tributaries,' and was second in command. . . . Lamothe Cadillac was the founder of Detroit, and had been a favorite of Frontenac. He was a man of courage and ability, and had been a successful pioneer, but his career in Louisiana was a failure. . . . The governor sent gloomy reports about everything in the settlement, and had visions of mineral wealth continually before his eyes. Nothing of great importance occurred during his administration, except the first Natchez war in 1716. . . . Crozat did not approve of Lamothe Cadillac's administration, and he was removed from office in the autumn of 1716. Bienville was to be in command until the arrival of De l'Épinay, Cadillac's successor. The new governor arrived in the colony on March 9, 1717, accompanied by Hubert as intendant or *commissaire ordonnateur.* Strange to say, De l'Épinay and his intendant agreed perfectly well, but discord reigned, nevertheless, in the colony. Bienville had received the cross of Saint Louis, but he was disappointed at not being appointed governor, and he and his friends formed a party in opposition to De l'Épinay and Hubert."—A. Fortier, *History of Louisiana, v.* 1, *pp.* 57, 60-63.

1717-1718.—Crozat's failure and John Law's Mississippi bubble.—Use of negroes as slaves.—Bienville appointed governor.—Founding of New Orleans.—"Crozat's failure was, in the nature of things, foreordained. His scheme, indeed, proved a stumbling-block to the colony and a loss to himself. In five years (1717) he was glad to surrender his monopoly to the crown. From its ashes sprung the gigantic Mississippi Scheme of John Law, to whom all Louisiana, now including the Illinois country, was granted for a term of years. Compared with this prodigality Crozat's concession was but a plaything. It not only gave Law's Company proprietary rights to the soil [and a trade monopoly for twenty five years], but power was conferred to administer justice, make peace or war with the natives, build forts, levy troops and with consent of the crown to appoint such military governors as it should think fitting. These extraordinary privileges were put in force by a royal edict, dated in September, 1717. The new company [the "Western Company," later called "La Compagnie des Indes"] granted lands along the river to individuals or associated persons, who were sometimes actual emigrants, sometimes great personages who sent out colonists at their own cost, or again the company itself undertook the building up of plantations on lands reserved by it for the purpose."—S. A. Drake, *Making of the Great West, p.* 126.—"For these and other considerations the company obligated itself to bring into the colony during the life of its franchise at least 6000 white people and 3000 negroes. The shares of the company were 'guaranteed' by its assets. These were: first, the supposedly inexhaustible mineral treasures of Louisiana; secondly, the fabulous wealth of its soil, which was at that time not known at all, as 'nothing could be grown on the sandy soil of the gulf coast,' the only part then inhabited; and, thirdly, the immense revenues to be derived from the trade monopoly. In order to develop all these sources of wealth to their fullest capacity, agriculture was now also to be introduced on a grand scale. For this purpose large tracts of land concessions, were now given to such rich men in France as would obligate themselves to bring the necessary number of people from Europe to till the soil. . . . As a shrewd business man, . . . John Law knew that, to make his venture a success, he needed not only capital but also people able and willing to toil for him; and, as he knew from the reports of the former governors how little adapted to agriculture the former French colonists had proven themselves, he resolved to engage for his own concessions Germans from the country on both sides of the river Rhine, and from Switzerland."—J. H. Deiler, *Settlement of the German coast of Louisiana and the Creoles of German Descent, pp.* 10-11.—"One colony of Alsatians was sent out by Law to begin a plantation on the Arkansas. Others, more or less flourishing, were located at the mouth of the Yazoo, Natchez and Baton Rouge. All were agricultural plantations, though in most cases the plantations themselves consisted of a few poor huts covered with a thatch of palm-leaves. The earliest forts were usually a square earthwork, strengthened with palisades about the parapet. The company's agricultural system was founded upon African slave labor. Slaves were brought from St. Domingo or other of the West India islands. . . . Their labor cost no more than their maintenance. . . . Self-interest stifled conscience. The new company wisely appointed Bienville governor. Three ships brought munitions, troops, and stores of every sort from France, with which to put new life into the expiring colony. It was at this time (February, 1718) that Bienville began the foundation of the destined metropolis of Louisiana. The spot chosen by him was clearly but a fragment of the delta which the river had been for ages silently building of its own mud and driftwood. It had literally risen from the sea. Elevated only a few feet above sea-level, threatened with frequent inundation, and in its primitive estate a cypress swamp, it seemed little suited for the abode of men, yet time has confirmed the wisdom of the choice. Here, then, a hundred miles from the Gulf, on the alluvial banks of the great river, twenty-five convicts and as many carpenters were set to work clearing the ground and building the humble log cabins, which were to constitute the capital, in its infancy. The settlement was named New Orleans, in honor of the Regent, Orleans, who ruled France during the minority of Louis XV."—S. A. Drake, *Making of*

the Great West, pp. 126-128.—See also FRANCE: 1717-1720.

ALSO IN: A. McF. Davis, *Canada and Louisiana (Narrative and critical history of America, v.* 5, *ch.* 1.)—A. Thiers, *Mississippi bubble, ch.* 3-8.—C. Mackay, *Memoirs of extraordinary popular delusions, v.* 1, *ch.* 1.

1719-1750.—Surrendered to the crown.—Massacre of French by the Natchez, and destruction of that tribe.—Unsuccessful war with Chicasaws.—"The same prodigality and folly which prevailed in France during the government of John Law, over credit and commerce, found their way to his western possessions; and though the colony then planted survived, and the city then founded became in time what had been hoped,—it was long before the influence of the gambling mania of 1718-19-20 passed away. Indeed the returns from Louisiana never repaid the cost and trouble of protecting it, and, in 1732, the Company asked leave to surrender their privileges to the crown, a favor which was granted them [and Louisiana became again a royal province]. But though the Company of the West did little for the enduring welfare of the Mississippi valley, it did something; the cultivation of tobacco, indigo, rice, and silk, was introduced, the lead mines of Missouri were opened, though at vast expense and in hope of finding silver; and, in Illinois, the culture of wheat began to assume some degree of stability and of importance. In the neighborhood of the river Kaskaskia, Charlevoix found three villages, and about Fort Chartres, the headquarters of the Company in that region, the French were rapidly settling. All the time, however, during which the great monopoly lasted, was, in Louisiana, a time of contest and trouble. The English, who, from an early period, had opened commercial relations with the Chickasaws, through them constantly interfered with the trade of the Mississippi. Along the coast, from Pensacola to the Rio del Norte, Spain disputed the claims of her northern neighbor: and at length the war of the Natchez struck terror into the hearts of both white and red men. Amid that nation . . . D'Iberville had marked out Fort Rosalie [on the site of the present city of Natchez], in 1700, and fourteen years later its erection had been commenced. The French, placed in the midst of the natives, and deeming them worthy only of contempt, increased their demands and injuries until they required even the abandonment of the chief town of the Natchez, that the intruders might use its site for a plantation. The inimical Chickasaws heard the murmurs of their wronged brethren, and breathed into their ears counsels of vengeance; the sufferers determined on the extermination of their tyrants. On the 28th of November, 1729, every Frenchman in that colony died by the hands of the natives, with the exception of two mechanics: the women and children were spared. [See also NATCHESAN FAMILY.] It was a fearful revenge, and fearfully did the avengers suffer for their murders. Two months passed by, and the French and Choctaws in one day took 60 of their scalps; in three months they were driven from their country and scattered among the neighboring tribes; and within two years the remnants of the nation, chiefs and people, were sent to St. Domingo and sold into slavery. So perished this ancient and peculiar race, in the same year in which the Company of the West yielded its grants into the royal hands. When Louisiana came again into the charge of the government of France, it was determined, as a first step, to strike terror into the Chickasaws, who, devoted to the English, constantly interfered with the trade on the Mississippi. For this purpose the forces of New France, from New Orleans to Detroit, were ordered to meet in the country of the inimical Indians, upon the 10th of May, 1736, to strike a blow which should be final." D'Artaguette, governor of Illinois, was promptly at the rendezvous, with a large force of Indians, and a small body of French, but Bienville, from the southern province, proved dilatory. After waiting ten days, D'Artaguette attacked the Chickasaws, carried two of their defenses, but fell and was taken prisoner in the assault of a third; whereupon his Indian allies fled. Bienville, coming up five days afterwards, was repulsed in his turn and retreated, leaving D'Artaguette and his captive companions to a fearful fate. "Three years more passed away, and again a French army of nearly 4,000 white, red and black men, was gathered upon the banks of the Mississippi, to chastise the Chickasaws. From the summer of 1739 to the spring of 1740, this body of men sickened and wasted at Fort Assumption, upon the site of Memphis. In March of the last named year, without a blow struck, peace was concluded, and the province of Louisiana once more sunk into inactivity. Of the ten years which followed we know but little that is interesting."—J. H. Perkins, *Annals of the west, pp.* 61-63.

ALSO IN: M. Dumont, *Historical memoirs (French's Historical collections of Louisiana, pt.* 5).—C. Gayarre, *Louisiana; its colonial history and romance, 2d series, lect.* 5-7.—S. G. Drake, *Aboriginal races of North America, bk.* 4, *ch.* 5.

1724-1764.—Governors during French colonization.—Bienville was recalled to France in 1724. Boisbriant became governor *ad interim.* Bienville's enemies succeeded in bringing about his downfall. His services, from 1698 to 1724, had been great. . . . It was he who invited the Ursuline nuns to New Orleans, and who established the first girls' school and the first hospital. Shortly before the end of his last administration he asked of the French government the establishment of a Jesuits' college for boys in New Orleans, but did not succeed in his efforts. . . . Bienville's successor, Périer, arrived in New Orleans in October, 1726. . . . De la Chaise, the commissary, had been the chief cause of Boisbriant's fall, and when Périer reached Louisiana he met with no opposition from the partisans of Bienville. . . . The colony had prospered considerably since 1717, and the population had increased from about six hundred whites and twenty negroes to five thousand whites and two thousand negroes. Agriculture was also in a flourishing condition. The chief crops were indigo and tobacco; cotton also was cultivated, but on a small scale. Commerce was languishing and had to be encouraged in 1732 by a decree that exempted from duties all goods sent from France to Louisiana and from Louisiana to France. In the same year (1732) the Superior Council of the colony was reorganized as follows: Périer, governor; Salmon, *commissaire ordonnateur.* . . . A little later Bienville was again appointed governor, and he arrived in New Orleans in the beginning of 1733. The colonists received him with joy; but this distinguished man met with great disasters in his last wars with the Indians. Périer does not appear to have shown sufficient tact in his dealings with the savages, and he treated them . . . with unnecessary harshness. His successor, Bienville, found the important tribe of the Chickasaws dissatisfied with the French, and war could hardly be avoided. . . . In May, 1743, Bienville left Louisiana forever; he had devoted many years to the establishment of the colony. . . . His successor was the Marquis de Vaudreuil, who ar-

rived in Louisiana on May 10, 1743. . . . He undertook an expedition against the Chickasaws in 1752, but accomplished little besides burning and devastating their country. The Marquis, however, remained in high favor at court, and was promoted in 1752 to the governorship of Canada. . . . In 1752 Macarty took command of Fort Chartres of the Illinois, which district comprised six villages: Kaskaskia, Fort Chartres, Caokias, Prairie des Rochers, St. Philip, and Ste. Géneviève. In 1754, Colonel Washington surprised the French under Jumonville near the Great Meadows, and the latter was killed. His brother, Louis Coulon de Villiers, was sent by Contre-Cœur, commandant at Fort Duquesne, to avenge Jumonville's death. De Villiers attacked Washington at Fort Necessity, and forced him to capitulate on July 4, 1754. Bossu, a French officer stationed in Louisiana, wrote from New Orleans on July 1, 1751, that Governor Vaudreuil received very hospitably the troops that had come from France. . . . Bossu regrets very much the departure of the Marquis de Vaudreuil [who had been succeeded by Kerlérec], and mentions in no flattering terms the latter's successor . . . who arrived in New Orleans on February 3, 1753. . . . During Kerlérec's administration there had been great discord in the colony, between the Capuchins and the Jesuits, and between the governor and the royal commissary, Rochemore. The latter brought charges against Kerlérec; an investigation was ordered, and [a] . . . damaging report against the governor was made. . . . On the arrival [1763] of d'Abbadie [the new governor], Kerlérec departed for France, where he was thrown into the Bastille. He was liberated some time afterward and died in 1770. He had rendered great services in the French navy before he became governor of Louisiana. In spite of the report against him, it is not now believed that he was dishonest. The probability is, that, at the time of the governor's downfall, Rochemore was more powerful at court than Kerlérec. . . . In October, 1764, Director-General d'Abbadie received an official communication announcing the cession to Spain and ordering the transfer of the province to the Spanish officials. . . . Louisiana, therefore, was to pass from the domination of Louis XV to that of Charles III. Had it not been that they were handed over like cattle by one master to another, the Louisianians should have felt relieved to be no longer the subjects of the infamous King who had been the cause of the disasters of his country. . . . On June 15, 1764, Nyon de Villiers, commandant at the Illinois, after waiting a long time for the arrival of the British, left the country ceded to the latter, and arrived in New Orleans on July 2, with six officers, sixty-three soldiers, and eighty civilians, including the women and the children. The savages were very hostile to the British, and it was not till 1765 that they took possession of Fort Chartres. . . . On February 4, 1765, d'Abbadie died, greatly regretted by every one in Louisiana, and Aubry succeeded him as commandant or governor."—A. Fortier, *History of Louisiana, v.* 1, *pp.* 101, 103-104, 118-119, 130-131, 133-135, 144-146, 150-151.

1728.—Casket girls.—Wives for the colonists.—"In the beginning of 1728 there came a vessel of the company with a considerable number of young girls, who had not been taken, like their predecessors, from houses of correction. The company had given to each of them a casket containing some articles of dress. From that circumstance they became known in the colony under the nickname of the 'filles à la cassette,' or 'the casket girls.' . . . Subsequently, it became a matter of importance in the colony to derive one's origin from the casket girls, rather than from the correction girls."—C. Gayarre, *Louisiana; its colonial history and romance, p.* 396.

1755.—Settlement of exiled Acadians. See Nova Scotia: 1755.

1762.—Divided into upper and lower districts.—Government of upper Louisiana. See Missouri: 1762-1803.

1762-1766.—Treaty of Fontainebleau.—Cession to England by Treaty of Paris.—Ulloa, first Spanish governor.—"On November 3, 1762, by an act passed at Fontainebleau and signed by Choiseul for France and by Grimaldi for Spain, Louis XV, 'by the pure effect of the generosity of his heart, and on account of the affection and friendship' which he felt for his cousin, Charles III of Spain, made to the latter a gift of 'the country known by the name of Louisiana, as well as New Orleans and the island in which that city is situated.' The King of Spain accepted the gift on November 13, 1762. . . . The treaty of Fontainebleau was kept secret; and on February 10, 1763, the shameful treaty of Paris was signed. France ceded to Great Britain, by article seven, the river and port of Mobile and all the possessions on the left bank of the Mississippi, with the exception of the town of New Orleans and the island in which it is situated. Spain, in its turn, ceded to Great Britain the province of Florida, with the fort of St. Augustine, and all the country to the east and southeast of the Mississippi. Havana was returned to Spain, and Guadeloupe and Martinique to France. [See also Seven Years' War: Treaties.] The King of France continued to act as the possessor of Louisiana, since the treaty of Fontainebleau of November 3, 1762, was still kept secret. . . . On July 10, 1765 . . . Don Antonio de Ulloa wrote from Havana to Aubry that he had been appointed governor of Louisiana by the King of Spain. He arrived in New Orleans on March 5, 1766."—A. Fortier, *History of Louisiana, v.* 1, *pp.* 143-144, 159, 179.

1766-1768.—Spanish occupation and the revolt against it.—Short-lived republic of New Orleans.—O'Reilly appointed governor.—"Spain accepted Louisiana [west of the Mississippi, with New Orleans] with reluctance, for she lost France as her bulwark, and, to keep the territory from England, assumed new expenses and dangers." When the secret treaty of Fontainebleau became known in 1764, the people of Louisiana were deeply distressed. "Its inhabitants loved the land of their ancestry; by every law of nature and human freedom, they had the right to protest against the transfer of their allegiance." Their protests were unavailing, however, and their appeals met the response: "France cannot bear the charge of supporting the colony's precarious existence." In March, 1766, Antonio de Ulloa [first Spanish military governor] arrived at New Orleans from Havana, to take possession for the Spanish king. "Ulloa landed with civil officers, three capuchin monks, and 80 soldiers. His reception was cold and gloomy. He brought no orders to redeem the seven million livres of French paper money, which weighed down a colony of less than 6,000 white men. The French garrison of 300 refused to enter the Spanish service, the people to give up their nationality, and Ulloa was obliged to administer the government under the French flag by the old French officers, at the cost of Spain. In May of the same year, the Spanish restrictive system was applied to Louisiana; in September, an ordinance compelled French ves-

sels having special permits to accept the paper currency pay for their cargoes, at an arbitrary tariff of prices. . . . The ordinance was suspended, but not till the alarm had destroyed all commerce. Ulloa retired from New Orleans to the Balise. Only there, and opposite Natchez, and at the river Iberville, was Spanish jurisdiction directly exercised. This state of things continued for a little more than two years. But the arbitrary and passionate conduct of Ulloa, the depreciation of the currency with the prospect of its becoming an almost total loss, the disputes respecting the expenses incurred since the session of 1762, the interruption of commerce, a captious ordinance which made a private monopoly of the traffic with the Indians, uncertainty of jurisdiction and allegiance, agitated the colony from one end to the other. It was proposed to make of New Orleans a republic, like Amsterdam or Venice, with a legislative body of 40 men, and a single executive. The people of the country parishes crowded in a mass into the city, joined those of New Orleans, and formed a numerous assembly, in which Lafrénière, John Milhet, Joseph Milhet, and the lawyer Doucet were conspicuous. . . . On the 25th of October, 1768, they adopted an address to the superior council, written by Lafrénière and Caresse, rehearsing their griefs; and, in their petition of rights, they claimed freedom of commerce with the ports of France and America, and the expulsion of Ulloa from the colony. The address, signed by 500 or 600 persons, was adopted the next day by the council; . . . when the French flag was displayed on the public square, children and women ran up to kiss its folds, and it was raised by 900 men, amid shouts of 'Long live the king of France! we will have no king but him.' Ulloa retreated [1768] to Havana, and sent his representations to Spain. The inhabitants elected their own treasurer and syndics, sent envoys to Paris, . . . and memorialized the French monarch to stand as intercessor between them and the Catholic king, offering no alternative but to be a colony of France or a free commonwealth."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States, v.* 3, *pp.* 316-318.—"Ulloa was a man of merit, a distinguished savant, but lacking in tact as commander of a people opposed to a change of rulers. . . . He was a distinguished traveler and scientist, and established in Spain the first cabinet of natural history and the first laboratory of metallurgy. . . . He wrote several works, among which were 'Historical Voyages in South America,' 'American Notes: Physico-historical Discourses on South America and on the East of North America,' and 'Observations taken at Sea of an Eclipse of the Sun.' His utter failure as governor of Louisiana proves that he was better fitted to be a writer of scientific subjects than the administrator of a province in a period of transition from one domination to another. . . . At the very moment of Ulloa's expulsion the Spanish government seemed inclined to take possession of the colony in a more determined manner, and Urissa, who had been appointed intendant of Louisiana, had arrived at Havana with eight hundred soldiers destined for the new Spanish colony, and was to carry there one million dollars for the King's service. . . . When the news of the events of October, 1768, reached Spain, it was decided by the Council of the King that the authority of His Catholic Majesty should be maintained and troops be sent to subdue the insurgents. Don Alexandro O'Reilly was appointed governor and captain-general of the province."—A. Fortier, *History of Louisiana, v.* 1, *pp.* 161, 174, 207-208.

Also in: M. Thompson, *Story of Louisiana, ch.* 4.—C. Gayarré, *History of Louisiana: French domination, v.* 2, *lect.* 3-6.

1769.—Spanish authority established by "Cruel O'Reilly."—Appointment of Unzaga as governor.—"It was the fate of the Creoles—possibly a climatic result—to be slack-handed and dilatory. Month after month followed the October uprising without one of those incidents that would have succeeded in the history of an earnest people. In March, 1769, Foucault [French intendant] covertly deserted his associates, and denounced them, by letter, to the French cabinet. In April the Spanish frigate sailed from New Orleans. Three intrepid men (Loyola, Gayarre, and Navarro), the governmental staff which Ulloa had left in the province, still remained, unmolested. Not a fort was taken, though it is probable not one could have withstood assault. Not a spade was struck into the ground, or an obstruction planted, at any strategic point, through that whole 'Creole' springtime which stretches in its exuberant perfection from January to June. . . . One morning toward the end of July, 1769, the people of New Orleans were brought suddenly to their feet by the news that the Spaniards were at the mouth of the river in overwhelming force. There was no longer any room to postpone choice of action. Marquis, the Swiss captain, with a white cockade in his hat (he had been the leading advocate for a republic), and Petit, with a pistol in either hand, came out upon the ragged, sunburnt grass of the Place d'Armes and called upon the people to defend their liberties. About 100 men joined them; but the town was struck motionless with dismay; the few who had gathered soon disappeared, and by the next day the resolution of the leaders was distinctly taken, to submit. But no one fled. . . . Lafrénière, Marquis, and Milhet descended the river, appeared before the commander of the Spaniards, and by the mouth of Lafrénière in a submissive but brave and manly address presented the homage of the people. The captain-general in his reply let fall the word seditious. Marquis boldly but respectfully objected. He was answered with gracious dignity and the assurance of ultimate justice, and the insurgent leaders returned to New Orleans and to their homes. The Spanish fleet numbered 24 sail. For more than three weeks it slowly pushed its way around the bends of the Mississippi, and on the 18th of August it finally furled its canvas before the town. Aubry [commanding the small force of French soldiers which had remained in the colony under Spanish pay] drew up his French troops with the colonial militia at the bottom of the Place d'Armes, a gun was fired from the flagship of the fleet, and Don Alexandro O'Reilly, accompanied by 2,600 chosen Spanish troops, and with 50 pieces of artillery, landed in unprecedented pomp, and took formal possession of the province. On the 21st, twelve of the principal insurrectionists were arrested. . . . Villeré [a planter of prominence] either 'died raving mad on the day of his arrest,' as stated in the Spanish official report, or met his end in the act of resisting the guard on board the frigate where he had been placed in confinement. Lafrénière [former attorney-general and leader of the revolt], Noyan [a young ex-captain of cavalry], Caresse [a merchant], Marquis, and Joseph Milhet [a merchant] were condemned to be hanged. The supplications both of colonists and Spanish officials saved them only from the gallows, and they fell before the fire of a file of Spanish grenadiers." The remaining prisoners were sent to Havana and kept in confinement for a year. "'Cruel O'Reilly'

—the captain-general—was justly named. . . . O'Reilly had come to set up a government, but not to remain and govern. On organizing the cabildo [a feebly constituted body—'like a crane, all feathers,' 'which, for the third part of a century, ruled the pettier destinies of the Louisiana Creoles'], he announced the appointment of Don Luis de Unzaga, colonel of the regiment of Havana, as governor of the province, and yielded him the chair. But under his own higher commission of captain-general he continued for a time in control. He established in force the laws of Castile and the Indies and the use of the Spanish tongue in the courts and the public offices. . . . Spanish rule in Louisiana was better, at least, than French, which, it is true, scarcely deserved the name of government. As to the laws themselves, it is worthy of notice that Louisiana 'is at this time the only State, of the vast territories acquired from France, Spain, and Mexico, in which the civil law has been retained, and forms a large portion of its jurisprudence.' On the 29th of October, 1770, O'Reilly sailed from New Orleans with most of his troops, leaving the Spanish power entirely and peacefully established. The force left by him in the colony amounted to 1,200 men. He had dealt a sudden and terrible blow; but he had followed it only with velvet strokes."—G. W. Cable, *Creoles of Louisiana, ch.* 10-11.—See also MISSOURI: 1769-1799.

ALSO IN: G. E. Waring, Jr., and G. W. Cable, *History and present condition of New Orleans (United States tenth census, v.* 19).

1770.—St. Louis becomes capital. See ST. LOUIS: 1770.

1770-1797.—Spanish governors, Unzaga, Galvez, Miro, Baron de Carondelet, and Gayoso de Lemos.—"Luis de Unzaga, the third Spanish governor of Louisiana, was confirmed in that office August 17, 1772, although appointed by O'Reilly as his successor in 1770. His administration of the government which lasted until February 1, 1777, when he surrendered his office to Galvez, was efficient, and he construed broadly or quite disregarded the restrictive commercial laws that Spain sought to enforce. . . . Conde Bernardo de Galvez, son of the viceroy of Mexico, Matias de Galvez, and nephew of the great minister of the Indies, José de Galvez, was the most brilliant Spanish governor of Louisiana. He was appointed provisional governor and intendant of Louisiana, July 10, 1776, and took office February 1, 1777. He sympathized from the first with the Americans in their War for Independence, and aided them even before the declaration of war by Spain against England. After that declaration, his brilliant campaigns against the English forts on the Mississippi wrested the lower Mississippi from Gt. Britain. In 1785, he was appointed captain-general of Cuba, the province of Louisiana and the two Floridas. In the summer of that same year he was appointed viceroy of Mexico on the death of his father, retaining the captaincy general of Louisiana and the Floridas. . . . Estéban Miró, a native of Catalonia, was appointed provisional governor of Louisiana in 1785, upon Galvez's promotion, and his place as colonel of the Louisiana regiment was filled by Pedro Piernas. . . . [He] strove earnestly during his public life to separate the western settlements of the United States from the Union. On the termination of his government in 1791 he returned to Spain, where he became mariscal de campo."—P. Alliot, *Louisiana under the rule of Spain, France, and the United States, v.* 1, *pp.* 244-245, 278, *footnotes* 117-118, 135.—"Francois Louis Hector, Baron de Carondelet de Noyelles, Siegneur d'Haine Saint Pierre, was born in 1747 in Flanders, and died in 1807. . . . Before he was appointed Governor of Louisiana he was Governor of San Salvador in Guatemala. He arrived at New Orleans in January, 1792. . . . In lower Louisiana he was active in promoting every local enterprise calculated to advance the prosperity of the colony. He greatly improved the municipal administration of New Orleans, introduced a system of lighting the streets, fortified the city, built the canal known to this day as the 'Carondelet canal,' and which drained the city and gave it water connection with Lake Pontchartrain, and during his administration the first newspaper was established in New Orleans. His efforts to separate the western people from the Union in order to strengthen the position of Spain in the Mississippi valley are in part detailed in these documents and evidence his great capacity and devotion to Spain. In 1797 he was appointed President of the Royal Audiencia of Quito. In the army he attained the rank of Mariscal-de-Campo, i.e., Field-Marshal. . . . Manuel Gayoso de Lemos was educated in England and Lieutenant Pope says 'brought up at the Court of London.' He entered the Spanish army and attained the rank of brigadier-general. He was commandant of Natchez and was appointed one of the commissioners of Spain to fix the boundary between Florida and the United States. . . . In 1797 he succeeded Carondelet as governor of Louisiana. While governor he was engaged in a bitter conflict with the Intendant Morales, and which only ended with his death."—L. Houck, *Spanish régime in Missouri, v.* 2, *pp.* 193, 219, *footnotes* 15, 1.

1779-1781.—Spanish reconquest of West Florida. See FLORIDA: 1779-1781.

1785-1800.—Question of navigation of the Mississippi, in dispute between Spain and the United States.—Discontent of settlers in Kentucky and Tennessee.—Wilkinson's intrigues.—Schemes for overthrow of Spanish authority.—"Settlers in considerable numbers had crossed the mountains into Kentucky and Tennessee while the war of Independence was in progress. . . . At once it became a question of vital importance how these people were to find avenues of commerce with the outer world. . . . Immigration to the interior must cross the mountains; but the natural highway for commerce was the Mississippi River. If the use of this river were left free, nothing better could be desired. Unfortunately it was not free. The east bank of the river, as far south as the north boundary of Florida [which included some part of the present states of Alabama and Mississippi, but with the northern boundary in dispute —see FLORIDA: 1783-1787], was the property of the United States, but the west bank, together with the island of Orleans, was held by Spain. That power, while conceding to the people of the United States the free navigation of the Mississippi as far down as the American ownership of the left bank extended, claimed exclusive jurisdiction below that line, and proposed to exact customs duties from such American commerce as should pass in or out of the mouth of the river. This pretension if yielded to would place all that commerce at the mercy of Spain, and render not merely the navigation of the river of little value, but the very land from which the commerce sprung. It was inconceivable that such pretensions should be tolerated if successful resistance were possible, but the settlers were able to combat it on two grounds, either of which seemed, according to recognized rules of international law, conclusive. First, As citizens of the country owning one of the banks

on the upper portion of the stream, they claimed the free navigation to the sea with the privilege of a landing place at its mouth as a natural right; and they were able to fortify this claim—if it needed support—with the opinions of publicists of acknowledged authority. Second, They claimed under the treaty of 1763 between Great Britain and France, whereby the latter, then the owner of Louisiana, had conceded to the former the free navigation of the Mississippi in its whole breadth and length, with passage in and out of its mouth, subject to the payment of no duty whatsoever. . . . Thus both in natural right and by treaty concession the claim of the American settlers seemed incontrovertible, and perhaps it may fairly be said that the whole country agreed in this view. When Mr. Jay, while the war of Independence was still in progress, was sent to Spain to negotiate a treaty of amity and assistance, he was specially charged with the duty to see that the free navigation of the Mississippi was conceded. All his endeavors to that end, however, resulted in failure, and he was compelled to return home with the American claim still disputed. In 1785 the negotiation was transferred to this country, and Mr. Jay renewed his effort to obtain concessions, but without avail. The tenacity with which Spain held to its claim was so persistent that Congress in its anxiety to obtain a treaty of commerce finally instructed Mr. Jay on its behalf to consent that for twenty-five years the United States should forbear to claim the right in dispute. The instruction was given by the vote of the seven Northern States against a united South; and the action was so distinctly sectional as to threaten the stability of the Union. . . . In the West the feeling of dissatisfaction was most intense and uncompromising. The settlers of Kentucky already deemed themselves sufficiently numerous and powerful to be entitled to set up a state government of their own, and to have a voice in the councils of the Confederation. . . . In Tennessee as well as in Kentucky settlements had been going on rapidly; and perhaps in the former even more distinctly than in the latter a growing indifference to the national bond was manifest. . . . One of the difficult questions which confronted the new government, formed under the Federal constitution, was how to deal with this feeling and control or remove it. Spanish levies on American commerce were in some cases almost prohibitory, reaching fifty or seventy-five per cent. ad valorem, and it was quite out of the question that hardy backwoodsmen trained to arms should for any considerable time submit to pay them. If the national government failed to secure their rights by diplomacy, they would seek redress in such other way as might be open to them. . . . Among the most prominent of the Kentucky settlers was Gen. James Wilkinson, who had gone there as a merchant in 1784. He was shortly found advocating, though somewhat covertly, the setting up of an independent State Government. In 1787 he opened trade with New Orleans, and endeavored to impress upon the Spanish authorities the importance of an amicable understanding with the settlers in the Ohio valley. His representations for a time had considerable effect, and the trade was not only relieved of oppressive burdens, but Americans were invited to make settlements within Spanish limits in Louisiana and West Florida. A considerable settlement was actually made at New Madrid under this invitation. But there is no reason to believe that genuine good feeling inspired this policy; the purpose plainly in view was to build up a Spanish party among the American settlers and eventually to detach them from the United States. But the course pursued was variable, being characterized in turn by liberality and by rigor. Wilkinson appears to have been allowed special privileges in trade, and this, together with the fact that he was known to receive a heavy remittance from New Orleans, begat a suspicion that he was under Spanish pay; a suspicion from which he was never wholly relieved, and which probably to some extent affected the judgment of men when he came under further suspicion in consequence of equivocal relations with Aaron Burr. In 1789 a British emissary made his appearance in Kentucky, whose mission seemed to be to sound the sentiments of the people respecting union with Canada. He came at a bad time for his purposes; for the feeling of the country against Great Britain was then at its height, and was particularly strong in the West, where the failure to deliver up the posts within American limits was known to have been influential in encouraging Indian hostilities. The British agent, therefore, met with anything but friendly reception. . . . Meantime Spain had become so far complicated in European wars as to be solicitous regarding the preservation of her own American possessions, then bordered by a hostile people, and at her suggestion an envoy was sent by the United States to Madrid, with whom in October 1795 a treaty was made, whereby among other things it was agreed that Spain should permit the people of the United States for the term of three years to make use of the port of New Orleans as a place of deposit for their produce and merchandise, and to export the same free from all duty or charge except for storage and incidental expenses. At the end of the three years the treaty contemplated further negotiations, and it was hoped by the American authorities that a decisive step had been taken towards the complete recognition of American claims. The treaty, however, was far from satisfying the people of Kentucky and Tennessee, who looked upon the assent of Spain to it as a mere makeshift for the protection of her territory from invasion. Projects for taking forcible possession of the mouth of the Mississippi continued therefore to be agitated. . . . The schemes of Don Francisco de Miranda for the overthrow of Spanish authority in America now became important. Miranda was of Spanish-American birth, and had been in the United States while the war of Independence was pending and formed acquaintance among the American officers. Conceiving the idea of liberating the Spanish colonies, he sought assistance from England and Russia, but when the French Revolution occurred he enlisted in the French service and for a time held important military positions. Driven from France in 1797 he took up his old scheme again, looking now to England and America for the necessary assistance. Several leading American statesmen were approached on the subject, Hamilton among them; and while the relations between France and the United States seemed likely to result in war, that great man, who had no fear of evils likely to result from the extension of territory, listened with approval to the project of a combined attack by British and American forces on the Spanish Colonies, and would have been willing, with the approval of the government, to personally take part in it. President Adams, however, frowned upon the scheme, and it was necessarily but with great reluctance abandoned. And now occurred an event of highest interest to the people of the United States. Spain, aware of her precarious hold upon Louisiana, in 1800 retroceded it to France."—T. M.

Cooley, *Acquisition of Louisiana (Indiana Historical Society pamphlets, no. 3)*.

Also in: W. H. Safford, *Blennerhassett papers, ch. 5*.—H. Marshall, *History of Kentucky, v. 1, ch. 12-15*.—J. H. Monette, *Discovery and settlement of the valley of the Mississippi, v. 2, bk. 5, ch. 6*.—J. M. Brown, *Political beginnings of Kentucky*.—T. M. Green, *Spanish conspiracy*.

1798-1803.—Last days of Spanish rule.—Transference of domain to France.—Purchase by the United States.—Bounds of the purchase.—"During the years 1796-97 the Spanish authorities exhausted every means for delaying a confirmation of the boundary line as set forth in the treaty of 1783. By one pretext and another, they avoided the surrender of the Natchez territory and continued to hold the military posts therein. Not until the 23d of March, 1798, was the final step taken by which the Federal Government was permitted to occupy in full the province of Mississippi. . . . Soon after this we find the newly made territory of Mississippi occupied by a Federal force, and, strange to say, with Gen. Wilkinson in command. The man who but lately had been playing the rôle of traitor, spy, insurrectionist and smuggler, was now chief commander on the border and was building a fort at Loftus Heights just above the boundary line. The new governor of Louisiana [Gayoso de Lemos], seeing the hope of detaching Kentucky and Tennessee fall dead at his feet, finally turned back to the old policy of restricting immigration and of discriminating against Protestants. By the treaty signed at Madrid in 1795, it had been stipulated that the citizens of the United States should not only have free navigation of the Mississippi River, but that they should also have the right to deposit in New Orleans all their produce during the space of three years. This limit, it was agreed, was to be extended by the Spanish Government, or, instead of an extension of time, a new point on the island of New Orleans was to be designated for depot. But at the expiration of the three years Morales, the Spanish intendant at New Orleans, declined to permit further deposits there, and refused to designate another place in accordance with the stipulation. This action aroused the people of the West; a storm of resentment broke forth and the government of the United States was forced to make a threatening demonstration in the direction of Louisiana. Three regiments of the regular army were at once dispatched to the Ohio. The people flew to arms. Invasion appeared imminent." But the Spanish authorities gave way, and a new intendant at New Orleans "received from his Government orders to remove the interdict issued by Gayoso and to restore to the Western people the right of deposit at New Orleans. These orders he promptly obeyed, thus reviving good feelings between his province and the United States. Trade revived; immigration increased. . . . The deluge of immigration startled the Spaniards. They saw to what it was swiftly tending. A few more years and this tide would rise too high to be resisted and Louisiana would be lost to the king, lost to the holy religion, given over to freedom, republicanism and ruin. [Upon the death of Gayoso de Lemos, 1798, Sebastian Calvo de la Puerta (Marquis of Casa Calvo), a native of Havana was sent as governor to Louisiana. In June, 1801, he was succeeded by Don Juan Manuel de Salcedo.] On the 18th of July . . . [1802] the king ordered that no more grants of land be given to citizens of the United States. This effectually killed the commerce of the Mississippi River, and the indignation of the Western people knew no bounds. . . . Rumors, apparently well founded, were afloat that the irresistible genius of Napoleon was wringing the province from Spain and that this meant a division of the territories between France and the United States. To a large majority of Louisiana's population these were thrillingly welcome rumors. The very thought of once more becoming the subjects of France was enough to intoxicate them with delight. The treaty of Ildefonso, however, which had been ratified at Madrid on the 21st of March, 1801, had been kept a secret. Napoleon had hoped to occupy Louisiana with a strong army, consisting of 25,000 men, together with a fleet to guard the coast; but his implacable and ever watchful foe, England, discovered his design and thwarted it. But by the terms of the treaty, the colony and province of Louisiana had gone into his hands. He must take possession and hold it, or he must see England become its master."—M. Thompson, *Story of Louisiana, ch. 6*.—"As soon as the treaty of Amiens was signed with England in 1802, General Victor was ordered by Minister Decrès [of France] to hasten the departure of his expedition and to take possession of Louisiana. . . . But before Victor had completed his preparations, cold weather set in, and his four vessels were imprisoned in ice. . . . In the meantime the peace of Amiens between France and England was broken, the expedition to Louisiana was abandoned, and Victor never reached the colony of which he had been made captain-general. Loussat, the colonial prefect, had already sailed for New Orleans, and it was he, as Commissioner of the French Government who received the province from Spain."—A. Fortier, *History of Louisiana, v. 11, pp. 180-181*.

"Pressed on every side at that time by wars and political complications and well understanding that it would endanger his power for him to undertake a grand American enterprise, he [Napoleon] gladly opened negotiations with the United States looking to the cession of Louisiana to that Government. . . . Napoleon had agreed with Spain that Louisiana should not be ceded to any other power. . . . Diplomacy very quickly surmounted so small an obstacle. . . . The treaty of cession was signed on the 30th of April, 1803, the United States agreeing to pay France 60,000,000 francs as the purchase price of the territory. . . . In addition, the sum due American citizens . . . was assumed by the United States. The treaty of April was ratified by Napoleon in May, 1803, and by the Senate of the United States in October. . . . Pausing to glance at this strange transaction, by which one republic sells outright to another republic a whole country without in the least consulting the wishes of the inhabitants, whose allegiance and all of whose political and civil rights are changed thereby, we are tempted to wonder if the republic of the United States could to-day sell Louisiana with the same impunity that attended the purchase! She bought the country and its people, just as she might have bought a desert island with its goats."—M. Thompson, *Story of Louisiana, ch. 6, with foot-note*.—"No one could say what was the southwest boundary of the territory acquired; whether it should be the Sabine or the Rio del Norte; and a controversy with Spain on the subject might at any time arise. The northwest boundary was also somewhat vague and uncertain, and would be open to controversy with Great Britain. [That] the territory extended west to the Rocky Mountains was not questioned, but it might be claimed that it extended to the Pacific. An impression that it did so extend has since prevailed in some quarters,

and in some public papers and documents it has been assumed as an undoubted fact. But neither Mr. Jefferson nor the French, whose right he purchased, ever claimed for Louisiana any such extent, and our title to Oregon has been safely deduced from other sources. Mr. Jefferson said expressly: 'To the waters of the Pacific we can found no claim in right of Louisiana.' "—T. M. Cooley, *Acquisition of Louisiana (Indiana Historical Society Pamphlets, no. 3)*.—"By the charter of Louis XIV., the country purchased to the north included all that was contiguous to the waters that flowed into the Mississippi. Consequently its northern boundary was the summit of the highlands in which its northern waters rise. By the tenth article of the treaty of Utrecht, France and England agreed to appoint commissioners to settle the boundary, and these commissioners, as such boundary, marked this summit on the 49th parallel of north latitude. This would not carry the rights of the United States beyond the Rocky Mountains. The claim to the territory beyond was based upon the principle of continuity, the prolongation of the territory to the adjacent great body of water. As against Great Britain, the claim was founded on the treaty of 1763, between France and Great Britain, by which the latter power ceded to the former all its rights west of the Mississippi River. The United States succeeded to all the rights of France. Besides this, there was an independent claim created by the discovery of the Columbia River by Gray, in 1792, and its exploration by Lewis and Clarke. All this was added to by the cession by Spain, in 1819, of any title that it had to all territory north of the 42d degree."—C. F. Robertson, *Louisiana purchase (Papers of American Historical Association, v. 1, p. 259)*.—As its southwestern and southeastern boundaries were eventually settled by treaty with Spain [see FLORIDA: 1819-1821], the Louisiana purchase embraced 2,300 sq. miles in the present state of Alabama, west of the Perdido and on the gulf, below latitude 31° north; 3,600 sq. miles in the present state of Mississippi, south of the same latitude; the whole of the present states of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, and the Dakotas; Minnesota, west of the Mississippi; Kansas, all but the southwest corner; the whole of the Indian Territory, and so much of Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana as lies on the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains. If it is held that the French claim was good to the Pacific, then we may say that we owe the remainder of Montana, with Idaho, Oregon and Washington to the same great purchase.—T. Donaldson, *Public domain, p. 105*.—See also U. S. A.: 1803: Louisiana Purchase; also Historical geography; MISSOURI: 1803-1812.

ALSO IN: H. Adams, *History of the United States: First administration of Jefferson, v. 2, ch. 1-3*.—D. C. Gilman, *James Monroe, ch. 4*.—B. Marbois, *History of Louisiana, pt. 2*.—*American state papers: Foreign relations, v. 2, pp. 506-583*.

1803-1804.—Difficulties in establishing American government.—Claiborne.—Division of territory.—Government of district organized.—It was on the 31st of October, 1803, that Thomas Jefferson signed an act authorizing the occupation of that great and extended territory purchased from the French Government, and known by the name of Louisiana. That act simply provided for the occupation of the territory and that all civil, military and judicial powers exercised by the existing Government shall be vested in such persons as the President of the United States may direct; but all the while protecting the inhabitants in the free enjoyment of their liberty, property and religion. "The immediate effect of that cession [Louisiana Purchase] was to vest all the powers of the defunct government . . . in Governor Claiborne, until Congress should legislate on the organization of the government of the new territory. . . . His first measure was to organize the judiciary, and he established, on the 30th of December, 1803, a Court of Pleas, composed of seven justices. Their civil jurisdiction was limited to cases not excelling in value three thousand dollars, with the right of appeal to the Governor, when the amount in litigation rose above five hundred dollars. That tribunal was also vested with jurisdiction over all criminal cases in which the punishment did not exceed two hundred dollars and sixty days imprisonment. Each of those seven justices was clothed, individually, with summary jurisdiction over all debts under one hundred dollars, reserving to the parties an appeal to the Court of Pleas, that is, to the seven justices, sitting together in one court. . . . On the discontent existing among those whose allegiance was now to be claimed by the United States, . . . Judge Martin . . . in his History of Louisiana [wrote]: 'The people of Louisiana, especially in New Orleans, . . . were greatly dissatisfied at the new order of things. They complained that the person whom Congress had sent to preside over them was an utter stranger to their laws, manners, and language; and had no personal interest in the prosperity of the country. . . . It is true that this state of things did not last beyond the time which was strictly necessary for Congress to modify it.' "—C. Gayarré, *History of Louisiana, v. 4, pp. 2-4*.—"On the 26th of March, 1804, Congress passed an act dividing the province into two parts on the 33d parallel of latitude, the present northern boundary of Louisiana, and establishing for the lower portion a distinct territorial government, under the title of the territory of Orleans. The act was to go into effect in the following October. One of its provisions was the interdiction of the slave-trade."—G. E. Waring, Jr., and G. W. Cable, *History and present condition of New Orleans (United States tenth census, v. 19, pp. 32-33)*.—All north of the 33d parallel of north latitude was formed into a district, and styled the District of Louisiana. For judicial and administrative purposes this district, or upper Louisiana as we shall continue to call it, was attached to the territory of Indiana. Under the act of March, 1804, the legislative power was "vested in the Governor and in thirteen of the most fit and discreet persons in the territory, to be called the Legislative Council and to be appointed annually by the President of the United States from those holding real estate therein, and who shall have resided one year at least in the said territory. . . . The Governor, with the advice of this Legislative Council, or a majority of them, had the power to alter, modify or repeal the laws in force in the territory; and, in fact, they had practically the power to do almost anything. This Council was composed of the thirteen persons whose qualifications are set forth and designated in the act of Congress. It convened in the City of New Orleans on Monday, the 3rd of December, 1804, and elected [Julien Poydras] as President of the Council. [A charter of incorporation was given by it to the city of New Orleans.]"—H. L. Favrot, *State Seal (Publications of the Louisiana Historical Society, v. 2, pt. 4, Dec., 1901, pp. 18-19)*.

1804-1805.—Lewis and Clarke's exploration of northwestern region of purchase, to the Pacific.

See U. S. A.: 1804-1805: Expedition of Lewis and Clarke.

1805-1812.—District changed to territory.—Meetings of territorial legislature.—In March, 1805, Congress passed an act "which erected the district into a territory of the first or lowest grade, and changed its title from the District to the Territory of Louisiana." Seven years later, in June, 1812, the Territory of Orleans (the lower Louisiana of old) having been received into the federal Union as the State of Louisiana, the territory which bore the ancient name was advanced by act of Congress "from the first to the second grade of territories, and its name changed to Missouri."—L. Carr, *Missouri, ch.* 5.—The first meeting of the territorial legislature, held in 1806, passed acts regulating the care of slaves, and establishing schools in the several counties. In 1807, the county courts were abolished. During the second meeting of the territorial legislature, 1808, an act was passed establishing a civil and criminal code.

1806-1807.—Burr's filibustering conspiracy. See U. S. A.: 1806-1807.

1812.—Admission of Territory of Orleans to Union as state of Louisiana.—"The population of the Territory of Orleans had been augmented annually by emigration from the United States. According to the census of 1810, the whole territory, exclusive of the Florida parishes, contained an aggregate of 76,550 souls. Of this number, the city of New Orleans and its precincts contained 24,552 persons, leaving 52,000 souls for the remainder of the territory. Besides these, the inhabitants of the Florida parishes amounted, probably, to not less than 2,500, including slaves. . . . Congress, by an act approved February 11th, 1811, . . . authorized the election of a convention to adopt a Constitution, preparatory to the admission of the Territory into the Union as an independent state. The convention, consisting of 60 delegates from the original parishes, met according to law, on the first Monday in November, and concluded its labors on the 22d day of January following, having adopted a Constitution for the proposed new 'State of Louisiana.' . . . The Constitution was accepted by Congress, and the State of Louisiana was formally admitted into the Union on the 8th day of April, 1812, upon an equal footing with the original states, from and after the 30th day of April, it being the ninth anniversary of the treaty of Paris. A few days subsequently, a 'supplemental act' of Congress extended the limits of the new state by the addition of the Florida parishes [see FLORIDA: 1811-1813]. This gave it the boundaries it has at present."—J. W. Monette, *Discovery and settlement of the valley of the Mississippi, v.* 2, *bk.* 5, *ch.* 15.—In 1812 Claiborne was elected governor, and supreme and parish courts were organized. Claiborne served until 1816 when he was succeeded by Jacques Philippe Villeré.

1813-1815.—War of 1812 in Louisiana.—Creek Indians and Spaniards as disturbing factors.—Jackson's successful attack on Pensacola.—In Louisiana the War of 1812 was complicated by the depredations of the Creek Indians (see U. S. A. 1813-1814 [August-April]) and possible difficulties with the Spanish territories adjoining Louisiana. "A treaty of peace had been signed between the Creek Nation and the United States in the month of August [1813], . . . but some of the tribes constituting that nation had refused their assent to the treaty, and continued their hostilities. They used to procure clothing, ammunition and arms from the Spaniards, and sell in Pensacola the fruits of their depredations on American property. General Jackson had demanded satisfaction from the Governor of Pensacola, but it had been refused. To make matters worse, the British force which, allied with six hundred Creek warriors, had lately attacked Fort Bowyer on Mobile Point, had departed from Pensacola, and, after being defeated, had returned to that town, whose forts were suffered to be garrisoned by the British. Moreover, the Spanish authorities had even arrested and imprisoned some American citizens who were suspected of being unfriendly to the British Government. Jackson, thinking that these facts constituted a breach of neutrality and a violation of the laws of nations, concluded that he was authorized to dispossess the British and their Indian allies of the shelter which they had found in Pensacola, and which they used as a base of operations. He, therefore, assembled near Fort Montgomery, on the River Alabama, an army of about four thousand men, composed of a detachment of regulars, of militia of Tennessee, and of a battalion of volunteer dragoons of Mississippi. On the 6th of November, this army encamped within three miles of Pensacola. General Jackson sent Major Peire to demand that an American garrison be received in the fort St. Michael and Barrancas, until the Spanish Government could procure a sufficient force to enable it to maintain its neutrality against the British, who had possessed themselves of these fortresses, notwithstanding the remonstrances and protest of the Spanish Governor, with the assurance on the part of the American General that his forces should be withdrawn as soon as a Spanish force sufficiently numerous to make itself respected should arrive. On these propositions having been refused, Major Peire declared that recourse would be had to arms. On . . . the 7th of November, the attack was made. The Spaniards were too feeble in numbers to make any effective resistance to the four thousand men who were under the control of General Jackson, and the small town of Pensacola was taken without much difficulty. . . . Shortly after, Fort Michael surrendered, and Fort Barrancas was evacuated, after having been partially blown up by the Spanish commandant, who, with his men, took refuge on board of the British ships in the Bay, which departed unmolested. The object of the expedition having been obtained, Jackson . . . [returned] to Mobile."—C. Gayarré, *History of Louisiana, v.* 4, *pp.* 372-373.

1815.—Jackson's defense of New Orleans. See U. S. A.: 1815 (January).

1819.—Treaty between the United States and Spain, settling Florida-Louisiana boundary. See FLORIDA: 1812-1819.

1820-1845.—Governors.—Legislation.—Financial depression.—Constitution of 1845.—"In 1820, Thomas Bolling Robertson became governor of Louisiana. During his administration some attempt was made to systematize public education in the State. Very little support was given to this work until 1845, and public schools, in the real sense of the word, were practically nonexistent until that time. Little attention was paid to primary education, and legislative support was given only to institutions such as the College of Orleans and others similar to it in different parts of the State. . . . It was not until 1845 that the bequest of John McDonough made a system of common schools practicable. The old patrician civilization, founded upon a basis of slavery, was unfavorable to the growth of education among the unprivileged classes, though it fostered the highest degree of intellectual development among the upper. In 1824, Henry Johnson was elected

governor. His administration was occupied chiefly by a continuance of troubles on the Sabine frontier and questions of state politics. In 1825, the state capital was changed from New Orleans to Donaldsonville. Pierre Derbigny became governor in 1828. During the short period of his office he attempted to reach a solution of the general discontent and loss caused by the fact that the United States still refused to make disposition of the twenty-five million acres of public lands held vacant from the time of the cession, thus checking immigration and the spread of population to the detriment of the prosperity of the State. Governor Derbigny was thrown from his carriage and killed in 1829. Armand Beauvais and Jacques Dupré, successive presidents of the Senate, acted in turn until A. B. Roman was elected governor in 1831. New Orleans was again made the capital of the State. During his term Louisiana was twice visited by the plague of Asiatic cholera, which ravaged a great portion of Europe and America at this time. E. D. White became governor in 1835. It was during this time that Louisiana suffered its share of the national infliction of 'Bankomania,' with the result that fourteen banks in New Orleans suspended specie payment and the city was forced to issue and authorize corporations to issue bills varying in value from one bit (the Spanish *escalin* or 12½ cents) to four dollars. The new tariff had, moreover, so depreciated the value of sugar that most of the planters abandoned its cultivation and turned to the raising of cotton."—A. Phelps, *Louisiana, a record of expansion* (*American Commonwealth Series, pp.* 285-287).—"Nearly two hundred sugar planters gave up entirely, and in cotton raising alone was the hope of the people for the restoration of prosperity. The Louisiana cotton crop in 1834 had been 150,000 bales, large profits in other directions prompted purchasing by speculators, and the price went to twenty cents the pound, a price entirely unwarranted by the state of European markets, which resulted in numerous bankruptcies, some for immense amounts. Lands could no longer be sold; plans of towns were of no value but to be gazed on as pictures, and the fortunes based on them fell more suddenly than they had risen. Usurers were the only class that now prospered, and they proceeded to reap a rich harvest from the calamities of others. The crisis of financial affairs in 1837 brought about conservatism in legislation. When the Assembly met in 1838, there was less liberality manifested in granting new charters, still new corporate capital was authorized to the extent of $2,725,000—too much for the times, as public confidence and private credit were practically destroyed. It was proposed that the banks be authorized to issue post-notes, payable in 1840. This failed in the Lower House of the Legislature. The directors of all the banks consulted together, and came to the conclusion that they would issue post-notes to cover the period during suspension of specie payments—notes to be issued in proportion to circulation of each bank. . . . All banks this year [1841] suspended specie payment, although there had been a general resumption with all charter rights restored previous. This condition lasted but a brief few months. Crops were good and banking conditions in the latter part of 1841 and 1842 improved very much. The Canal bank notes circulated throughout the South, suffering little discount and at but a few points. The banks having resumed specie payment, the General Assembly reinstated them in their chartered rights; it also endorsed the idea of a United States National Bank to regulate the issue of currency and to maintain a stability in its value. It was not until 1863 that this idea was carried out."—T. P. Thompson, *Early financing in New Orleans—Being the story of the Canal Bank—1831-1915* (*Publications of the Louisiana Historical Society, v.* 7, 1913-14, *pp.* 35, 39).—"In 1839, Roman was elected to his second term. Banking and financial troubles continued during this term. Imprisonment for debt was abolished in 1840. In 1843, Alexandre Mouton became governor. The constitution adopted in 1845 attempted to establish a proper system of registration for voters, as the troubles growing out of the presidential election of 1840 had fully proven the old system defective. ["Its chief object was to restrict the legislature in chartering corporations and to prohibit State aid to corporations. It dropped the property qualification and made the choice of a governor depend on popular vote."—M. Thompson, *Story of Louisiana, p.* 325.] In 1845, Isaac Johnson was elected governor. During this administration the aftermath of the long series of border disputes was reaped."—A. Phelps, *Louisiana, a record of expansion, p.* 287.

1843-1853.—Continued financial troubles.—Gradual recovery.—When Governor Mouton took office he "found the finances of the state in fearful condition. 'I learn,' he said, 'with deep mortification and regret, from the Treasurer's reports and otherwise, that there is due for salaries, interest and other ordinary expenses, about two hundred thousand dollars: that there are State bonds, for the payment of which the State has no guarantee, to the amount of one million two hundred and seventy-three thousand dollars, on which the interest is unpaid: that there are State bonds to a large amount, for which the State has the guarantee of the stockholders of the Citizens' Bank, and of the consolidated Association of Planters, now in liquidation, on which the interest will probably not be paid; that the ordinary expenses of the Government exceed, and have for several years exceeded its ordinary income by more than two hundred thousand dollars: that there is nothing in our exhausted treasury: that the State can no longer draw a dollar from her own Banks, and that the people are taxed as heavily as they can bear. This is indeed a deplorable situation of our affairs. Having within our limits the greatest commercial metropolis in the Union, a luxuriant climate, and the richest and most inexhaustible soil in the world, we are forced to ask what has produced this disastrous result.' The Governor answered the question by attributing our misfortunes to the inordinate inflation of our paper currency and to the mushroom multiplicity of our banks, which had tempted our whole population and the State itself into such extravagance, that the State was almost bankrupt, and that there were few of our citizens who were not heavily in debt to those institutions. 'The evils under which we suffer,' he said, 'are to be ascribed to the ascendency, the supremacy this interest attained in our State. Had banks been held to the responsibilities of individuals: had they at all times been kept in a sphere subordinate to the Government itself; had the supremacy of the laws been asserted and maintained, things would not have come to the present stage of discredit and disaster. . . . We must prevent, by all possible means, all tendency in our legislation to a revival of the banking system as heretofore organized. . . . So recuperative is Louisiana in her energies and resources that on the first day of January, 1844, [the state had passed the crisis. One of the corrective

measures adopted was the revival of the insolvent laws]. With regard to the removal of the prohibition to create banking institutions, Governor Walker (1850-1853) said: 'There never was probably a time when it was less necessary to extend this class of facilities than the present. A long period of comparative economy and successful industry has relieved the great mass of the community from harassing debts, money is abundant and cheap, the community is solvent, enterprise is active without wild speculation, and the precious metals are constantly and abundantly increasing." —C. Gayarré, *History of Louisiana, v.* 4, *pp.* 664-665, 675.

1850-1861.—Administrations of governors.—Ordinance of secession.—"In 1850, Joseph Walker was elected governor of the State. A constitutional convention was held in 1852 to make the constitution of the State more democratic. The judges of the Supreme Court were removed from the governor's appointing power, and these and most state offices made elective. The whole policy of this instrument was to limit the power of the governor and make as many offices directly dependent upon popular election as possible. The capital was now established at Baton Rouge. Paul Hébert, president of the constitutional convention, was elected governor in 1853. In 1856, Robert C. Wickliffe became governor. His was a time of turbulent politics and bitter feeling. The position of New Orleans made it the resort of revolutionists and filibusters, who had their eyes upon struggling republics of Central and South America. . . . State politics were in a disastrous condition. In the words of Governor Wickliffe: 'It is a well-known fact that, at the two last general elections, many of the streets and approaches to the polls were completely in the hands of organized ruffians, who committed acts of violence on multitudes of naturalized fellow citizens who dared to venture to exercise the right of suffrage. Thus nearly one third of the registered voters of New Orleans have been deterred from exercising their highest and most sacred prerogatives.' The trouble grew out of the habit of extending the privilege of suffrage too easily to foreigners who, by their ignorance, were not prepared to exercise it with intelligence, and consequently were at the disposal of the unprincipled politicians of any party which might care to buy votes of them or hire them for acts of violence and intimidation. The opposition, or native American party, was driven also to the employment of force. . . . During Governor Wickliffe's term of office, Louisiana, as every other Southern State, was torn and disturbed by conflicting opinions; and when, in the fateful year 1860, Thomas Overton Moore became governor, there was little for the executive to do but drift with the current. . . . The resolution of the legislature calling for a convention to consider the question of secession had been ratified by a popular vote of 4258 for secession against 3978 for united Southern action. Thus instructed, the convention met at Baton Rouge on the 23d of January, 1861, with Ex-Governor Alexandre Mouton presiding. A drafting committee of fifteen presented an ordinance of secession, which finally passed the convention [January 26] by a vote of 113 ayes to 17 nays. After the passage of the ordinance, however, it was signed by 121 delegates. Louisiana's connection with the United States was formally declared dissolved, and a delegation was elected to represent the commonwealth at the convention of Southern States called to assemble at Montgomery on February 4 for the purpose of forming a Southern Confederacy. [See also U.S.A.: 1861 (January-February); (February): Adoption of a constitution, etc.] . . . On March 21 the convention ratified the Constitution of the Confederate States adopted at Montgomery, and the State Constitution of 1852 was modified to suit the changed conditions."—A. Phelps, *Louisiana, a record of expansion, pp.* 288-289, 302, 306.

1853.—Yellow fever epidemic.—In 1853 during the appalling yellow fever epidemic some 15,000 people died, notwithstanding the state was otherwise prosperous, engaged in constructing railroads and carrying on works of internal improvement.

1862 (April).—Farragut's capture of New Orleans. See U.S.A.: 1862 (April: On the Mississippi).

1862 (May-December).—New Orleans under General Butler. See U.S.A.: 1862 (May-December: Louisiana).

1862 (June).—Appointment of a military governor. See U.S.A.: 1862: (March-June).

1863-1867.—Dual government.—Constitutional convention.—In 1863, Michael Hahn was elected unionist and military governor, and Henry W. Allen was chosen governor by the Confederates. By 1863 two parties had arisen among the loyal unionists: one of conservatives, and the other radicals, who demanded a constitutional convention and the abolition of slavery. The convention held, May, 1864 framed a new constitution repudiating the debt incurred by Louisiana as one of the Confederate states and emancipating slaves immediately and unconditionally. It placed no limitation, except crime, on adult, white, male suffrage. By 1864, congressional opposition to presidential "reconstruction" (see U.S.A.: 1863-1864 [December-July]) had developed so that the electoral votes of Louisiana for president were not counted; in March of this year a state government to supersede the military rule was established under the auspices of the president. In 1865 Governor Hahn resigned and was succeeded by Lieutenant-governor Wills; Confederate Governor Allen also resigned. By 1866 the Conservatives had secured control of most of government and state offices, but not the governorship, and an attempt was made to reconvene the convention of 1864 in order to revise the suffrage requirements. This attempt led to a riot. In 1867 General Sheridan closed the registration of voters and removed Governor Wills, substituting Durant who declined, whereupon Benjamin F. Flanders was appointed, only to be succeeded later by Joshua Baker.

1864.—Red river expedition. See U.S.A.: 1864 (March-May: Louisiana).

1865.—President Lincoln's view of reconstruction.—President Johnson's recognition of reconstructed state government. See U.S.A.: 1865 (April 11); (May-July).

1865-1867.—First reconstruction experiment.—Riot at New Orleans.—Establishment of military rule.—"In 1865 the returned Confederates, restored to citizenship by the President's amnesty proclamation [see U.S.A.: 1865 (May-July)], soon got control of almost all the State [as reorganized under the constitution framed and adopted in 1864]. The Legislature was in their hands, as well as most of the State and municipal offices; so, when the President, on the 20th of August, 1866, by proclamation, extended his previous instructions regarding civil affairs in Texas so as to have them apply to all the seceded States, there at once began in Louisiana a system of discriminative legislation directed against the freedmen, that led to flagrant wrongs in the enforcement of labor contracts, and in the remote parishes

to numbers of outrages and murders. To remedy this deplorable condition of things, it was proposed, by those who had established the government of 1864, to remodel the constitution of the State; and they sought to do this by reassembling the convention, that body before its adjournment having provided for reconvening under certain conditions, in obedience to the call of its president. Therefore, early in the summer of 1866, many members of this convention met in conference at New Orleans, and decided that a necessity existed for reconvening the delegates, and a proclamation was issued accordingly by B. K. Howell, President pro tempore. Mayor John T. Monroe and the other officials of New Orleans looked upon this proposed action as revolutionary, and by the time the convention assembled (July 30) such bitterness of feeling prevailed that efforts were made by the mayor and city police to suppress the meeting. A bloody riot followed, resulting in the killing and wounding of about 160 persons. I happened [the writer is General Sheridan, then in command of the military division of the gulf] to be absent from the city at the time, returning from Texas, where I had been called by affairs on the Rio Grande. On my way up from the mouth of the Mississippi I was met on the night of July 30 by one of my staff, who reported what had occurred, giving the details of the massacre—no milder term is fitting—and informing me that, to prevent further slaughter, General Baird, the senior military officer present, had assumed control of the municipal government. On reaching the city I made an investigation, and that night sent [a brief report, which was followed, on the 6th of August, by an extended account of the facts of the riot, containing the following statements]: . . . 'The convention assembled at 12 M. on the 30th, the timid members absenting themselves because the tone of the general public was ominous of trouble. . . . About 1 P.M. a procession of say from 60 to 130 colored men marched up Burgundy Street and across Canal Street toward the convention, carrying an American flag. These men had about one pistol to every ten men, and canes and clubs in addition. While crossing Canal Street a row occurred. . . . On arrival at the front of the Institute [where the convention was held] there was some throwing of brickbats by both sides. The police, who had been held well in hand, were vigorously marched to the scene of disorder. The procession entered the Institute with the flag, about 6 or 8 remaining outside. A row occurred between a policeman and one of these colored men, and a shot was again fired by one of the parties, which led to an indiscriminate fire on the building through the windows by the policemen. This had been going on for a short time, when a white flag was displayed from the windows of the Institute, whereupon the firing ceased, and the police rushed into the building. From the testimony of wounded men, and others who were inside the building, the policemen opened an indiscriminate fire upon the audience until they had emptied their revolvers, when they retired, and those inside barricaded the doors. The door was broken in, and the firing again commenced, when many of the colored and white people either escaped through the door or were passed out by the policemen inside; but as they came out the policemen who formed the circle nearest the building fired upon them, and they were again fired upon by the citizens that formed the outer circle. Many of those wounded and taken prisoners, and others who were prisoners and not wounded, were fired upon by their captors and by citizens. The wounded were stabbed while lying on the ground, and their heads beaten with brickbats. . . . Some were killed and wounded several squares from the scene.' . . . Subsequently a military commission investigated the subject of the riot, taking a great deal of testimony. The commission substantially confirmed the conclusions given in my despatches, and still later there was an investigation by a select committee of the House of Representatives. . . . A list of the killed and wounded was embraced in the committee's report, and among other conclusions reached were the following: . . . 'This riotous attack upon the convention, with its terrible results of massacre and murder, was not an accident. It was the determined purpose of the mayor of the city of New Orleans to break up this convention by armed force.' . . . The committee held that no legal government existed in Louisiana, and recommended the temporary establishment of a provisional government therein. [In the following March the Military Reconstruction Acts were passed by Congress—see U.S.A.: 1867 (March)—and General Sheridan was assigned to the command of the fifth military district therein defined, consisting of Louisiana and Texas.]"—P. H. Sheridan, *Personal memoirs, v. 2, ch.* 10-11.—In the following year, 1868, a new constitution was enacted giving suffrage to adult male negroes and disenfranchising all whites made ineligible to office under the proposed fourteenth amendment to the Federal constitution, and practically all those who had defended secession. With the ratification of the fourteenth amendment and the admission of the state to the Union, Louisiana suffered from a succession of corrupt "carpet bag," "scalawag," negro legislatures.

1866-1871.—Ku Klux Klan outrages. See U.S.A.: 1866-1871.

1868.—Reconstruction complete.—Restored representation in Congress. See U.S.A.: 1868-1870: Reconstruction complete; 1868-1876.

1868-1874.—Political corruption.—Economic distress.—In 1868, Henry C. Warmoth became governor. In 1870 he vetoed twenty-one bills involving appropriations to the amount of $6,875,000; and state auditor Wycliffe was impeached, convicted, and removed from office on charges of corruption. In 1871, an injunction was granted at the request of the governor, restraining the State auditor from the payment of warrants outstanding against appropriations made by the legislature; the commission appointed to investigate the matter unearthed a regular system of forgery. The economic condition of the State had been steadily growing blacker. Trade in a great measure had been driven from the streets and wharves of New Orleans and the spirit of enterprise broken. The delinquent taxes in 1872 amounted to $4,100,000 or three and one-half mills of the fourteen levied; men did business on credit and then were unable to collect their obligations. The root of the depression undoubtedly was the vilely corrupt government. In 1873, William P. Kellogg and John McEnery were each inaugurated as governor but McEnery was refused recognition by the President and Congress, and the members of the McEnery legislature were arrested and made prisoners. "Perpetual negro rule or annihilation seemed inevitable. . . . Men saw the futility of attempted fusions with factions of the Republican party; they had long ceased to hope for mercy, or even justice, from the Federal government; and they had been denied all the rights of citizens and even the rights granted to men on trial for crime. They knew that the power of their oppressors lay in the protection of the Federal army and the support of the ignorant negro vote.

It was plain, that if they could establish a legal and orderly government, the Federal troops would be withdrawn. . . . On the morning of the 13th, [September, 1874] the Sunday papers contained an appeal written by Dr. J. Dickson Burns, calling upon all true citizens to close their places of business and assemble about Clay statue on Canal Street at eleven o'clock on the morning of the 14th. . . . An orderly crowd of about 5000 white men assembled at the hour appointed. . . . From all parts of the city the members of the White League began to assemble. . . . In reality, it was the lawful calling out of the militia to suppress if possible an illegal and disorderly crowd of political speculators who had captured the government and maintained a false authority through the misguided assistance of the Federal government. . . . On the night of the 14th [September, 1874], Acting Governor Penn had telegraphed to President Grant that the citizens had turned out the usurping government, asserted the loyalty of his party to the United States, and begged that the people be allowed to establish their chosen officers peaceably and without the intervention of United States troops. The response of the President was to send troops and ships of war at once to the city, and to order General Emory to demand the immediate surrender of the people's government. Governor McEnery returned to the city on the 17th and surrendered his office upon the order of the military commander [General Brooke]. General Emory appointed General Brooke to command the city, but President Grant did not approve of this and ordered that the Kellogg government should be reinstated. Resistance against the United States was of course useless, and Kellogg, under this protection, emerged from retirement and resumed his office. Nevertheless, the people were thoroughly aroused; they had proven that only the power of the United States army could maintain the 'carpet-bag' politicians in office; and they were determined, now that the odious Metropolitan Police had been wiped out of existence and a wholesome lesson of caution administered, to win back the State at the polls."—A. Phelps, *Louisiana, a record of expansion, pp.* 376-377, 379-381.

Also in: *Report of Select Committee on New Orleans, 39th Congress, Second Session, House of Representatives Report, no.* 16.

1872-1873. — **Slaughter-house cases.** See Slaughter-house cases.

1874-1877.—**Distressing political and economic conditions.—Hayes-Tilden campaign.—End of carpet-bag government.**—From the time of the election of 1874 the Democrats began to regain their lost power and to restore what they believed to be genuine popular government by rendering null and void the negro vote. "The election was held on the 2d of November, 1874. In the city, many Democrats and Conservatives were prevented from voting. In the country, negroes were kept away from the polls by force, however, the polls were controlled, and the tables turned. In such cases and wherever a fair election was held, Democratic candidates were elected. . . . At the North, a realization of the misery of the South and the degradation to which it had been subjected was now spreading among all fair-minded men. The facts and the truth, which had so long been kept from the Northern people or garbled and offset with falsehood or exaggeration of special instances of wrong, were now becoming generally known, and the influence of the Radical Republicans was fast weakening. The Senate of the United States called upon President Grant for an explanation of the extraordinary interference of the military with the Louisiana legislature."—C. Gayarré, *History of Louisiana, v.* 4, *p.* 385.—In the meantime economic "distress reached high-water mark in the early months of 1875, when the extent of suffering . . . was beyond the conception of the most penetrating. . . . The story of the finances of New Orleans is one steady downhill race. By leaps and bounds the debt had almost doubled since carpet-bag government began—had reached $25,000,000. . . . By the last of February city officials were realizing the absolute impossibility, even with the most rigid economy, of providing for the current expenses. The condition was no better on the plantations. . . . In the words of Bishop Wilmer: . . . 'the state of depression and embarrassment in the country is almost without precedent, without any parallel in any civilized country. Our ruin is almost complete, our people are depressed, are almost in desperation.' . . . From November, 1871, to November, 1873, over eight hundred tracts of land in St. Martin Parish were actually sold for the taxes. . . . In the auditor's report for 1874 . . . twenty tax-collectors . . . defaulted for almost $200,000. . . . So great became the distress in 1875 that it was absolutely impossible to sell land for taxes. The condition of the parishes as to debt and corruption was utterly deplorable. . . . In most parishes a large fraudulent debt had been created in 1870-1 for the most part. . . . Complaints of the courts on the score of inefficiency and of the sale of justice were universal. . . . To meet this common evasion of justice, the law endeavored to compel the drawing of juries. . . . The school system had become part of the political machine, as members of the legislature were usually members of the local boards. This system did not make for competent school directors; often they were unable to write their names."—E. Lonn, *Reconstruction in Louisiana after* 1868, *pp.* 341-342, 345, 351-353, 356.—In 1876, Governor Kellogg was impeached by the House of Representatives but was acquitted by the Senate. In this year Francis T. Nicholls was chosen governor but Stephen B. Packard, the Republican candidate, claimed the election; both men were inaugurated the following year. Up to this time, the Republican claimants had been upheld by federal troops, but it was understood that if this support were withdrawn the carpet-bag negro government would fall. "The days of the carpet-baggers were numbered in the land upon whose misery they had thriven. The national Republican Convention [1876] which nominated Hayes had adopted a platform which made sound money the chief issue, pledged the party to a reform of the civil service, and advocated a conciliatory policy towards the Southern States."—C. Gayarré, *History of Louisiana, v.* 4, *p.* 387.—"It was early felt by both sides that the climax of the reconstruction struggle was involved in . . . [the] campaign [of 1876]. And so everyone was urged to the most strenuous exertions, and dire pictures of calamity held up in case of victory by the opposing party. More Conservatives seem to have participated than had done so since before the war; the old line Whig Association, which included business men who had before taken little part in politics, took a hand; the strictest of the Bourbons, who, although opposed to radicalism, had lived outside of politics, came out from their long retirement; many who had disdained to stand an hour among the roughs and negroes to vote, had been compelled by poverty to stand with the roughs for work, until they were glad to register in order to force the roughs and negroes out of office; while the better class took control of the convention and campaign. The party pledged itself from the very

beginning to a vigorous campaign and to the attainment of negro coöperation by peaceful means. The *Democrat* summarized well the actuating spirit: 'The idea is peace at all hazards, and perfect, thorough, universal organization in every neighborhood, for the purpose of preserving the peace.' There had been, ever since the franchise was given the negro, a small nucleus of colored Democrats. There is no doubt but that the Democratic side worked hard to gain over colored men to their ticket, while there is considerable evidence that their opponents made but little effort. Colored men were made officers in white clubs, the former master as president seated beside his former slave as vice-president; colored preachers and leaders were invited to speak to white Conservatives, were sent out to canvass for the party and to organize other clubs; negro voters were enrolled in the same clubs with Conservative whites to protect them from Republican intimidation; and negroes formed clubs of their own. Merchants and planters seemed to think that the great effort should be made in this campaign to break the color-line. Old fashioned barbecues were prepared at which they took their places, white and black alternately."—E. Lonn, *Reconstruction in Louisiana, pp.* 418.—The political turmoil continued, both Republican and Democratic parties claiming the victory in the presidential campaign. "In [this election dispute] . . . the Democrats had a majority of several thousand on the face of the returns, but the State returning board, all of whom were Republicans and most of whom were negroes or mulattoes, proceeded to throw out enough polls in which the Democratic vote predominated to obtain a majority of over 3,000 for the Hayes electors. In [Louisiana], . . . as in the other disputed Southern States, it was the old story of the kettle and the pot. In the campaign the Democrats employed every conceivable device, from moral suasion to murder, to accomplish their ends; as for the Republicans, a shrewd investigator, Benjamin F. Butler, subsequently remarked that what they 'lacked of the Lion's skin they eked out with the fox's tail.' In the parish of East Feliciana Democrats 'bulldozing' tactics were so pronounced that the Republicans, who two years before had cast 1,688 votes, gave up the contest and cast only one ballot and that a defective one. In several other parishes there were almost equally remarkable results. The returning board not only threw out most of the precincts in these parishes, but did much less justifiable work in dealing with returns from other places. As the Louisiana Supreme Court had held that the decisions of the returning board were not subject to judicial review, it was impossible for the Democratic electoral claimants to carry the matter into the courts. Nevertheless, they, as well as the Republican electors, met and voted, and ultimately, as a result of further complication, four certificates were forwarded to Washington, one of them being a humorous one signed by 'John Smith, bull-dozed Governor of Louisiana.'"—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our own times, pp.* 88-89.—"In April 1877, federal troops were ordered to cease supporting the Republican claimants; the Packard legislature withdrew; and carpet-bag government speedily disappeared.

1874-1921.—Police juries and parishes in Louisiana.—Peculiarities of local government.—Constitutional history of police juries.—Functions and limitations.—"While local government in Louisiana does not differ in its fundamental features from that of the other Southern States, the system has a somewhat distinctive nomenclature. What in other states is called the county is officially designated in Louisiana as the parish, and in place of the usual county commissioners we find a body of men with similar powers termed the police jury. The term parish government as used in Louisiana has the same significance, therefore, as the term county government in other Southern commonwealths. . . . For facilitating administration, the parishes are divided into from five to ten wards, and the general administrative and legislative functions are vested in a police jury, one member of which is chosen from each ward and additional members from wards with five thousand or more inhabitants. A police juror must meet all the residence and poll tax requirements prescribed for a regular voter, and in addition must be literate and possess, either in his own name or that of his wife, property in the parish worth $250. The members choose a president from their own number, and are compensated for their services with per diem and mileage payments. Briefly summarized, the duties and functions of the police jury consist in supervising the construction and repair of public buildings, roads, bridges and dikes; clearing natural drains; removing floating timber, aquatic plants and other obstructions in navigable streams; regulating the roving at large of live stock, controlling businesses and places that come under the police power; levying parish licenses (the so-called 'occupation taxes') and the regular taxes for the support of the parish government; establishing toll bridges and ferries, and fixing the rates on these when privately owned; protecting the parish against contagious diseases, and providing for the support of the poor. . . . The other parish officers, whose duties it is not necessary to describe, are the treasurer, clerk, coroner, superintendent of schools, school board, board of health, justice of the peace and constables. All of these, except the treasurer and the superintendent of public schools, are elected by popular vote. The treasurer is chosen by the police jury, and the superintendent of schools by the school board. There is a justice of the peace and a constable for each ward. The justices of the peace have exclusive original jurisdiction in all civil cases in which the amount in dispute does not exceed fifty dollars, and in cases involving amounts between fifty and one hundred dollars they have concurrent jurisdiction with the district courts. Each judicial district consists of from one to three parishes, according to area and population, and for each district there is a judge, a clerk and a district attorney. . . . During the past decade the problem that has received the most attention from the parishes has been that of providing better school facilities. So great has been the educational awakening in the rural districts, that this problem is now well on the way toward solution. In 1900 the state surpassed all others in illiteracy; its educational system was poorly organized and still more poorly financed, and the typical country school was little more than a rude cabin. The school growth has been especially noticeable since 1906. The parishes have been rapidly discarding the ancient one-room schoolhouses for modern consolidated schools and are steadily increasing the number of school districts for the purpose of voting special school taxes. At the close of the year ending July 1, 1912, the number of consolidated schools was 227. . . . Next in importance, perhaps, to the school problem, and to some extent interrelated with it, is the problem of good roads. It has always been recognized that the consolidation of country schools is impracticable if bad roads interfere with the transportation of pupils. A persistent campaign for better roads has been conducted for a number of years, and

the state has undertaken to coöperate with the parishes by establishing a highway department in connection with its Board of Engineers and by setting aside a small sum—in 1913, $100,000—to be used by this department in supplementing parish appropriations for the construction of model highways. Road building in Louisiana offers peculiar problems; the level alluvial lands offer many drainage difficulties and furnish scant supplies of road-building materials. . . . Drainage districts may be created in a manner similar to that prescribed for road districts. The drainage work is under the direction of five drainage commissioners, three being appointed by the police jury and two by the governor, and is financed by loans and a special tax on general property, or on land alone, the latter being known as an acreage tax or forced contribution. The control of the Mississippi River and its tributaries, while really a national question, should not be omitted from the list of local administrative problems in Louisiana."—W. O. Scroogs, *Parish government in Louisiana* (*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, May,* 1913).—"The constitutions and the statutes of Louisiana both seem to assume that the police jury is an existing institution, whose nature and purpose are so well understood as not to require definition. The Act of Congress of 1804, organizing the lower portion of the Louisiana purchase as the 'territory of Orleans,' declared that all laws then in force and not contrary to the act should remain in force until altered or repealed by the territorial legislature. Likewise, the constitution of 1812 re-enacted this provision, but did not mention police juries. Nor is there any direct reference to be found in the constitution of 1845, 1852, 1861, 1864, and 1868; though by implication, police jurors are included in the provisions concerning 'parochial and municipal officers elected by the people.' In passing, it may be noted that the constitution of 1845 refers only to *parishes,* omitting *counties* entirely. . . . Article 248 of the instrument of 1879 contains the first constitutional reference to a police jury, . . . viz, 'The police juries of the several parishes and the constituted authorities of all incorporated municipalities of the State shall alone have the power of regulating the slaughtering of cattle and other livestock within their respective limits, etc.' From this time on the references are more frequent. Three are found in the constitution of 1898, one article of which re-enacts the provision just cited, another authorizes the governor to remove, on recommendation of the police jury, a parish officer charged with collecting or keeping public funds, if in arrears; the third authorizes the police jury to form road districts, levy the necessary taxes, supervise the construction and repair of roads, bridges, etc. The constitution of 1913 is simply a revision of that of 1898, incorporating the amendments adopted in the interim, together with provision for refunding the state debt, and a few minor changes. Nine references to the police jury are found, similar to those cited above. Next year, the legislature proposed seventeen amendments, of which fourteen were adopted. One of these amended Article 281, with reference to the power of the police to create drainage districts, levy the taxes, and appoint the needful officials to perform the work. From the foregoing, it may be seen that though Louisiana has had more constitutions than any other state—nine with numerous amendments—in all of this mass of organic legislation, extending over more than a century, there are only about a dozen references to the police jury."—M. L. Bonham, *Louisiana police jury* (*South Atlantic Quarterly, Oct.,* 1916.)

1878-1900.—Governors.—Legislation.—In 1878 twenty-one amendments to the constitution were passed. In 1879 a new constitution was ratified by the people; and the successful candidate for the gubernatorial office was Louis A. Wiltz, who died in office and was succeeded by the Lieutenant-governor, Samuel D. McEnery in 1881. In 1884 McEnery was reëlected and in turn was followed by Francis T. Nicholls, 1888. "At the beginning of his second term of office [1888], Governor Nicholls gave particular attention to the development of the public-school system, which had been in a wretched condition during the Reconstruction period. Attempts had been made in New Orleans to mix the races in the schools, under a State law imposing severe penalties upon any person that refused admission to any public school of the State to a pupil on account of 'race, color, or previous condition,' but the enforcement of this law had been energetically resisted. . . . The year 1890 was marked by a campaign conducted by the Anti-Lottery League to prevent the renewal of the charter of the Louisiana State Lottery Company, which was to expire on January 1, 1894. On April 17 John A. Morris, in the name of the company, offered the State five hundred thousand dollars a year for a renewal of the lottery license for twenty-five years, and on May 12 he increased the offer to one million dollars. Governor Francis T. Nicholls, in his message to the legislature in May, 1890, opposed with great energy the recognition of lotteries by the State. . . . On June 25, 1890, the House passed a bill in the form of a constitutional amendment, authorizing John A. Morris to conduct a lottery for twenty-five years by paying to the State one million dollars annually, as follows: three hundred and fifty thousand dollars for levees; three hundred and fifty thousand dollars for public schools; one hundred and fifty thousand dollars for charitable purposes; fifty thousand dollars for pensions to Confederate soldiers; one hundred thousand dollars for drainage of New Orleans. The Senate amended the bill by increasing the price of the franchise to one million two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, the increase to go to the General Fund of the State. The House passed the amended bill on July 2, and it was sent to the governor, who vetoed it. . . . The House passed the bill over the veto of the governor, but in the Senate it failed to receive the necessary two-thirds majority. A resolution was adopted denying the constitutional right of the governor to veto a bill proposing an amendment to the Constitution. The House reconsidered its former vote, and the bill was ordered sent to the secretary of state for promulgation. The latter officer, Leonard F. Mason, refused to publish the amendment, as being illegal; but the Supreme Court of the State, on April 27, 1891, decided that the amendment need not be submitted to the governor, and that it must be published according to law and submitted to the people. The decision was given by a vote of three to two: Chief Justice Edward Bermudez, and Justices Lynn B. Watkins and Samuel D. McEnery for the decision, and Justices Charles E. Fenner and Joseph A. Breaux dissenting. An Anti-Lottery Democratic Convention, convoked by the Anti-Lottery League of Louisiana, of which William G. Vincent was president and George W. Young secretary and treasurer, was held at Baton Rouge on August 7 and 8, 1890. . . . It recommended the immediate adoption of an amendment to the Federal Constitution prohibiting any State from chartering or licensing any lottery or gift enterprise, abolishing those already established, and giving Congress power to enforce the prohibition

by appropriate legislation. It asked for speedy adoption of the legislation specially recommended by the President and Postmaster-General to exclude lottery business and advertisements from the mails and express companies. . . . The Louisiana Lottery Company was said to have an annual revenue of twenty-five million dollars, and the campaign in opposition to its re-charter was very violent and bitter. . . . Murphy J. Foster, who had been one of the strongest opponents of the Louisiana State Lottery, was elected governor, on April 19, 1892, and Charles Parlange lieutenant-governor. Ex-Governor Nicholls was appointed chief justice of the Supreme Court. During the administration of Governor Foster Louisiana prospered greatly. . . . On October 1, 1893, a terrible hurricane devastated the coast on the Mississippi Sound and that part of the country about the mouth of the river, and as far west as Last Island and Bayou Grand Caillou. At Chénière about eight hundred lives were lost, and the whole loss of life was estimated at twenty-five hundred. In his message to the Legislature, on May 14, 1894, Governor Foster said that in 1892 thirty thousand dollars were appropriated by the General Assembly for the relief of the sufferers from inundations. In 1893 the flood was scarcely less appalling and destructive, and the governor borrowed from banks about twenty-one thousand dollars to relieve the needs of the sufferers. The Wilson tariff bill caused much dissatisfaction among the sugar-planters of Louisiana, who expected bounties on their crops amounting to sixteen million dollars. They held a convention in May, 1894, and set forth arguments in favor of the continuance of protection to the sugar interest. On September 17 they held another convention and adopted resolutions earnestly recommending and urging the people of Louisiana to organize so as to stand by the national Republican party in the organization of the House of Representatives and the protection of American industries. They declared that the standing and character of the leaders of this movement were sufficient guarantee that they would ever advocate good government to the whole people of the State. . . . On April 17, 1900, the State election was held. Three tickets were in the field: the Democratic, the regular Republican, and the Republican-Fusion. . . . The Democratic ticket, headed by William Wright Heard and Albert Estopinal, was elected by a large majority, and all the members of the Legislature were Democrats."—A. Fortier, *History of Louisiana, v. 4, American domination, pt. 2*, 1861-1903, *pp.* 217-218, 220, 222-224, 228, 230, 244.

1889.—**Lynchings.** See Lynch law: Origin.

1891.—**Mafia incident.—Diplomatic difficulties with Italy.—Objection of Louisiana government to punishing offenders.—Soothing of wounded Italian feelings by federal government.**—In the spring of 1891, the chief of police at New Orleans, David C. Hennessy, unearthed a murderous secret society, known as the Mafia, which seemed to be widely spread among Italians in that city and elsewhere. In the midst of his investigations he was waylaid and shot. Nine Italians, arrested for complicity in the crime, escaped conviction when brought to trial, and a belief prevailed that the jury had been either terrorized or bribed. A mass meeting of indignant citizens was accordingly held, and the meeting resolved itself into a mob. The prison which held the alleged assassins was broken into and they were slain. "Italy at once demanded that the mob should be punished and that an indemnity should be paid. Secretary Blaine stated in reply that he regretted the affair, but he pointed out that under our federal system criminal proceedings against the mob lay within the sphere of the local Louisiana authorities, that the national government had no power in the matter. He urged upon Governor Nicholls, however, that the mob should be brought to justice, but this was a difficult thing to do, for the public believed that the dead Italians were members of a secret blackmailing organization known as the Mafia, and the lynching was generally approved. After further diplomatic exchanges Italy withdrew her minister, Baron Fava, from Washington, and the United States recalled Minister Porter from Rome. The judicial proceedings against the mob came to nothing, but Congress, not as a matter of right but as an expression of the regret felt by the United States, voted $25,000 to the families of the murdered Italians, while President Harrison in a message referred to the matter in tactful words that soothed Italian pride. In April, 1892, Minister Porter and Baron Fava returned to their respective posts and normal diplomatic relations were resumed."—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our own times, p.* 197.

1894.—**Industrial arbitration board created,** See Arbitration and Conciliation, Industrial: United States: 1886-1920.

1898.—**New state constitution.—Its "grandfather clause."**—The framing of a new constitution for the state was completed in May. Its distinctive feature is an educational qualification of the suffrage which does not apply to men who were qualified in any state to vote at the beginning of the year 1867, nor to the sons and grandsons of such men, nor to foreigners naturalized before the 1st of January, 1898. The amendment is as follows:

"Sec. 3. He (the voter) shall be able to read and write, and shall demonstrate his ability to do so when he applies for registration, by making, under oath administered by the registration officer or his deputy, written application therefor, in the English language, or his mother tongue, which application shall contain the essential facts necessary to show that he is entitled to register and vote, and shall be entirely written, dated, and signed by him, in the presence of the registration officer or his deputy, without assistance or suggestion from any person or memorandum whatever, except the form of application hereinafter set forth: Provided, however, That if the applicant be unable to write his application in the English language, he shall have the right, if he so demands, to write the same in his mother tongue from the dictation of an interpreter; and if the applicant is unable to write his application by reason of physical disability, the same shall be written at his dictation by the registration officer or his deputy, upon his oath of such disability. The application for registration, above provided for, shall be a copy of the following form, with the proper names, dates, and numbers substituted for the blanks appearing therein, to wit:

"I am a citizen of the State of Louisiana. My name is ——. I was born in the State (or country) of ——, parish (or county) of ——, on the —— day of ——, in the year ——. I am now —— years —— months and —— days of age. I have resided in this State since ——, and am not disfranchised by any provision of the constitution of this State.

"Sec. 4. If he be not able to read and write, as provided by section 3 of this article, then he shall be entitled to register and vote if he shall, at the time he offers to register, be the bona fide owner of property assessed to him in this State at a valuation of not less than $300 on the assessment roll of the current year, if the roll of the current year

shall then have been completed and filed, and on which, if such property be personal only, all taxes due shall have been paid.

"SEC. 5. No male person who was on January 1, 1867, or at any date prior thereto, entitled to vote under the constitution or statute of any State of the United States, wherein he then resided, and no son or grandson of any such person not less than 21 years of age at the date of the adoption of this constitution, and no male person of foreign birth, who was naturalized prior to the first day of January, 1898, shall be denied the right to register and vote in this State by reason of his failure to possess the educational or property qualifications prescribed by this constitution: Provided, He shall have resided in this State for five years next preceding the date at which he shall apply for registration, and shall have registered in accordance with the terms of this article prior to September 1, 1898; and no person shall be entitled to register under this section after said date." This constitution, with its "grandfather clause" to disfranchise the negro, reduced the negro registration to about 7,000 as against over 120,000 whites.

1904-1920.—Legislation.—Part played in the World War.—In 1904, Newton C. Blanchard became governor and was succeeded, in 1908 by Jared Y. Sanders. In June, of that year, Louisiana followed the example of New York in passing an act for the suppression of race-track gambling. In 1912, Luther E. Hall was elected governor. In 1913 an act was passed for the textual revision of the state constitution. In 1916, new primary and general election laws were passed; and of the eighteen constitutional amendments submitted to voters seventeen were adopted. One of these amendments was a plan providing separate assessments of the same property for state and local purposes, and designed as a means for the reformation of the tax system. In 1918, fourteen more amendments were submitted of which thirteen were adopted; and Ruffin G. Pleasant was elected governor. During the World War, the State furnished 65,988 men or 1.76 per cent of the expeditionary forces. In 1920 John M. Parker became governor.

1914-1916.—Sugar situation.—"Louisiana devotes about 300,000 acres to cane [sugar production] and normally produces from 250 to 300 thousand tons of sugar, mostly raw. . . . The passage of the Underwood tariff bill in 1913 providing free sugar in 1916, coming at a time when prices of sugar were exceedingly low, gave the Louisiana sugar a serious set back."—*United States Sugar Manufacturers Association: Concerning sugar,* 1921, *paragraph* 132, *p.* c.31.—The cane sugar (chiefly raw) production, 1914-1915, was 242,700 short tons; and by 1915-1916 it had dropped to 137,500 short tons.

1920.—Workmen's compensation law. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: United States: 1920.

1921.—New constitution.—Changes in the machinery of government.—Unification and coördination of educational system.—"The State of Louisiana is now governed by new organic law. For the ninth time since its admission to the Union, a new constitution has been adopted. The 1921 Constitution is not a radical document. In a few instances the fundamentals are greatly changed from those in former constitutions, but the changes made deal more with the machinery of operation of the state government and its increased cost. This change in the machinery of government is especially noted in the schedules on the judicial and legislative departments of State government and in the educational schedule. The article embracing the Bill of Rights was brought forward from the old Constitution with but one important change. This is a prohibition of the use of the so-called third degree methods and prohibition of the use of confessions in trials of accused persons unless the confessions are freely and voluntarily made. The Supreme Court is increased by two members and the district courts have been radically changed. The number of districts in the State has been decreased from 30 to 25 and the number of judges decreased from 37 to 29. The judiciary system, as perfected under the new Constitution, provides for an elastic court under control of the Supreme Court, instead of the legislature. By reason of this elasticity, the entire judicial system of the State can function as the needs require and put an end to long delay. Although there are eight fewer district judges, the Supreme Court can order any district judge into another district to clear up a congested docket. If the Circuit Court of Appeals becomes congested, the Supreme Court can create an extra circuit by calling upon three district judges to sit as appellate judges until the congested docket is cleared. If the Supreme Court docket becomes congested, the Supreme Court can call in two appellate judges and thus form another division of the highest court until the congestion is relieved. Membership in the Legislature has been reduced by 20 seats, 18 in the House of Representatives and two in the Senate. Split sessions of the law-making body are provided by requiring that all legislative matter be introduced during the first 30 days of the session. One of the most important changes in the new Constitution is that providing for a new method of taxation. . . . The new system embraces these forms of taxation: Classified property tax, inheritance tax, occupational license tax, severance tax and income tax. The income tax cannot be levied until after May 1, 1924. Under the provisions the taxpayer will be allowed to deduct his other state and local taxes from his income before the application of whatever rate the Legislature may fix. The unification and coördination of the educational system is a big step forward. Parish and state systems retain their identity. The State Board of Education is partly elective and partly appointive. Eight elective members are provided, one from each congressional district, and three are to be appointed by the Governor. The state Superintendent of Education will be elected by this board instead of being elected by the people. The Constitution of 1921 results from the appeal of Gov. John M. Parker to the people of the State, and the work can be properly called that of a reform administration."—*Christian Science Monitor, June* 21, 1921.

ALSO IN: T. J. Cross, *Eclecticism of the law of Louisiana* (*American Law Review, May-June,* 1921).

LOUISIANA, Constitution of. See LOUISIANA: 1874-1921; 1921.

LOUISIANA, District of. See IOWA: 1673-1834; LOUISIANA: 1803-1804.

LOUISIANA, Upper. See MISSOURI.

LOUISIANA PURCHASE. See U.S.A.: 1803: Louisiana Purchase.

Louisiana Purchase exposition. See ST. LOUIS: 1904.

LOUISIANA SLAVE CODE. See BLACK CODES: Louisiana slave code.

LOUISVILLE, largest city in Kentucky, on the Ohio river. The population in 1920 was 234,891.

1862.—Threatened by Confederate army under Bragg. See U.S.A.: 1862 (June-October: Tennessee-Kentucky).

1877.—International convention of Y.M.C.A.

and student movement. See YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1858-1885.

LOUTH, province in Leinster county, Ireland. It was under English control in 1367, and in 1423 was raided by the Ulsterites. See IRELAND: 1327-1367; 1413-1467.

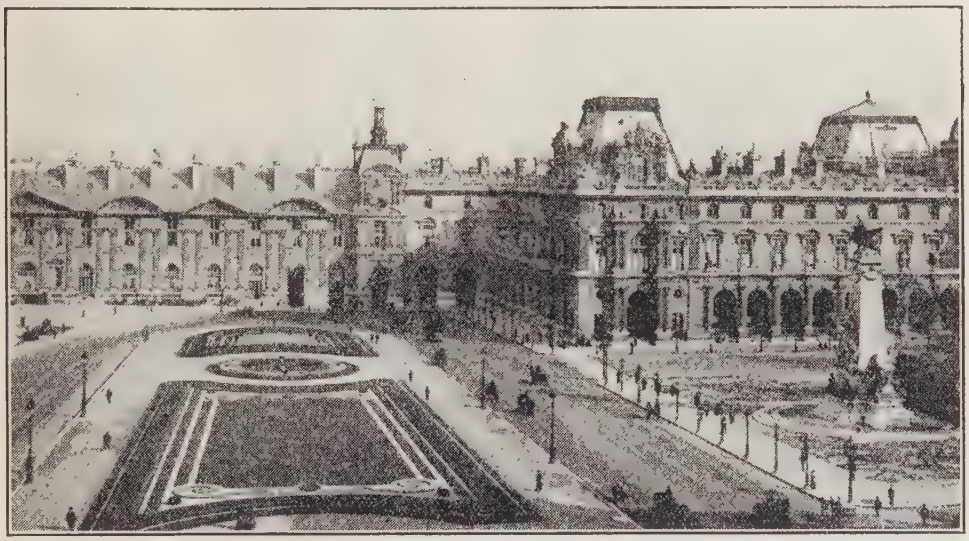
LOUVAIN, city in the province of Brabant, Belgium, fifteen miles east of Brussels. (See NETHERLANDS: Map). It is the seat of Belgium's greatest university, which with its library was burned and sacked by the Germans during the World War. In 1920, the population was 39,450.

891.—Capture by Arnulf from Northmen. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-9th centuries.

1706.—Taken by Marlborough and the Allies. See NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707.

1914.—Captured and sacked by the Germans. See BELGIUM: 1914-1918: German occupation; WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: **c, 1; d;** also Miscellaneous auxiliary services: **X.** Alleged atrocities, etc.: **a, 7; a, 9.**

600-1548. — Early history. — Residence of French monarchs.—Progressive building of the Louvre.—"The early history of the Louvre is involved in great obscurity. The name of its founder and the period of its erection are alike unknown; the first notice of it we meet with upon record is in the 7th century, when Dagobert kept here his horses and hounds. The kings [Merovingeans] called 'fainéans' often visited it, when after dinner they rode in a sort of coach through the forest, which covered this side of the river, and in the evening returned in a boat, fishing by the way, to the city, where they supped and slept. There is no mention of this royal dwelling under the second, nor even under the third race of kings, till the reign of Philip Augustus. About the year 1204, that prince converted it into a kind of citadel, surrounded with wide ditches and flanked with towers. . . . The walls erected by Philip Augustus did not take in the Louvre, but after having remained outside of Paris more than six centuries, it was enclosed by the walls begun in 1367, under Charles V., and finished in 1383, under Charles VI. . . . Charles IX., Henry III., Henry IV., and Louis XIII., inhabited the Louvre and added to its buildings. Nothing remains of the old château of Philip Augustus, which Charles V. repaired; the most ancient part now in existence is that called 'le Vieux Louvre,' begun by Francis I. in 1539, and finished by Henry II. in 1548."—*History of Paris, v. 2, ch. 2.*



THE LOUVRE MUSEUM, PARIS

1548-1921.—Obscuring of original Gothic designs.—Failure to complete it.—Resumption of building operation by Napoleon.—Present character as a national museum.—"Francis I. did little more than decide the fate of the old Louvre by introducing the new fashion. His successors went on with the work; and the progress of it may be followed, reign after reign, till the last visible fragment of the Gothic castle had been ruthlessly carted away. . . . Vast as is the Louvre that we know, it is as nothing in comparison with the prodigious scheme imagined by Richelieu and Louis XIII.; a scheme which, though never carried out, gave a very strong impulse to the works, and ensured the completion of the present building, at least in a subsequent reign. . . . Happily for the

1919.—Reconstruction.—Library gifts.—Versailles Treaty regulations regarding university. See BELGIUM: 1919: Reconstruction; (June 28); LIBRARIES: Modern: Library gifts.

Library of. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Belgium; also Carnegie library gifts.

LOUVEMONT, village east of the Meuse, five miles north of Verdun, France. In 1916, it was taken by the Germans and some months later retaken by the French. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: b, 8.

LOUVOIS, François Michel le Tellier, Marquis de (1641-1691), French statesman. Minister of war, 1666-1691. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 16.

LOUVRE, The.—"The Louvre is . . . the National Gallery of France. It was originally intended as a palace for Royalty, but it has not been the residence of a French monarch since the minority of Louis XV. During the latter years of Napoleon I this gallery was the richest and most magnificent that existed, having then to boast the *chefs-d'oeuvres* of Rome, Florence, and in fact, of the greater part of Continental Europe, carried off by the conquering legions of France."—T. Greenwood, *Museums and art galleries, p.* 327.

Louvre Louis XIV. interested himself in it before he engulfed his millions at Marly and Versailles." —P. G. Hammerton, *Paris in old and present times, ch.* 6.—"Until 1802 the greater part of the Louvre remained without a roof, and the whole seemed to be destined to fall into ruin. Napoleon I, however, resumed the works, and under him the Louvre was finished, and the surrounding streets and places cleared. Charles IX inhabited the old Louvre, and is said to have fired from its windows on the victims of the Saint Bartholomew. The space between the old Louvre and the Tuileries had long been disfigured by a number of old buildings. In 1852, Napoleon III decreed that a million pounds sterling be spent in clearing away these, and uniting the two palaces. The expenditure of so large a sum has given France the finest Museum buildings probably in the world. Almost all the interior of this palace is devoted to the Museums collectively known as the Musées du Louvre, for which it is so celebrated. The works in sculpture—statues, busts, vases, and inscriptions —are distributed in five collections. The ancient Greek and Roman marbles occupy the lower part of the South-west, a part of the ground floor and two large halls. . . . To the left on entering there is a long hall, at the end of which is the Rotonde. The five rooms of this suite are devoted to works of Greek and Roman sculpture. The celebrated Venus of Milo is in the Salle de Diane. Leading out of the Hall of the Caryatides, so called from four colossal caryatides by Goujon, a French sculptor . . . is the Long Hall, one of a suite of apartments decorated for Catherine de Medici. . . . The rich Egyptian collections of statues, Sphinxes sarcophagi and the larger and more cumbrous specimens of Egyptian art are in two halls on the ground floor. . . . The Assyrian and Phoenician Museum fills six rooms on the eastern side of the quadrangle, and a vestibule on the northern side. It contains valuable specimens of Assyrian sculpture. . . . The other rooms contain Phoenician sarcophagi, and curious sculptures, inscriptions, urns, etc. from Asia Minor. . . . The Museum of Sculpture of the Middles Ages and of the Renaissance . . . consists of several sepulchral monuments which were rescued from churches destroyed in the Revolution, and of works by Michael Angelo, Cellini, Mino du Fiesole, Cousin, Pilon, Michel Colomb, and others. . . . The famous Great Gallery (Musée des Tableaux des Ecoles Italiennes et Flamandes), contains pictures by the Italian masters. The western half of the Great Gallery is devoted to the Flemish, Dutch, and German schools. . . . Also at the western end of the Great Gallery is a suite of rooms in which have been hung the paintings of the French school of the sixteenth century. . . . The Musées de la Marine contains models of Oriental boats and vessels, etc. . . . Beyond this Museum is the Musée Ethnographique, a collection of articles of domestic use and of manufacture of uncivilised nations, together with Chinese manufactures, and objects from India and elsewhere."—T. Greenwood, *Museums and art galleries, pp.* 327-332.

LOVCHEN, or Lovcen.—The "Black Mountain" from which the name of Montenegro is derived, is situated in the former kingdom of Montenegro, now included in Jugo-Slavia, overlooking the bay of Cattaro, on the Adriatic sea. In the early stages of the World War, Lovchen was the chief defensive position of Montenegro, as it commanded the bay, at that time Austrian territory, and also guarded the road to Cettinje, the capital. Owing to lack of heavy artillery the position easily succumbed to Austrian attacks on January 11, 1916, and Cettinje fell three days later. The height of the mountain is about 5,700 feet. See World War: 1916: V. Balkan theater: a.

LOVEJOY, Elijah Parish (1802-1837), American abolitionist. See Slavery: 1837.

LOVELL, James (1737-1814), American patriot, member of the Continental Congress, 1776-1782. See State department of the United States: 1774-1789.

LOVÉN, Sven Ludvig (1809-1895), Swedish zoölogist and explorer. See Spitsbergen: 1827-1898.

LOVERS, War of the (1580). See France: 1578-1580.

LOVETT, Robert Scott (1860-), American railway president. See Railroads: 1916-1920.

LOW, Seth (1850-1916), American educator and publicist. Mayor of Brooklyn, 1882-1886; president of Columbia University, 1890-1901; delegate to peace conference at The Hague, 1899; mayor of New York, 1901-1903; head of commission to settle Colorado miners' strike, 1914.

Campaign for mayor of Greater New York. See New York City: 1897.

American commissioner to peace conference at The Hague. See Hague conferences: 1899: Conference.

Mayor of New York.—Reforms. See New York City: 1901-1903.

Endowment of Columbia University Library. See Gifts and bequests.

LOW CHURCH. See England: 1689 (April-August).

LOW COUNTRIES. See Belgium; Netherlands.

LOWE, Ralph Phillips (1805-1883), governor of Iowa, 1858-1860. See Iowa: 1848-1860.

LOWE, Robert, Viscount Sherbrooke. See Sherbrooke, Robert Lowe, Viscount.

LOWELL, Abbott Lawrence (1865-), American educator. President of Harvard University since 1909. See Academic freedom: Opinion of President Lowell.

LOWELL, Francis Cabot (1775-1817), American merchant and manufacturer. See Industrial revolution: United States.

LOWELL, James Russell (1819-1891), American man of letters and diplomat. Minister to Madrid, 1877-1880; minister to London, 1880-1885. See American literature: 1830-1890; Libraries: Modern: United States: American library association.

LOWELL INSTITUTE, Boston, founded in 1839. See Education: Modern developments: 20th century: Extension work.

LOWER CALIFORNIA. See Baja California.

LOWLANDS OF SCOTAND. See Scotch highlands and lowlands.

LOWNDES, William (1782-1822), American political leader and legislator. See U. S. A.: 1810-1812.

LOWOSITZ, or Lobowitz, Battle of. See Germany: 1756.

LOYALISTS, in the American Revolution. See New York: 1775; Tories: Of the American Revolution, etc.; U. S. A.: 1775-1783.

LOYALTY ISLANDS, in the Pacific ocean, east of New Caledonia. See Melanesia.

LOYOLA, Saint Ignatius of (Inigo Lopez de Recalde) (1491-1556), Spanish nobleman and founder of the Jesuits. Founded the Society of Jesus, 1534, and elected its first general, 1541; wrote the "Spiritual Exercises" and the "Constitutions," 1537-1556; beatified, 1609; canonized, 1622. See Jesuits: 1540-1556; Christianity; 16th cen-

tury: Counter-Reformation; EDUCATION: Modern: 16th century: Jesuit teaching, etc.; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Catholic Reformation; NAVARRE: 1442-1521.

LU CHUN, name of reorganized Chinese army, provided for by an imperial decree in 1907. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 25.

LÜBECK, capital of the state of the same name, Germany, forty miles northeast of Hamburg. (See GERMANY: Map.) The population in 1919 was 120,568.

Origin and rise.—"Near the mouth of the river Trave there had long existed a small settlement of pirates or fishermen. The convenient harbour had led to this settlement and had been much frequented by Christian merchants. The unsettled state of the country, however, afforded them little security, and it had been often taken and plundered by the Pagan freebooters. When Henry acquired the dominion of the soil [Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, who subdued the heathen Wendish tribe of the Oborites, 11[illegible] and added their country to his dominions] he paid particular attention to this infant establishment, and under the shadow of his power the city of Lübeck (for so it became) arose on a broad and permanent basis. He made it . . . the seat of a bishop; he also established a mint and a custom-house, and by the grant of a municipal government, he secured the personal, while he prepared the way for the political, rights of its burghers. The ancient name of the harbour was Wisby, and by proclamation addressed to the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, and Russians, he invited them to frequent it, with an assurance that the ways should be open and secure by land and water. . . . This judicious policy was rewarded by a rapid and large increase to the wealth and commerce of Lübeck." A. Halliday, *Annals of the House of Hanover*, v. *pp.* 229-230. —See also HANSA TOWNS.

1140.—Modern city founded. See COMMERCE: Medieval: 12th-13th centuries.

1803.—One of the six free cities which survived the Peace of Lunéville. See GERMANY: 1801-1803; CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY.

1806.—Retains imperial freedom.—Battle of French and Prussians. See GERMANY: 1805-1806; 1806 (October).

1810.—Annexation to France. See FRANCE: 1810 (February-December).

1810-1815.—Loses and regains position as free city. See CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1813.—Re-establishment of free town republic. See GERMANY: 1813 (October-December).

1866.—Surrender of free privileges.—Absorption in Zollverein and empire. See GERMANY: 1888: End of the Free Cities.

1900.—Elbe and Trave canalized. See GERMANY: 1900 (June).

LÜBECK, Treaty of (1629). See GERMANY: 1627-1629.

LUBIN, David (1849-1919), American merchant. See AGRICULTURE, INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF.

LUBLIN, city in Poland, nineteen miles southeast of Warsaw. In 1916 it was taken from the Russians by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 3; i, 4.

LUBLIN, Diet of (1569). See POLAND: 1333-1572.

LUCANIANS, in ancient times the inhabitants of a district in southern Italy. See SABINES; SAMNITES; ROME: Map of ancient Italy.

B. C. 90-88.—Revolt against the Romans. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 90-88.

LUCANUS, Marcus Annæus (39-65), Latin writer. See LATIN LITERATURE: 14-117.

LUCAS, Robert (1781-1853), American statesman. Governor of Iowa, 1838-1841. See IOWA: 1838-1848.

LUCAYANS, name given originally to the Bahama islands and their Indian inhabitants. See BAHAMA ISLANDS: 1492-1783.

LUCCA, capital of a province of the same name in Tuscany, Italy, thirteen miles northeast of Pisa. The population in 1915 was 79,110.

8th century.—Seat of the Tuscan government. See TUSCANY: 685-1115.

1248-1278.—Wars of the Guelphs and Ghibellines. See FLORENCE: 1248-1278.

1284-1293.—War with Pisa. See PISA: 1063-1293.

1314-1328.—Tyranny of Uguccione della Faggiuola, and the longer despotism of Castruccio Castracani.—Erected into imperial duchy. See ITALY: 1313-1330.

1335-1341.—Acquired by Mastino della Scala of Verona.—Sold to Florence.—Taken by Pisa. See FLORENCE: 1341-1343; VERONA: 1250-1338.

1801.—Provided with a constitution by France. See FRANCE: 1802 (June-October).

1815.—One of the eight Italian states, after the Congress of Vienna. See ITALY: 1814-1815.

LUCENA, Battle of (1483). See SPAIN: 1476-1492.

LUCERES, early patrician tribe in Rome. See ROME: Ancient kingdom: Genesis of the people.

LUCERNE, capital of the canton of the same name, Switzerland, on the Reuss. In 1920 the population was 44,029. Its history dates back to the 11th century. It was bought by the House of Hapsburg in 1291, and entered the Swiss federation in 1332. (See SWITZERLAND: 1332-1460.) In the 15th century it entered into an agreement with the papacy concerning the furnishing of Swiss guards to the popes. (See VATICAN: 15th century.) It became the capital of the Helvetic republic in 1798. Lucerne was the head of the Sonderbund in 1844, but capitulated to the federal troops three years later.

LUCERNE, Treaty of (1560). See SAVOY AND PIEDMONT: 1559-1580.

LUCHANA, Battle of (1836). See SPAIN: 1833-1846.

LUCHU ISLANDS, chain of islands stretching from Formosa to Kiushiu, belonging to Japan. See JAPAN: Name.

LUCIAN (c. 120-180), Greek writer. See GREEK LITERATURE: Greco-Roman period: Lucian, etc.

LUCIENTES, Francisco Goya y. See GOYA Y LUCIENTES, FRANCISCO.

LUCILIUS, Gaius (c. 168-103 B. C.), Latin poet. See EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Origins; LATIN LITERATURE: B. C. 234-103.

LUCIUS II (d. 1145), pope, 1144-1145.

Lucius III (d. 1185), pope, 1181-1185.

LUCK. See LUTSK.

LUCKA, Battle of (1308). See GERMANY: 1273-1308.

LUCKNOW, city of British India, formerly the capital of Oudh. (See INDIA: Map.) It is best known in connection with the long siege in the Indian mutiny, 1857. The population in 1921 was 243,553.—See also INDIA: 1857 (May-August); 1857-1858.

Treaty of (1801). See INDIA: 1798-1805.

LUCOTECIA, Luketia or Lutetia, Roman

fort on the present site of Paris. See PARIS: Beginning.

LUCRETIUS (98-55 B. C.), Latin poet. See LATIN LITERATURE: B. C. 82-43; EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Origins; EVOLUTION: Historical development of the idea.

LUCULUS, Lucius Licinius (c. 110-56 B. C.), Roman general. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 78-68.

LUD, ancient Lydia (q. v.).

LUDDITES, name taken by the rioters of 1811-1812 and 1816 at Nottingham, England. See ENGLAND: 1812-1813.

LUDENDORFF, Erich von (1865-), German general. Associated with Hindenburg in the higher command of the German armies; chief quartermaster-general, 1916; strategist of the German general staff in the World War; author and director of the 1918 offensive.

Policy in campaigns. See WORLD WAR: 1916: I. Military situations: d, 5.

Report on Russian offensive. See WORLD WAR: 1916: III. Eastern front: a, 4.

Disbelief in American power. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: a.

Report on the plans for the battle of Picardy. See WORLD WAR: 1918: Western front: b, 1.

Offensive for Paris. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 1; g, 7.

Second battle of the Marne. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 12.

Report on the 1918 operations on the western front. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: t.

LUDERITZ, Franz Adolf Eduard (1834-1886), German merchant. Founder of the first German colony in Southwest Africa. See SOUTHWEST AFRICA: 1884.

LUDERITZ BAY, name given by Germany to the port of Angra Pequeña, Southwest Africa. In September, 1914, it was occupied by the forces of the Union of South Africa. See SOUTHWEST AFRICA: 1908-1914; WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: b; 1915: VIII. Africa: a, i.

LUDERS, Alexander Nikolayevitch, Count (1790-1874), Russian general. See HUNGARY: 1847-1849.

LUDI.—LUDI CIRCENSES.—"Public games (Ludi) formed an important feature in the worship of the gods [in ancient Rome], and in the earlier ages were always regarded as religious rites; so that the words Ludi, Feriae and Dies Festi are frequently employed as synonymous. Games celebrated every year upon a fixed day were denominated Ludi Stati. Such were the Ludi Romani s. Magni, held invariably on the 21st of September; the Megalesia on 4th April; the Floralia on 28th April, and many others. . . . Another classification of Ludi was derived from the place where they were exhibited and the nature of the exhibition: . . . 1. Ludi Circenses, chariot races and other games exhibited in a circus. 2. Ludi Scenici, dramatic entertainments exhibited in a theatre. 3. Munera Gladiatoria, prize-fights, which were usually exhibited in an amphitheatre."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquity, ch.* 10.

LUDI FRANCICI, Frankish games. See FRANKS: 306.

LUDI MAXIMI ROMANI. Roman festival. See ROMAN CITY FESTIVAL.

LUDI SAECULARES, Roman games. See SECULAR GAMES AT ROME.

LUDLOW, William (1843-1901), American general. Served in the Spanish-American War. See CUBA: 1898-1899 (December-October).

LUDLOW, town in Massachusetts, seven miles northeast of Springfield. Strikes occurred here in 1911. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911.

LUDLOW, mining district in Colorado. It was the scene of an important coal strike, 1910-1914. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1910-1914.

LUDOVISI, name of Roman family. See ROME: Modern city: 1600-1656.

LUDWIG. See LOUIS.

LUDWIGSHAVEN, town in Bavaria, Germany. In 1915, in was bombed by the French. See WORLD WAR: 1915 X. War in the air.

LUGARD, Sir Frederick John Dealtry (1858-), British soldier and explorer. See NIGERIA: 1901-1913; 1914: Amalgamation, etc.

LUGDUNENSIS, or Lugdunum, ancient name of Lyons. See LYONS: Under the Romans.

LUGUVALLIUM, Roman military station at the western extremity of the Roman wall in Britain; the site of the modern city of Carlisle.—H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain, ch.* 8.

LUIS, or Luiz. See LOUIS.

LUITPERTUS, king of the Lombards, 700-701.

LUKE, Saint, author of the third gospel and the Book of Acts. See CHRISTIANITY: Three stages in the development.

LUKETIA, or Lutetia, or Lucotecia, Roman fort on the present site of Paris. See PARIS: Beginning.

LUKIN, Henry Timson (1860-), British general. See WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: b; 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 2.

LULE BUGAS, Battle of (1912). See BALKAN STATES: 1912-1913.

LULEAN INDIANS, South American tribe. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Pampean area.

LU-LIANG, ancient name of Tonkin. See INDO-CHINA: B. C. 218-A. D. 1886.

LULLY, Jean Baptiste (c. 1633-1687), French composer of Italian birth. Founder of the French school of opera, and creator of the musical form known as the overture; appointed director of music to Louis XIV and later head of the Academie Royale de Musique. His most important works are his "Miserere," "Alceste," and "Armide." See MUSIC: Modern: 1645-1764.

LULLY, Lull, or Lullo, Raymond (c. 1235-1315), Spanish alchemist and missionary. Entered the third order of St. Francis, 1272; persuaded King James of Aragon to found a monastery in Majorca to train missionaries for the conversion of the Mussulmans, 1275; went to Tunis to carry on this work, 1291-1293, 1306-1307; induced Pope Clement V to provide for the instruction in oriental languages at Rome, Paris, Oxford, Bologna, and Salamanca; undertook his third mission to Africa, 1315.—See also EUROPE: Middle Ages: Science; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: 11th-16th centuries.

LUNA, Alvaro de (c. 1385-1453), Spanish statesman. Minister in the reign of John II. See SPAIN: 1368-1479.

LUNACHARSKY, A. V., Russian educator. Commissar of education in Russia, 1919. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Russia.

LUND, Battle of (1676). See SWEDEN: 1644-1697.

LUNDY, Benjamin (1789-1839), American philanthropist active in the anti-slavery movement. See SLAVERY: 1828-1832.

LUNDY'S LANE, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1814 (July-September).

LÜNEBURG, medieval duchy in Germany. See Saxony; Gypsies.

LÜNEBURG HEATH, Battle of (880). See Ebbsdorf, or Lüneburg Heath, Battle of.

LUNÉVILLE, city of northeastern France, twenty miles southeast of Nancy. In the Middle Ages and the eighteenth century it was the scene of much fighting. In 1801 a treaty was signed here by France and Austria confirming the former in the possession of the left bank of the Rhine. In the World War, the Germans seized the town but the French regained it and defended it throughout the struggle. The Americans for a time held trenches near Lunéville.

Treaty of (1801). See Germany: 1801-1803; Austria: 1798-1806; France: 1801-1802.

LUNG CHI-KWANG, Chinese soldier and administrator. Military governor of Kwangsi. See China: 1913.

LUPERCAL, LUPERCALIA.—The Lupercal was the wolf cave in which, according to Roman legend, the twins, Romulus and Remus, were nursed by a she-wolf. It was supposed to be situated at the foot of the Palatine Hill. "The Lupercal is described by Dionysius as having once been a large grotto, shaded with thick bushes and large trees, and containing a copious spring of water. This grotto was dedicated to Lupercus, an ancient Latin pastoral divinity, who was worshipped by shepherds as the protector of their flocks against wolves. A festival was held every year, on the 15th of February, in the Lupercal, in honour of Lupercus; the place contained an altar and a grove sacred to the god. . . . Gibbon tells us the festival of the Lupercalia, whose origin had preceded the foundation of Rome, was still celebrated in the reign of Anthemus, 472."—H. M. Westropp, *Early and imperial Rome, p.* 35.—"At the Lupercalia youths ran through the streets dressed in goats' skins, beating all those they met with strips of goats' leather."—W. Ihne, *History of Rome, bk.* 1, *ch.* 13.

LUPKOW PASS, route through the Carpathians, between Slovakia and Galicia. During the World War, 1914-1915, it was held for a time by the Russians. See World War: 1915: III. Eastern front: c; e.

LURISTAN, province in western Persia. See Persia: 1909.

LÜS, Chinese musical instrument. See Music: Ancient: B. C. 2852-478.

LUSATIA, district in Germany, between the Oder and Elbe rivers. After being held by Brandenburg, the whole of Lusatia came into Bohemian possession in the fourteenth century. In 1635, by the Peace of Prague, the territory passed to Saxony, but in 1815, by the Treaty of Vienna, large portions of it were ceded to Prussia.—See also Brandenburg: 928-1142; 1142-1152; Vienna, Congress of.

LUSIGNAN, House of, French noble family. Guy of Lusignan was its most celebrated member. See Jerusalem: 1144-1187; 1187-1229; 1291; Cyprus: 1191; 1192-1489.

LUSITANIA, LUSITANIANS.—The Lusitani or Lusitanians were the people who resisted the Roman conquest of Spain most obstinately—with even more resolution than their neighbors and kinsmen, the Celtiberians. In 153 B. C. they defeated a Roman army, which lost 6,000 men. The following year they inflicted another defeat, on the prætor Mummius, who lost 9,000 of his soldiers. Again, in 151, the prætor Galba suffered a loss of 7,000 men at their hands. But, in 150 Galba ravaged the Lusitanian country so effectually that they sued for peace. Pretending to arrange terms of friendship with them, this infamous Roman persuaded three large bands of the Lusitanians to lay down their arms, which being done he surrounded them with his troops and massacred them in cold blood. One of the few who escaped was a man named Viriathus, who became thenceforth the leader of his surviving countrymen in a guerrilla warfare which lasted for ten years, and which cost the Romans thousands of men. In the end they could not vanquish Viriathus, but basely bribed some traitors in his own camp to murder him. The Roman province which was afterwards formed out of the country of the Lusitanians, and which took their name, has been mistakenly identified with the modern kingdom of Portugal, which it coincided with only in part.—Based on W. Ihne, *History of Rome, bk.* 5, *ch.* 6. See Portugal: Early history.—On the settlement of the Alans, see Spain, 409-414.

LUSITANIA CASE.—Equipment.—German warning.—Details of trip.—The disaster.—German guilt.—"On May 1, 1915, the British passenger-carrying merchant-man 'Lusitania' sailed from New York bound for Liverpool, with 1,257 passengers and a crew of 702, making a total of 1,959 souls on board, men, women and children. At approximately 2:10 on the afternoon of May 7, 1915, weather clear and sea smooth, without warning, the vessel was torpedoed and went down by the head in about 18 minutes, with an ultimate tragic loss of life of 1,195. . . . So far as equipment went, the vessel was seaworthy in the highest sense. Her carrying capacity was 2,198 passengers and a crew of about 850 or about 3,000 persons in all. She had 22 open life boats capable of accommodating 1,322 persons, 26 collapsible boats with a capacity of 1,283, making a total of 48 boats with a capacity for 2,605, in all, or substantially in excess of the requirements of her last voyage. . . . The proof is absolute that she was not and never had been armed nor did she carry any explosives. She did carry some 18 fuse cases and 125 shrapnel cases consisting merely of empty shells without any powder charge, 4,200 cases of safety cartridges and 189 cases of infantry equipment, such as leather fittings, pouches, and the like. All these were for delivery abroad but none of these munitions could be exploded by setting them on fire in mass or in bulk nor by subjecting them to impact. She had been duly inspected on March 17, April 15, 16 and 17, all in 1915, and before she left New York, the boat gear and boats were examined, overhauled, checked up and defective articles properly replaced. . . . [On previous trips, since the German proclamation of March 4, certain precautions had been observed. Every ship passing through the war zone received special advice and information from the British admiralty.] On Saturday, May 1, 1915, the advertised sailing date of the 'Lusitania' from New York to Liverpool on the voyage on which she was subsequently sunk, there appeared the following advertisement in the New York *Times,* New York *Tribune,* New York *Sun,* New York *Herald* and the New York *World,* this advertisement being in all instances, except one, placed directly over, under or adjacent to the advertisement of the Cunard Line regarding the sailing of the 'Lusitania':

" Travelers intending to embark on the Atlantic voyage are reminded that a state of war exists between Germany and her allies and Great Britain and her allies. That the zone of war includes the waters adjacent to the British Isles. That in accordance with formal notice given by the Imperial German Government vessels flying the flag of Great

Britain or of any of her allies are liable to destruction in those waters and that travelers sailing in the war zone on ships of Great Britain or her allies do so at their own risk.

IMPERIAL GERMAN EMBASSY,
APRIL 22, 1915. WASHINGTON, D. C.

"No one familiar with the British character would expect that such a threat would accomplish more than to emphasize the necessity of taking every precaution to protect life and property, which the exercise of judgment would invite. And, so, as scheduled, the 'Lusitania' sailed, undisguised, with her four funnels and a figure so familiar as to be readily discernible not only by naval officers and mariners, but by the ocean-going public generally. The voyage was uneventful until May 6. . . . Realizing that if there was a due warning in accordance with international law and an opportunity, within a limited time, for the passengers to leave the ship, nevertheless that the operation must be quickly done, Captain Turner, on May 6, had taken the full precautions. . . . The principal features of the Admiralty advices were (1) to give the headlands a wide berth; (2) to steer a mid-channel course; (3) to maintain as high a speed as practicable; (4) to zig-zag and (5) to make ports, if possible, at dawn, thus running the last part of the voyage at night. The reason for the advice as to keeping off headlands was that the submarines lurked near those prominent headlands and landfalls to and from which ships were likely to go. This instruction Captain Turner entirely followed in respect of Fastnet which was the first point on the Irish coast which a vessel bound from New York to Liverpool would ordinarily approach closely. At 11:25 a. m. on May 7, Captain Turner received the wireless from the Admiralty plainly intended for the 'Lusitania,' informing him that submarines (plural) were active in the southern part of the Irish Channel and when last heard of were 20 miles south of Coningbeg Light Vessel. This wireless message presented acutely to the Captain the problem as to the best course to pursue, always bearing in mind his determination and the desirability of getting to the Liverpool Bar when it could be crossed while the tide served and without a pilot. . . . The tide would be high at Liverpool Bar at 6:53 on Saturday morning, May 8. Captain Turner planned to cross the Bar as much earlier than that as he could get over without stopping, while at the same time figuring on passing during the darkness the dangerous waters from the entrance to St. George's Channel to the Liverpool Bar. Having thus in mind his objective, and the time approximately when he intended to reach it, the message received at 11:25 a. m. required that he should determine whether to keep off land approximately the same distance as he was when he passed Fastnet, or to work in shore and go close to Coningbeg Lightship. He determined that the latter was the better plan to avoid the submarines reported in midchannel ahead of him. When Galley Head was sighted, the course was changed so as to haul closer to the land and this course was pursued until 1:40 p. m., at which time Captain Turner concluded that it was necessary for him to get his bearings accurately. . . . At 1:50 p. m. the Captain started to take a four-point bearing on the Old Head of Kinsale and while thus engaged and at about 2:10 p. m., . . . the ship was torpedoed on the starboard side. Whether one, two or three torpedoes were fired at the vessel cannot be determined with certainty. Two of the ship's crew were confident that a third torpedo was fired and missed the ship. . . . Two sudden and extraordinary explosions, the ship badly listed so that the port side was well up in the air, the passengers scattered about on the decks and in the staterooms, saloons and companionways, the ship under headway and, as it turned out, only 18 minutes afloat—such was the situation which confronted the officers, crew and passengers in the endeavor to save the lives of those on board. The conduct of the passengers constitutes an enduring record of calm heroism with many individual instances of sacrifice and, in general, a marked consideration for women and children. There was no panic but, . . . as the increasing list rendered ineffective the lowering of the boats on the port side, the passengers . . . crowded over on the starboard side. The problem presented to the officers of the ship was one of exceeding difficulty, occasioned largely because of the serious list and the impossibility of stopping the ship or reducing her headway. . . . Two port boats were lowered to the water and got away (though one afterward filled) and not one boat reached Queenstown. . . . On the starboard side . . . the boats swung so far out as to add to the difficulty of passengers getting in them, a difficulty intensified by the fact that many more passengers went to the starboard side than to the port side and also, that the ship maintained her way. Six boats successfully got away. In the case of the remaining boats, some were successfully lowered but later met with some unavoidable accident and some were not successfully launched. . . . The collapsible boats on the deck under the open lifeboats . . . were cut loose and some people were saved on these. . . . That the attack was deliberate and long contemplated and intended ruthlessly to destroy human life, as well as property, can no longer be open to doubt. . . . There is, of course, no doubt as to the right to make prize of an enemy ship on the high seas and, under certain conditions, to destroy her, and equally no doubt of the obligation to safeguard the lives of all persons aboard, whether passengers or crew. . . . In addition to the authorities . . . are the regulations and practices of various governments. In 1512, Henry VIII issued instructions to the Admiral of the Fleet which accord with our understanding of modern International Law. (Hosack's Law of Nations, p. 168.) Such has been England's course since. . . . Substantially the same rules were followed in the Russian and Japanese regulations and probably in the codes or rules of many other nations. . . . The rules recognized and practised by the United States, among other things, provide: (10) In the case of an enemy merchantman it may be sunk, but only, if it is impossible to take it into port, and provided always that the persons on board are put in a place of safety. (*United States White Book, European War, no. 3, p. 192.*) . . . Further, section 116 of the German Prize Code (Huberich & Kind translation, p. 68) in force at the date of the 'Lusitania's' destruction, conformed to the American rule. It provided: Before proceeding to a destruction of the vessel, the safety of all persons on board, and, so far as possible, their effects, is to be provided for, and all ship's papers and other evidentiary material, which according to the views of the persons at interest, is of value for the formulation of the judgment of the prize court, are to be taken over by the commander. . . . The sinking of the 'Lusitania' [resulted from] the illegal act of the Imperial German Government, acting through its instrument, the submarine commander, and violating a cherished and humane rule observed, until this war, by even the bitterest antagonists. (Opinion of Court, United States District Court, Southern District of New York—In the matter of

the petition of the Cunard Steamship Company, limited, as owners of the steamship *Lusitania,* for limitation of its liability.)"—*International Conciliation, Nov.,* 1918.—"A Board of Trade investigation was undertaken, under the presidency of Lord Mersey, into the events connected with the disaster. The report of this court was read by Lord Mersey on July 17. It stated that 'the loss of the said ship and lives was due to damage caused to the said ship by torpedoes fired by a submarine of German nationality whereby the ship sank. In the opinion of the court the act was done not merely with the intention of sinking the ship but also with the intention of destroying the lives of the people on board.' The report found that the cargo was a general cargo of the ordinary kind, but included a number of cases of cartridges (about 5,000). There was no other explosive on board. The statements of the German Government to the effect that the *Lusitania* was equipped with masked guns, supplied with trained gunners and special ammunition, that she was transporting Canadian troops and that she was violating the laws of the United States, Lord Mersey found to be untrue. 'They are nothing but baseless inventions, and they serve only to condemn the persons who make use of them.' The two torpedoes, which struck the ship on the starboard side, were fired without warning of any kind. There was some evidence that a third torpedo had been fired from the port side, but missed the *Lusitania.* Lord Mersey relieved the captain from blame, although he had not followed the advice given him by the Admiralty for averting the dangers he was likely to encounter."—*Annual Register,* 1915, *pp.* 21-22.

LUSSINO, or Lussin, island in the Adriatic, off the coast of Istria, formerly belonging to Austria. It was promised to Italy by the Treaty of London, 1915, and was confirmed as an Italian possession at the peace conference following the World War, 1919. See LONDON, TREATY OF PACT OF.

LUSTRUM.—"After the [Roman] Censors had concluded the various duties committed to their charge, they proceeded in the last place to offer up, on behalf of the whole Roman people, the great expiatory sacrifice called Lustrum, and this being offered up once only in the space of five years, the term Lustrum is frequently employed to denote that space of time."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquity, ch.* 5.

LUTENIST SONG WRITERS. See MUSIC: Medieval: 1226-1622.

LUTETIA, Lucotecia, or Luketia, Roman fort on the present site of Paris. See PARIS: Beginning.

LUTHER, Martin (1483-1546), German leader of the Reformation. Entered the University of Erfurt, 1501; received his master's degree, 1505; destined to be a lawyer but suddenly entered the Erfurt Convent of the Augustinian Eremites; ordained, 1507; became professor of theology at Wittenberg, 1512; showed his opposition to scholastic theology in his sermon on indulgences, 1516, through a discussion of which he began his work as a reformer.

Luther's attack on indulgences.—His ninety-five theses. See PAPACY: 1517: Luther's attack upon the indulgences; 1517: Ninety-five theses of Luther; GERMANY: 1517-1523.

His excommunication. See PAPACY: 1517-1521.

At the diet of Worms.—Translation of the Bible. See PAPACY: 1521-1522; BIBLE, ENGLISH: 14th-16th centuries; GERMAN LITERATURE: 1250-1650.

Reforms in the church.—His marriage. See PAPACY; 1522-1525; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Luther, his motives, etc.

Educational ideas.—Denunciation of Copernicus. See EDUCATION: Modern: 15th-16th century: Relation of Renaissance, etc.; 16th century: Luther, etc.; ASTRONOMY: 130-1609.

Influence in Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1521-1555.

See also LUTHERAN CHURCH.

LUTHERAN CHURCH: 1517-1852.—Origin.—Scope.—Historical periods.—Government.—"The Lutheran Church in Europe is the oldest and probably the largest of the Evangelical denominations which sprang from the Reformation of the sixteenth century. It was named after the great leader, first in derision, by Roman Catholics, then by the followers of Luther, though he protested against a sectarian use of his name. [See EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Luther, etc.] Its usual title is 'Evangelical Lutheran Church.' In Prussia and other countries of Germany where the union between Lutherans and Reformed has been introduced (since 1817) the name 'Lutheran' has been abandoned as a church title for 'Evangelical' or 'Evangelical United.' This church has its home in Germany where it outnumbers all other Protestant denominations, and in Scandinavia (Denmark, Sweden, Norway), where it is the established or national church. It extends to the Baltic provinces of Russia, and follows the German emigration and the German language to other countries, especially to the United States, where it is now one of the strongest denominations. The total membership, including all branches is estimated at about sixty millions. Its history may be divided into five periods: (1) The pentecostal or formative period of the Reformation, from the promulgation of Luther's ninety-five theses in 1517 to the publication of the 'Book of Concord' in 1580. [See PAPACY: 1517, to 1530-1531; 1570-1597.] (2) The period of polemical orthodoxy, in which the doctrinal system of the church was scholastically defined and analyzed in opposition to Romanism, Calvinism, and the milder and more liberal type of Lutheranism (as represented by Calixtus, 1580-1689). (3) The period of Pietism, . . . or a revival of practical piety in conflict with dead orthodoxy, from 1689 . . . to the middle of the eighteenth century. . . . (4) The period of rationalism which gradually invaded the universities, pulpits, and highest judicatories, and effected a complete revolution in theology and church life to such an extent that the few Moravian communities were for some time almost the only places of refuge for genuine piety in Germany. (5) The period of revival of Evangelical theology and religion at the third centennial celebration of the Reformation, and the publication of Claus Harm's ninety-five theses against the rationalistic apostasy, (1817). In the same year Prussia took the lead in the union movement which brought the Lutheran and Reformed confessions under one system of government, but called forth the 'Old Lutheran' reaction and secession. Since then there has been a constant conflict between Evangelical and rationalistic tendencies in the Lutheran and the United Evangelical Churches in Germany. . . . In Germany as in Denmark and Sweden, the Lutheran Church is under the governmental patronage of the various states; the support of the congregations and the construction of church edifices are provided for out of the national revenues. The supreme consistory of Prussia since 1852 has been composed in part of Lutheran and in part of Reformed members."—P. Schaff, (*New Schaff-Herzog religious encyclopedia, v.* 7, *pp.* 79, 81).

1817-1876.—Union and free churches.—"The Lutheran free churches in Germany do not recognize the position of the secular ruler as supreme head of the Church, and have organized independent congregations without the aid of the State. Originating primarily in hostility to the introduction of the Union between Lutheran and Reformed Churches, they do not, however, reject the State Church altogether. The oldest and largest free church in Germany is the Evangelical Lutheran Church in Prussia, also known as Old Lutherans. It originated from the opposition to the Union which was introduced into Prussia in 1817 and gradually carried through by 1830. . . . The new congregation regarded itself as the continuation of the Lutheran Church hitherto legally acknowledged in Prussia, and asked the king to grant them a constitution. The authorities, however, saw in the new congregation only revolutionaries and dissenters, and petitions long remained unanswered. . . . The king tried to remove their scruples against the agenda by the concession of the Lutheran formula of distribution, but he refused the formation of a dissenting church on the ground that with it the purity of the Lutheran Church within the Union was openly denied. . . . [In] 1831 . . . the formation of a special Lutheran church was refused. . . . The former members . . . held meetings conducted by laymen, or turned to the few pastors in Silesia who had not yet adopted the new agenda. . . . In the neighborhood of Züllichau, Juliusburg, and Strehlen . . . oppressive measures only spread the movement. . . . It was only after Frederick William IV. had ascended the throne in 1840 that conditions became more favorable for the Old Lutherans. . . . The first public Old-Lutheran General Synod met on Sept. 15, 1841. It established a comprehensive church order which is still in force in all essentials. The government of all churches was entrusted to a board of clergy and laity. A General Synod, meeting every four years, was to form the supreme court of appeal, to which the ecclesiastical board was also responsible. . . . [In 1860] a discord arose which shook the Lutheran Church in Prussia to its depths and led to a fatal schism, the question concerning the importance of church government. . . . The rupture became irremediable when on July 21, 1864 . . . [certain] preachers under the leadership of Diedrich organized a special body, the Immanuel Synod. . . . The Independent Evangelical Lutheran Church in the Hessian lands originated in the opposition of the strictly Lutheran clergy to the new church constitution introduced into the grand duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, Jan. 6, 1874. . . . Consequently they separated from the State Church and formed five congregations. . . . The consistory applied the severest measures, fines, suspension, and deposition against the dissenting pastors. A few only being supported by their congregations, they were forced to emigrate. Those remaining in Hesse were forbidden to officiate until a decree of the higher tribunal in 1876 declared the deposed preachers laymen as regards the State, and thus protected their official acts against the decrees of punishment of the penal code. . . . The Evangelical Lutheran Free Church in Hanover had its origin in the ecclesiastical struggles due to the annexation of the kingdom of Hanover and the danger of the Prussian union. In spite of the promise of King William to maintain the existing order, the Union made great progress. . . . But the Lutheran movement increased from year to year, and at last, in 1856, toleration was granted to its adherents. . . . The Evangelical Lutheran Free Church in Saxony and other states has an entirely different character from that of the other Lutheran free churches in Germany. While the others were called forth more or less by the opposition against the Union, this Free Church was formed in the midst of Lutheran territories, partly even of such as had separated already from the State Church on account of the Union. It stands in connection with the Missouri Synod in America, and declares all other Lutheran state and free churches unfaithful to the confession. The occasion for the formation of the Free Church in Saxony was the change into a mere vow of the oath of religion binding upon Lutherans. . . . On Nov. 6, 1876, all dissenting congregations in Saxony united to form the Evangelical Lutheran Free Church in Saxony and other states. . . . In Germany in 1910 the Immanuel synod numbered about 5,300 persons with thirteen ministers; the Nonconformist Church of Lower Hesse comprised about 2,400 members; the Evangelical Lutheran Free Church in Hanover numbered about 2,800 members and two ministers; and the Lutheran Congregations in Baden about 1,330 members. In 1901 the Evangelical Free Church in Saxony and other States numbered about 2,230 members and seven pastors in Saxony and 1,350 members and eight pastors outside of Saxony. . . . Besides these free churches in Germany there are also congregations that arose frequently only from local conflicts with the State Church."—G. Froböss, *New Schaff-Herzog religious encyclopedia, v. 7, pp.* 81-83.

Lutherans in America.—"The earliest Lutherans in America came from Holland to Manhattan Island in 1623 with the first Dutch colony. For some years they had great difficulty in establishing worship of their own, the Dutch authorities, ecclesiastical and civil, having received instructions 'to encourage no other doctrine in the New Netherlands than the true Reformed' and 'to allure the Lutherans to the Dutch churches and matriculate them in the Public Reformed religion.' A Lutheran pastor, the Rev. John Ernest Goetwater, was sent to this country in 1657 by the Lutheran congregations, one at New York, the other at Albany. He was not allowed, however, to enter upon his ministrations, but was sent back to Holland by representatives of the Reformed faith. When the English took possession of New York the Lutherans were allowed full liberty of worship. The Lutheran faith was also established on the banks of the Delaware by a Swedish colony, who erected the first Lutheran church in America near Lewes in 1638. Swedish immigration was soon checked, and the large Lutheran influx from Germany did not begin until early in the eighteenth century, the first German congregation of Lutherans having been organized at about that time in Montgomery County, Pa., with the Rev. Justus Falckner, who was ordained in this country by the Swedes, as its first pastor. In 1710 a large number of exiled Palatines settled in New York and Pennsylvania, and in 1734 a colony of Salzburgers planted the Lutheran faith in Georgia. While immigration brought many Lutherans to this country, they were in a scattered and unorganized condition until the arrival of the Rev. Henry M. Muhlenburg, who drew them closer together, formed them into congregations, and inspired them with new life. In 1748 he, with six other ministers and lay delegates from congregations, organized the first Lutheran synod in this country, the Synod or Ministerium of Pennsylvania. In 1786 the second synod, the Ministerium of New York, was formed. The recent extraordinary growth of the Lutheran communion in this country is due in part to immi-

gration from Lutheran countries. A large proportion of Lutherans are either German immigrants or the offspring of German immigrants. There are also large bodies of Swedish, Norwegian, and Danish Lutherans, with a number from Finland and other European countries."—H. K. Carroll, *Religious forces of the United States, pp.* 175-176. —"As Lutheran immigration increased there was a corresponding development of activity on the part of different synods in their efforts to reach all newcomers, the lead being taken by the Pittsburgh Synod, organized in 1843. As a result a number of independent synods were formed, each adapted to the peculiar condition of language, previous ecclesiastical relation or geographic location. As, however, the churches came into closer fellowship, the distinctive features in many cases faded out of view. . . . In some instances, especially among the smaller synods, the churches gradually became absorbed in the other synods. . . . These movements for unions have resulted in the organization of the Norwegian Lutheran Church of America and in plans [since realized] for the United Lutheran Church in America."—United States Census, *Religious bodies,* 1916, *pt.* 2, *p.* 348.—Lutheran doctrine is embodied in the "Augsburg Confession" (see PAPACY: 1530-1531) and in numerous other symbols, known as "Luther's Catechisms," the "Apology of the Augsburg," the "Smalkalden Articles," and the "Formula of Concord." The cardinal doctrine is that of justification by faith alone. They celebrate the various festivals of the Christian year and have a liturgical form of worship. "The total number of Lutherans [twenty bodies] in the United States in 1920 was 2,451,997."—Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America (*Year book of the churches,* 1920, *p.* 199).—"The number of Lutherans in Central and South America is estimated at about half a million, in the Danish West Indies they are in connection with the State Church of Denmark, in South America they are partly supported by the Lutherische Gotteskasten in Germany, and partly under the supervision of the Prussian State Church and assisted by it."—A. Spaeth, *New Schaff-Herzog religious encyclopedia, v.* 7, *p.* 93.

ALSO IN: T. M. Lindsay, *Luther and the German Reformation.*—S. A. Holman, ed., *Lectures on the Augsburg confession.*—D. Schaff, *History of the creeds of Christendom.*—J. N. Lenker, *Lutherans in all lands.*—C. W. Schaeffer, *Early history of the Lutheran church in America.*—H. E. Jacobs, *Lutheran movement in England and its literary monuments.*—Idem, *American Church History Series, v.* 4.—E. J. Wolf, *Lutherans in America.*

LUTSK, or Luck, town in Poland, about 100 miles southeast of Brest-Litovsk. The city is one of three fortresses forming the famous Volhynian triangle, the others being Rovno and Dubno. During the World War, considerable fighting took place here between the Russians and the Austro-Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 6; i, 7; 1916: III. Eastern front: a, 2.

LUTTER, Battle of (1626). See GERMANY: 1624-1626.

LUTTRELL, Henry Lawes (Lord Carhampton) (1743-1821), English general. See ULSTER: 1791-1797.

LUTTWITZ, Baron von, German general. Governor in Brussels after the German occupation, 1914; led the German counter-revolution, 1920. See GERMANY: 1920 (March-April); CAVELL, EDITH.

LUTZEN, Battles of (1632, 1757). See GERMANY: 1631-1632; 1757 (July-December).

LUTZEN, or Gross Gorschen, Battle of (1813). See GERMANY: 1813 (April-May); AUSTRIA: 1809-1814.

LUTZOW, German battle cruiser. It was sunk at the battle of Jutland, 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 9.

LUXBURG DISPATCHES.—On May 19 and July 9, 1917, Count Luxburg, German minister to Argentina, sent through the Swedish minister in the latter's code, the advice to the German government that Argentine ships be "spared if possible or else sunk without a trace" (spurlos versenkt). These messages were intercepted by the Allies. Argentina would have declared war on Germany, but was restrained by a pro-German president and by profuse German apologies; the Allies would have declared war on Sweden, but the Kerensky government of Russia was not prepared for a Swedish campaign, and the other Allies could not easily attack Sweden.

LUXEMBURG, François Henri de Montmorency-Bouteville, Duke of (1628-1695), French marshal. See FRANCE: 1694.

LUXEMBURG, Rosa (1870-1919), German Socialist. Associated with Karl Liebknecht as leader of the Spartacists; put to death with Liebknecht, January 15, 1919, by German army officers. See GERMANY: 1919 (January); SPARTACIST MANIFESTO.

LUXEMBURG: Geographic description.—Area.—Population.—"The territory of the present Luxemburg covers a picturesque area of mountainous forest land, lying on the heights that separate the basin of the Meuse from that of the Moselle. On the north and east is the German empire,—Rhenish Prussia. On the south lies German territory, too, the Lorraine part of Alsace-Lorraine. South-west is a tiny stretch of France. West lies Belgium, its adjacent province being a former intrinsic portion of Luxemburg itself. [See also NETHERLANDS: Map.] These heights are part of the high plateau of the Ardennes, a plateau that extends into Belgium and into France. The greatest length of the Grand Duchy is fifty-five, its greatest breadth is thirty-four miles, the whole area covering 999 square miles [with a population, 1916, of 263,824]. Politically, the connection of the land with the outside world has been as various as the course of its streams which flow in all directions down the deflected water-shed. It was essentially a border land between Teutonic, Gallic, and Belgic peoples before sections of its territory were lopped off, and a border land it still is."—R. Putnam, *Luxemburg and her neighbours, p.* iii.

ALSO IN: G. Renwick, *Grand duchy of Luxemburg and its people.*

Resources.—Mining is the principal industry of Luxemburg. The minette iron-field occupies fourteen square miles, and has an annual output of ore estimated at 7,000,000 tons. The agricultural lands have an area of about 250,000 acres largely given over to the cultivation of beetroot, potatoes, fruit, and vineyards.

100-1060.—Early history.—Luxemburg was included in the Roman empire as part of the province of Belgica prima. Afterwards it formed part of the Frankish kingdom of Austrasia, and of the empire of Charlemagne. In 1060 it emerges as a political entity under the rule of Conrad, count of Luxemburg.

1060-1760.—Under Holy Roman empire.—For two centuries the county led an uneventful existence at least so far as continental history is concerned, as a petty principality of the Holy Roman empire. In 1308 it entered into the field of general European history, with the election

of its count, Henry of Luxemburg, to be emperor of the Holy Roman empire. In 1354 Henry gave the province to his brother Wenceslaus, and raised it to the rank of a duchy. The later fortunes of the country, which passed by female descent first to the Counts of Namur and then to those of Limburg, are better told. Under this last dynasty, so well known in history as that House of Luxemburg which gave four emperors to Western Europe, the country became a duchy; but, as it justly pointed out, it lost rather than gained by the elevation of its rulers to the imperial throne, since they could no longer give undivided attention to its affairs. Luxemburg never again had a governor such as Ermesinde, the ancestress of these emperors, under whom it had prospered for fifty years; and its fate now was that of a mere appanage of the imperial house, which could be treated as an outlying family estate. The duchy was mortgaged and re-mortgaged; its legal sovereignty became sundered from actual possession; and the mutual obligations of rulers and ruled were rendered uncertain. The confusion was ended at last through the purchase by Duke Philip of Burgundy, first of the various mortgagees' pecuniary claims, and then of the sovereign rights still vested in the heirs of the last Luxemburg emperor. From 1451 onwards Luxemburg formed part of the dominions of the dukes of Burgundy, from whom it was inherited with the other Belgian provinces by the House of Hapsburg. And it shared, in the miseries which the long drawn-out strife between the Hapsburgs and the French kings brought upon the Netherlands. Twice it was occupied by Francis I; for a short while it was held by Louis XIV. Yet it hardly had a history of its own.

1713.—**Ceded to Holland.** See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1780-1914.—**Under French revolutionary rule.—Grand duchy in German confederation.—Division of principalities between Belgium and grand duke.—Guarantee of perpetual neutrality and international status.—Character of German dynasty.**—"Such was the province in 1780, when the Emperor Joseph II succeeded his mother, Maria Theresa, as sovereign of the Austrian Netherlands. . . . Joseph's headstrong reforms provoked the Brabantine Revolution of 1789, when for a few months Austrian rule was rejected in all the Belgian provinces except Luxemburg; . . . afterwards these lands became the battlefield, and alternately the prize, of the contention between France and Austria, until the victory of the former at Fleurus in 1794 brought about their incorporation in the French Republic; . . . the fortress city of Luxemburg alone held out until in June, 1795, it too had to surrender, and the duchy, diminished in territory, became the French Department of the Forests. For the Belgians, who cherished their local liberties, the change was a sad one. French citizenship meant to them heavy taxation, personal restraint, and conscription of their youth, and the suppression of their religion. The Peasants' War of 1798, in which Luxemburgers took part, was the futile effort of an unorganized population to regain their freedom; and relief only came when Napoleon's rise to power brought with it religious toleration, settled conditions and the encouragement of industry. For these benefits the Emperor is still held in grateful remembrance. With the Peace of 1815 Luxemburg ceased to be a French department, and became again a principality with rank as a Grand Duchy. But while the other Belgian provinces were now joined to the Dutch territories to form the new kingdom of the Netherlands, Luxemburg itself was given over to the Dutch King as a family possession, to compensate him for the transfer of his ancestral German principalities to the Crown of Prussia [see also NETHERLANDS: 1813-1830.] The separation was emphasized by the incorporation of the Grand Duchy in the German Confederation, and by the assignment to Prussia, on behalf of that body, of the duty of garrisoning the fortress of Luxemburg. Finally the German branch of the House of Nassau was allowed the same contingent right of succession to Luxemburg that it had hitherto possessed to the alienated principalities. Dissatisfaction alike in the provinces and in the Grand Duchy was the result. When therefore the Belgians revolted in 1830 they were joined wholeheartedly by the Luxemburgers, and complete reunion would have been effected but for the untoward turn of events the next year. [See also BELGIUM: 1830-1832.] Yet the intervention of the Powers was required before the final settlement was reached in 1839, when irreconcilable claims were compromised by a partition of Luxemburg which assigned the western three-fifths of the province to the kingdom of Belgium and left the eastern two-fifths with the Grand Duke [see also NETHERLANDS: 1839-1842.] That division has persisted since. Yet the political and economic relations of ducal Luxemburg soon became so anomalous that some further adjustment was inevitable." —*Times Weekly Edition (London), March 21*, 1919.—"Napoleon III, making Prussia's increase in territory after the defeat of Austria an excuse, sought [1866] compensation in order to maintain the relative position of France. The dissolution of the Germanic Confederation caused uncertainty in regard to the situation of Luxemburg, which was further increased by the fact that in the death of the King of Holland the personal union with that country would disappear, because the Luxemburg law of inheritance did not recognize the succession of females except in default of male heirs. Napoleon III found the King of Holland ready to acquiesce in his project to secure Luxemburg, but unwilling to keep the negotiations secret from Prussia. Bismarck, however, showed a complaisant disposition and seemed willing to allow France to secure Luxemburg in return for her neutrality during Prussia's war with Austria. At an opportune moment Bismarck proceeded to make public the negotiations in regard to the cession of Luxemburg and to take advantage of the popular outburst of indignation against France to form defensive alliances with the several German states against the eventuality of a French attack. Supported by a strong public sentiment, Bismarck refused to withdraw the Prussian garrison from Luxemburg, and a Franco-Prussian war seemed on the point of breaking out. The other powers did what they could to prevent the conflict, and at Russia's suggestion a conference was called at London to settle the Luxemburg question. . . . The question of the guaranty of the perpetual neutrality of the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg is one of the most interesting that has arisen in international law. According to the terms of the Treaty [of London] of May 11, 1867, Luxemburg, . . . was placed under the 'collective guaranty' of the powers. This treaty was signed by the five great powers signatory to the treaties guaranteeing the neutralization of Belgium, with the addition of Italy, who thereupon took her place as the sixth great power in the European Concert. Belgium also signed this treaty, with an express reservation in regard to the neutralization guaranty."—E. C. Stowell, *Diplomacy of the war of*

1914, pp. 424-425.—See also GERMANY: 1866-1870.

—The grand duchy survived, freed from political connexion with Germany and from military occupation by Prussia, but rendered defenceless by the dismantling of its fortress, and neutralized under the collective guarantee of the Powers. With the disappearance of that illusory safeguard through the German invasion of 1914 the question has once more arisen of the future place of Luxemburg in the European state system. For nearly thirty years the grand duchy has been under a German dynasty, whose sympathies are strongly German, though the natural affinities of its people are still with Belgium.

1833.—Member of Zollverein. See TARIFF: 1833.

1899-1907.—First and second Hague conferences. See HAGUE CONFERENCES.

1914-1918.—In the World War.—Diplomatic preliminaries.—Armed occupation by German troops.—In 1890, the grand ducal title had passed from the king of Holland to his nearest male relative, Adolph of Nassau. As fate gave only daughters (six) to this grand duke's son William, the Salic law was formally set aside in 1907, and 1914 found Marie Adelaide as sovereign grand duchess."—R. Putnam, *Luxemburg chamber of deputies* (*American Political Science Review, Nov.,* 1920).—"When the situation became tense, after the presentation of the Austrian note to Servia, M. Eyschen, Minister of State of Luxemburg, asked the French Minister on July 31 [1914], 'for an official declaration to the effect that France, in case of war, would respect the neutrality of Luxemburg.' . . . [On] August 2, M. Eyschen telegraphed the French Government of the German invasion of Luxemburg as follows: 'I have the honor to bring to Your Excellency's notice the following facts: On Sunday, the 2d August, very early, German troops, according to the information which has up to now reached the Grand Ducal Government, penetrated into Luxemburg territory especially toward the south and in the direction of Luxemburg, the capital of the Grand Duchy. A certain number of armored trains with troops and ammunition have been sent along the railway line from Wasserbillig to Luxemburg, where their arrival is immediately expected. These occurrences constitute acts which are manifestly contrary to the neutrality of the Grand Duchy as guaranteed by the Treaty of London of 1867.' . . . That same day, August 2, the French Ambassador at London informed his Government that 'Sir Edward Grey, in speaking of the neutrality of Belgium and Luxemburg, had reminded him that the Convention of 1867, relative to the Grand Duchy [Luxemburg], differed from the treaty concerning Belgium, in that England was bound to require the observance of this latter convention without necessarily having the concurrence [*concours*] of the other guaranteeing powers, whereas in the case of Luxemburg all the guaranteeing powers were to act in concert.' (Modified quotation, August 2, F. Y. B. no. 137; cf. B. W. P. no. 148.)"—E. C. Stowell, *Diplomacy of the war of 1914, pp.* 429-430.—"Luxemburg was overrun in August, 1914, by Germany, which twice committed perjury, violated two treaties, that of 1867, whereby the eternal neutrality of the Grand Duchy was expressly proclaimed by Prussia, and the treaty of 1902, whereby Germany bound herself never to employ the Luxemburg railways for the transport of troops and war material. . . . Germany established garrisons there, requisitioned the railways and the post and telegraphs; expelled the Ministers of foreign powers from the country, depriving Luxemburg by so doing of even the appearance of independence; abolished the immunity of the people's representatives."—*New York Times Current History, Nov.,* 1918.—See also BELGIUM: 1839-1914; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 50.

"M. Eyschen who made his protests in August, 1914, did not live to see the increasing domination of his country by the visitors who were to pass through so innocently. He died on October 4, 1915. For more than twenty-six years he had held the reins of government as chief minister under four sovereigns."—R. Putnam, *Luxemburg and her neighbors, p.* 423.—"German princes and generals were well received by the reigning duchess, and throughout the war Luxemburg was swallowed up in Germany and cut off from the outside world, while popular leaders, like Prüm, languished in German prisons."—C. H. Haskins, *Luxemburg* (E. M. House and C. Seymour, ed., *What really happened at Paris, p.* 45).—On Aug. 26, 1918, the betrothal of Princess Antonia of Luxemburg and Crown Prince Rupert of Bavaria was announced, thus confirming the fact that the House of Nassau had openly gone over to the Germans.

ALSO IN: R. Putnam, *Luxemburg and her neighbors.*

1918.—Germany forced to evacuate. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: f, 1.

1919-1921.—During the peace conference and after.—Claims of Belgium and France.—Revolution.—Abdication of the grand duchess.—Referendum to determine future of duchy.—Economic protectorate of Belgium.—"With the withdrawal of the Germans, revolutionary movements arose in the country, which were renewed in stronger form on Jan. 9, 1919, with a proclamation of a republic by the anti-dynastic party and the withdrawal of the Duchess [Marie Adelaide] from the capital to her chateau outside. . . . On Jan. 11 [she] issued a proclamation abdicating the throne. The abdication was accepted on Jan. 14, and the chamber voted, 30 to 19, to make her successor the next younger of the six sisters, Princess Charlotte. The new ruler assumed office on Jan. 15. Grand Duchess Charlotte was born Jan. 23, 1896, and is two years and a half younger than the sister who abdicated."—*New York Times Current History, Feb.,* 1919.—"Following the revolution in Luxemburg and the abdication of Grand Duchess Marie Adelaide in favor of her sister Charlotte, the council of the Grand Duchy introduced a bill in the Chamber providing for a referendum to decide whether the people preferred to change the form of government to a republic. The new Grand Duchess made a statement of friendship and gratitude toward the Entente and announced that appointments to her personal staff would all be native Luxemburgers."—*Ibid., Mar.,* 1919.—"It was plain that the Allies, Belgium and France most of all, could not permit a return of Luxemburg to German control; and it was equally plain that, whatever political independence the grand duchy retained, it could not stand economically alone. With but 260,000 people and 1000 square miles of territory, it was not large enough for that; and its principal industry, iron, needed the coal and the markets of adjacent lands. Belgium felt that Luxemburg would naturally turn to her. The people were Catholic; the language of government and of the educated classes was French; there were strong ties of tradition and sentiment between the two countries. Belgium counted, counted too confidently, on the result. She forgot the

strong feeling for local independence among the Luxemburgers, who, as their national song runs, 'want to remain what they are'; she forgot the strength of dynastic tradition and clerical influence. For any union with Belgium spelled the end of the local dynasty and of national identity, and might, it was feared, mean the swallowing up of a conservative Catholic people by a larger and more Socialistic neighbor. France also wanted Luxemburg. She wanted it for purposes of defence, so as to prevent a repetition of 1914; she wanted its iron mines and blast furnaces. And, unlike the Belgians, she knew how to wait. The treaty of peace merely insisted upon the permanent detachment of Luxemburg from the Zollverein, and the abandonment of all German control over its railways. [See also VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part II; Part III, Section II.] It did not touch the dynasty; it compelled no new attachments. Meanwhile France, in the full glamor of victory, with a brilliant staff quartered in the duchy itself, dazzled the imagination of the Luxemburgers. They were brought to think that, while any arrangement with Belgium threatened their independence, this could be amply safeguarded in a merely economic union with France. . . . When the plebiscite came, September 28, 1919, a decided majority pronounced for the reigning duchess and for a customs union with France. Women voted for the first time in this election, and while no separate returns were made of their votes, it is not likely that they diminished the proportion of votes for the duchess. Of all the German ruling families which were in power in 1918, the sole survivor today is that of the grand duchess of Luxemburg. And the only surviving Austrian prince is her consort, Prince Felix of Bourbon-Parma, naturalized as a Luxemburger November 5, 1919, by a close vote in the Chamber and married the following day. And if some time these two should disappear in another revolution, the republic which would follow seems likely to seek support from France rather than from Belgium."—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference, pp.* 58-60.—Early in 1919 the constitution of the country was revised. "Article 37 gave the grand duke power to make war and treaties, giving such information to the chamber as the safety of the state permitted. The revised article 13 reads: 'The grand duke commands the armed force. He makes the treaties. No treaty is effective without the assent of the chamber. Secret treaties are abolished. No cession, no exchange, no addition of territory can take place except by virtue of a law.' Article 52 on the suffrage was radically changed. As amended it reads: 'The deputies are elected on the basis of universal and simple suffrage by ballot, according to the rules of proportional representation, conforming to the principle of the smallest electoral quotient and to regulations to be determined by law.' 'The country is divided into four electoral districts. South—Esch, Capellen; Centre —Luxemburg city, country and Mersch; North—Diekirch, Redange, Wiltz, Clervaux and Vianden; East—Grevenmacher, Remich and Echternach. To be an elector it is necessary: 1. To be a Luxembourgeois or Luxembourgeoise. 2. To enjoy civil and political rights. 3. To be 21 years old. [Twenty-five had been the age limit for tax paying males.] 4. To be resident in the grand duchy. 'To these four qualifications must be added those determined by law. No condition of tax payment can be required. To be eligible as deputy one must be 25 years of age, and in addition possess the three other qualifications. The electors shall be called upon to declare their preferences by way of the referendum in the case and under the conditions to be determined by law.' Deputies living in the capital have had no compensation. Those from a distance received first five, and since 1898, ten francs a day for each day of presence. Article 75 as amended reads: 'Members of the chamber of deputies shall enjoy an indemnity of not more than 4000 francs per annum. They shall also have a right to indemnity for displacement. Details relative to this double indemnity shall be regulated by law which shall be retroactive for the session of the constituent assembly.' These four articles—32, 37, 52, and 75—duly ratified by the council of state and endorsed by the young sovereign, were published on May 16, 1919 and became law. Since that time practically every adult in the land, considered as true Luxemburger, has been called upon to express an opinion on the composition of the legislature. According to the election law a notice is sent to all voters by a town official. They are thus saved the duty of registration and have their legal ballot in hand when they go to the appointed polls. More than that, a fine is incurred for failure to vote, except in case of a referendum, where balloting is optional."—R. Putnam, *Luxemburg chamber of deputies* (*American Political Science Review, Nov.*, 1920).—By a treaty signed at Brussels, in 1921, the economic protectorate was transferred to Belgium. "By the terms of the new agreement, all customs formalities between Belgium and Luxemburg are abolished, and in the future, wherever the Duchy is not represented by its own consular agents, Luxemburg's interests will be placed in the hands of Belgian consular officers. All Luxemburg money is to be replaced by Belgian money, with the exception of bills of a denomination less than 10 francs and totaling 25,000,000 francs. The consolidation of the Luxemburg railroad system with that of Belgium is agreed upon. The combined system will be handled by a single administration, the details of which are to be determined later. France renounces all claim to participation in this administration. Luxemburg is to receive a loan of 175,000,000 francs to be raised by a Belgian financial group. On the loan, Luxemburg is required to pay 2 per cent. interest, the remaining interest to be paid by Belgium. Arrangements are made for the safeguarding of the various legitimate interests of the metallurgical industry, and cooperation is pledged in intellectual pursuits. A supreme council, composed of five members, Belgians and Luxemburgers, will control the various organisms created and will act as the liaison between the Governments in the execution of the agreement."—*New York Times, June* 12, 1921.

ALSO IN: R. Putnam, *Luxemburg and her neighbors.*—C. S. Terry, *Short history of Europe.*

1920.—Admitted to League of Nations. See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: First meeting of the assembly.

LUXEMBURG, House of, descended from Count Conrad, 1086.

14th century.—Control of Brabant. See BELGIUM: 1207-1477.

1308-1313.—Rise of the house through Emperor Henry VII. See GERMANY: 1308-1313.

1310.—Rulers of Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1310-1410.

1355.—Dynasty made secure in Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1355.

1364.—Treaty with House of Hapsburg. See AUSTRIA: 1330-1364.

1373.—Beginning of rule in Brandenburg. See BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417.

1385.—Union with Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442.

1410.—Rule over the empire. See GERMANY: 1347-1493.

LUXOR, village of Upper Egypt. It is the center, for visitors, to the ruins of Thebes and the region around it. The famous temple of Luxor was built by Amenhophis III. The population in 1907 was 12,644.—See also EGYPT: B. C. 1414-1379; 1922-1923; TEMPLES: Ancient examples.

LUYNES, Charles d'Albert, Duc de (1578-1621), French courtier. See FRANCE: 1610-1619.

LUZERN. See LUCERNE.

LUZERNE, Anne César Count de la (1741-1791), French diplomat. Minister to the United States, 1779-1783. See U. S. A.: 1782 (September).

LUZON, largest island in the Philippines. (See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Map). By an eruption of the Mayon volcano in 1897 four hundred persons were buried in the lava, and the town of Libog was completely destroyed.

1571.—Conquest by Spaniards. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1564-1572.

1898.—Question as to cession to the United States from Spain. See U. S. A.: 1898 (July-December).

LUZZARA, Battle of (1702). See ITALY: 1701-1713.

LUZZATTI, Luigi (1841-), Italian statesman. See ITALY: 1909-1911; COÖPERATION: Italy; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Italy: 1908-1912.

LUZZATTO, Samuel David (1800-1865), Italian Hebrew scholar and writer. See JEWS: 18th-19th centuries.

LVOV, George Eugenievich, Prince (b. 1861), Russian statesman. See RUSSIA: 1917 (March-April): New Russian government; 1917 (April): Disintegrating propaganda; WORLD WAR: 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: f; n.

LVOV, N. Vladimir, Russian church official. See RUSSIA: 1917 (August); WORLD WAR: 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: n.

LVOV. See LEMBERG.

LYAUTEY, Louis Hubert Gonzalve (b. 1854), French marshal. Resident general of Morocco, 1912-1916; succeeded General Roques as minister of war, 1916; resumed his position as administrator of Morocco, 1917; made marshal of France, 1920. See FRANCE: 1917 (March); MOROCCO: 1912-1919; 1922.

LYCEUM, name of a gymnasium in ancient Athens where Aristotle taught. The name was consequently applied to his school of philosophy. The term is used, at present, to designate a place of instruction. See ACADEMY; GYMNASIA, GREEK; ATHENS: 529; EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Lyceum.

LYCIAN LEAGUE.—"Probably the best constructed Federal Government that the ancient world beheld. The account given by Strabo, our sole authority, is . . . full, clear, and brief. The 'ancestral constitution of the Lykian League' is described by the great geographer in these words: 'There are three and twenty cities which have a share in the suffrage, and they come together from each city in the common Federal Assembly, choosing for their place of meeting any city which they think best. And, among the cities, the greatest are possessed of three votes apiece, the middle ones of two, and the rest of one; and in the same proportion they pay taxes, and take their share of other public burthens. . . . And, in the Federal Assembly, first the Lykiarch is chosen and then the other Magistrates of the League, and bodies of Federal Judges are appointed; and formerly they used to consult about war, and peace, and alliance; this now, of course, they cannot do, but these things must needs rest with the Romans.' . . . On the practical working of this constitution Strabo bestows the highest praise. Lykia was, in his day, a Roman dependency, but it retained its own laws and internal government."—E. A. Freeman, *History of federal government, ch.* 4, *sect.* 4.

LYCIANS.—The people who occupied in ancient times the extreme southern peninsula of Asia Minor. "The ancients knew of no unmixed population in this district. The Phœnicians explored the Lycian Taurus as well as the Cilician; and by land also Semitic tribes seem to have immigrated out of Syria and Cilicia; and these tribes formed the tribe of the Solymi. Another influx of population was conducted to this coast by means of the Rhodian chain of islands: men of Crete came across, who called themselves Termili or Trameli, and venerated Sarpedon as their Hero. After an arduous struggle, they gradually made themselves masters of the land encircled by sea and rock. . . . From the mouth of the Xanthus the Cretans entered the land. There Leto had first found a hospitable reception; in Patara, near by, arose the first great temple of Apollo, the god of light, or Lycius, with the worship of whom the inhabitants of the land became subsequently to such a degree identified as to receive themselves from the Greeks on whose coasts they landed the same name as the god, viz., Lycians. . . . We know that the Lycians, in courage and knowledge of the sea fully the equals of the most seafaring nation of the Archipelago, from a desire of an orderly political life, renounced at an early period the public practice of piracy, which their neighbours in Pisidia and Cilicia never relinquished. Their patriotism they proved in heroic struggles, and in the quiet of home developed a greater refinement of manners, to which the special honour in which they held the female sex bears marked testimony."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece, v.* 1, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 3.

LYCURGUS, Greek legislator. Reputed founder of Sparta's constitution. See SPARTA: Constitution; GREECE: B. C. 8th-5th centuries: Growth of Sparta.

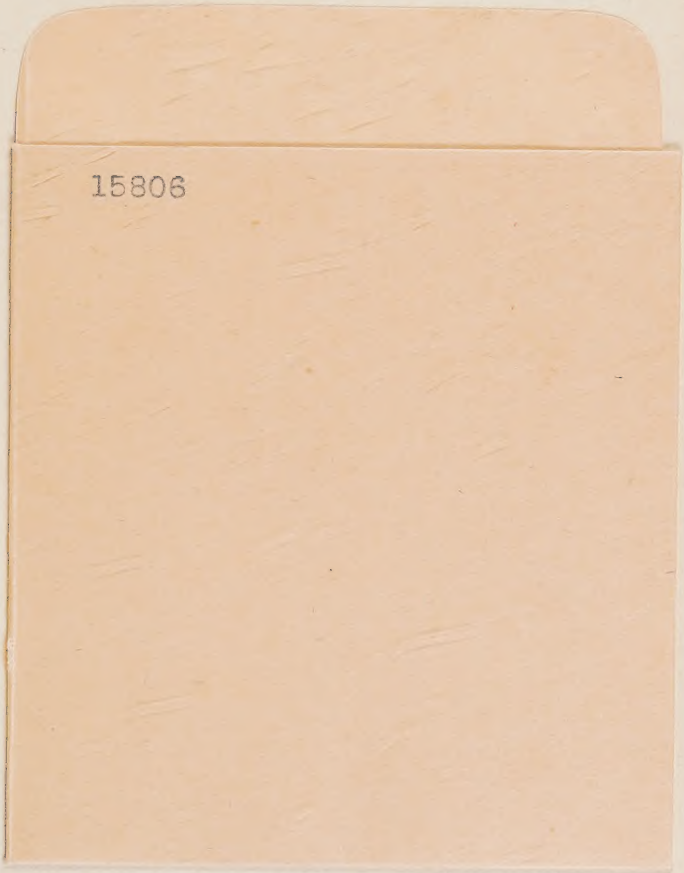
LYDGATE, John (c. 1370-c. 1451), English poet. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 14th century.

LYDIANS.—"On the western coast of Asia Minor the nation of the Lydians, which possessed the vallies of the Hermus and Mæander, had early arrived at a monarchy and a point of civilization far in advance of the stages of primitive life. . . . When the Greeks forced the Phenicians from the islands of the Ægean sea, and then, about the end of the eleventh and beginning of the tenth century, B. C., landed on the western coast of Asia Minor, the Lydians were not able any more than the Teucrians and Mysians in the North, or the Carians in the South, to prevent the establishment of the Greeks on their coasts, the loss of the ancient native sanctuaries at Smyrna, Colophon, Ephesus, and the founding of Greek cities in their land on the mouths of the Lydian rivers, the Hermus and the Cayster, though the Greek emigrants came in isolated expeditions over the sea. It was on the Lydian coasts that the most important Greek cities rose: Cyme, Phocæa, Smyrna, Colophon, Ephesus., Priene, Myus, and Miletus were on the land of the Carians."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity, bk.* 4, *ch.* 17.—"On the basis of a population related to the Phrygians and Armenians arose the nation of the Lydians, which through its original ancestor, Lud, would appear in Eastern tradition also to be reckoned as a member of the Semitic family. As long as we remain unacquainted with the spoken and written language of the Lydians, it will be

impossible to define with any accuracy the mixture of peoples which here took place. But, speaking generally, there is no doubt of the double relationship of this people, and of its consequent important place in civilization among the groups of the nations of Asia Minor. The Lydians became on land, as the Phœnicians by sea, the mediators between Hellas and Anterior Asia. . . . The Lydians are the first among the nations of Asia Minor of whom we have any intimate knowledge as a political community."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece, v.* 1, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 3.—The first, perhaps legendary, dynasty of Lydia, called the Atyadæ, was followed by one called the Herakleidæ by the Greeks, which is said to have ruled over 500 years. The last king of that family, Kandaules, was murdered, about 715 B. C., by Gyges, who founded the dynasty of the Mermnadæ, under whom the Lydian dominion was extended over most of Asia Minor, and its kings contended on fairly equal terms with the power of the Medes. But their monarchy was overthrown by Cyrus, 546 B. C., and the famous Crœsus, last of their line, ended his days as an attendant and counselor of the Persian king. —G. Grote, *History of Greece, pt.* 2, *ch.* 17, 32.—Recent discoveries tend to the conclusion that the primitive inhabitants of Lydia were of a race to which the Hittites belonged.—A. H. Sayce, ed., *Ancient empires of the East, app.* 4.—See also Asia Minor: B. C. 724-539; Persia: B. C. 549-521; Money and banking: Ancient: Coinage in its beginnings.

LYELL, Sir Charles (1797-1875), British geologist. See Evolution: Darwin's theory; Historical development of the idea.

LYGIANS.—"Of all the invaders of Gaul [in the reign of Probus, 277] the most formidable were the Lygians, a distant people who reigned over a wide domain on the frontiers of Poland and Silesia. In the Lygian nation the Arii held the first rank by their numbers and fierceness. 'The Arii' (it is thus that they are described by the energy of Tacitus) 'study to improve by art and circumstances the innate terrors of their barbarism. Their shields are black, their bodies are painted black. They choose for the combat the darkest hour of the night.' . . . Yet the arms and discipline of the Romans easily discomfited these horrid phantoms. The Lygii were defeated in a general engagement, and Semno, the most renowned of their chiefs, fell alive into the hands of Probus. That prudent emperor, unwilling to reduce a brave people to despair, granted them an honourable capitulation and permitted them to return in safety to their native country. But the losses which they suffered in the march, the battle, and the retreat, broke the power of the nation; nor is the Lygian name ever repeated in the history either of Germany or of the empire."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch.* 12.—"Lygii appears to have been the generic name of the Slavonians on the Vistula. They are the same people as those called Lekhs by Nestor, the Russian chronicler of the twelfth century. These Lekhs are the ancestors of the Poles. See Latham, *The Germany of Tacitus, p.* 158."—W. Smith, *Note to above.*—"The Ligii were a widely-spread tribe, comprehending several clans. Tacitus names the Harii [or Arii], Helvecones, Manimi, Elisii, and Nahanarvali. Their territory was between the Oder and Vistula, and would include the greater part of Poland, and probably a portion of Silesia."—Church and Brodribb, *Geographical notes to the Germany of Tacitus.*—"The Elysii are supposed to have given name to Silesia."—*Note to the Oxford translation of Tacitus: Germany, ch.* 43.—See also Gaul: 277.

LYKIANS. See Lycians.

Reference
Not to Circulate
15806
WITHDRAWN
UST
Libraries